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THE WORLD WAS ALL BEFORE THEM.

MILTON.

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☞ *The Author and Proprietor beg Leave to return their Thanks to the Public, for the very liberal Encouragement they have met with in the Sale of this Work; A New Edition of which, is now in the Press, and considerable Progress made in the Printing. Such of the Plates as have been in any Manner injured by the Number of Impressions taken off, are restored to their original Perfection, others have been newly engraved; and where any Alteration, or Emendation could be made, it has not been omitted; so that the New Edition will in every Respect be fully equal to that now completed.*

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VOYAGE ROUND THE WORLD

DURING

The Years 1785, 1786, 1787, and 1788,

BY LA PEROUSE.

THE publications of various circumnavigators, especially those of the immortal Cook, have excited an almost universal interest in the perusal of Voyages and Travels. The voyages of different English navigators, in extending human knowledge, claimed the admiration of the whole world. All Europe therefore held in the highest estimation Captain Cook's great talents, and the firm disposition of his mind. But in so vast a field there will be room to acquire fresh knowledge for centuries to come—coasts to survey; plants, trees, fish, and birds to describe; minerals and volcanoes to observe; nations to study, and perhaps to render more happy; since a farinaceous plant, or a new species of fruit, must be an inestimable benefit to the inhabitants of the islands in the South Sea.

These reflections suggested the project of a voyage round the world, and scientific men of every class were enrolled in the expedition. M. Dagalet, of the Academy of Sciences, and M. Monge embarked in the character of astronomers; the former on board the Boussole, and the latter on board the Astrolabe. M. de Lamanon, a member of the Academy of Turin, undertook the department of geology. The Abbé Monges superintended the progress of the different branches of physics. M. de Jaissau was selected for the botanical department. Messieurs Prevost, uncle and nephew, were engaged to paint every article belonging to natural history. M. Dufresne, a great naturalist, was added by the controller-general of the finances. And lastly, M. Duché de Vancy was engaged to embark, in order to depict the dresses and scenery of the different countries the navigators might visit. All the learned bodies in the kingdom were, on this occasion, anxious of manifesting their zeal for the progress of the Arts and Sciences.

The mareschal De Castries, minister of the marine, who recommended La Perouse to his Majesty for the command, ordered the different ports to furnish the vessels with whatsoever might contribute to the success of the expedition. Having been empowered to appoint his own officers, he chose for the command of the Astrolabe, M. de Langle, a post captain, who had distinguished himself in the Astree, in the expedition to Hudson's Bay. Officers innumerable offering themselves to La Perouse and M. de Langle, they soon selected from among them such a number of distinguished professional talents as they required.

Having received his instructions, La Perouse sat off for Brest on the 1st of July, where he arrived on the 4th, and found the equipment of two frigates in great forwardness. By the 10th, the whole quantity of things contained in the Boussole was incredible. M. de Clonard, La Perouse's second captain, had stowed her with great zeal and ingenuity: the Astrolabe was furnished with the same articles as the Boussole. On the 11th, the frigates were in the road, and had a favourable season for their departure. M. D'Hector ordered them to anchor there with harbour moorings, that, when the wind should

permit them to sail, they might have nothing to do but to slip the cables*.

But the object of their putting in at Madeira could not be attained: the price of wine having been raised to such an excessive height, La Perouse found it almost impossible to purchase a supply, he therefore ordered every thing to be prepared for sailing on the following day, which was the 16th of August. But, before his departure, he received an additional present from Mr. Johnston, consisting of rum, preserved citron, and a barrel of dry wine, a hundred bottles of Malmsey Madeira, and an immense quantity of fruit.

After only three days' run, La Perouse anchored at Teneriffe on the 19th in the afternoon. This island, which is not embellished with a single tree, seems entirely parched up, and formed of different strata of lava, and other volcanic matter. Soon after his arrival at Teneriffe, he caused an observatory to be erected on shore; the particulars resulting from which are too minute to be specified in this place. Several observations were made relative to the latitude and longitude at Santa Cruz in Teneriffe, the position of which they think may be fixed at 18° 36′ 30″ west longitude, and 28° 27′ 30″ north latitude.

On the 30th of August La Perouse sailed with a fresh breeze from the north-east, having taken sixty pipes of wine on board each ship, which came from Oratuva, a small town situated on the other side of the island. The Marquis de Branciforte, governor-general of the Canary Islands, paid the navigators the greatest attentions during his continuance in the road of Santa Cruz. The run, as far as the line, was attended by no remarkable circumstance: but a few days after La Perouse's departure from Teneriffe, he lost that clear sky which is only to be found in the temperate zone.

At sun-set on the 16th of October, La Perouse got sight of the island of Trinidada; and at ten the next morning, he was only two leagues distant from the south-east point, which bore north-west. Seeing the Portuguese flag flying in the midst of a small fort, surrounded by five or six wooden houses, his curiosity was excited, and he resolved to send a boat ashore to learn the particulars of its evacuation or cession by the English: he saw, from its appearance, that Trinidada would neither afford him the wood or water which he required. He hailed the Astrolabe, and consulted with M. De Langle on the propriety of sending a boat to enquire what supplies the island could afford them. In consequence of which M. De Langle dispatched the pinnace, commanded by lieutenant De Vaujuas. M. De La Martiniere, and Father Receveur accompanied that officer. They landed, with much difficulty and danger, at the head of the creek, between two rocks. M. De Vaujuas saw about two hundred men at this post, fifteen of whom were in uniform, and the rest in their shirts. No satisfactory information could be obtained on any subject that was agitated, the commandant thinking himself justifiable in disguising the truth in every particular. He pretended that his garrison consisted of four hundred men, and that his fort was defended by twenty guns; though not a single one mounted appeared in the neighbourhood of the establishment. The officer was so much ashamed or afraid of exposing the miserable state of his settlement, that he would not suffer any one to leave the beach in search of plants: After many external tokens of kindness and civility, he advised M. De Vaujuas to return on board, assuring him that the island could not furnish him with any thing; that provisions were sent every six months from Rio Janeiro, and that they could not procure a sufficient quantity of wood and water for the garrison. His detachment readily assisted in putting off the pinnace.

From the report of Messieurs de Vaujuas and Boutin, it was apparent that the island of Trinidada could not furnish a sufficient supply of

* This voyage, which is highly interesting in its present state, would have afforded a complete body of valuable information, had not the tragical catastrophe occurred. If any hope remains, it appears to be fallacious, and will daily become more so.

The westerly wind detained the vessels in the road till the 1st of August, on which day they sailed from Brest Road to Madeira, where they arrived on the 13th. Before they were well at anchor, Mr. Johnson, an English merchant, sent a boat laden with fruit on board La Perouse's ship. After having paid his respects to the governor, La Perouse went to dine with Mr. Johnston, from whom he had received such polite and hospitable treatment. On the following day he breakfasted at the delightful country-seat of Mr. Murray, the English consul. His eyes could only be drawn off from gazing at this enchanting villa, by the captivating charms of the consul's three nieces, who came to prove to him that nothing was wanting to add perfection to that enchanting abode.

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wood and water. La Perouse therefore determined to steer immediately for the island of St. Catherine, on the coast of Brazil; where Frezier and Admiral Ansor found ample means of gratifying all their wants *.

SECTION II.

Description of the Island of St. Catherine, &c. Departure from—Arrival at Conception.

THIS island is extremely fertile, producing all sorts of fruit, vegetables, and corn, almost spontaneously. It is covered with trees of everlasting green, but they are so curiously interwoven with plants and briars, that it is impossible to pass through the forests without opening a path with a hatchet: to add to the difficulty, danger is also to be apprehended from snakes whose bite is mortal. The habitations are bordering on the sea. The woods are delightfully fragrant, occasioned by the orange trees and other odoriferous plants and shrubs which form a part of them. But amidst all these advantages, the country is extremely poor, and totally destitute of manufactured commodities: the peasants are ragged, and almost naked. The soil, which is well calculated for the cultivation of sugar, remains untilled, as they are too poor to purchase slaves for that necessary purpose. The whale-fishery is indeed successful, but it belongs to the crown, and is farmed by a company at Lisbon, which has three large establishments on the coast. They kill about four hundred whales annually, the produce of which is sent to Lisbon by the way of Rio Janeiro. The inhabitants derive no advantage from this fishery, as the government does not grant them such franchises and immunities as to invite commerce to their shores; one of the finest countries in the universe will perhaps remain miserable, and useless to the mother country.

The arrival of the two frigates here spread great terror through the neighbourhood. The different forts fired several alarm guns, which induced La Perouse to anchor earlier than he intended, and to send an officer on shore to state his pacific intentions. M. de Pierrevert, who was employed on this business, found the little garrison of the citadel, all under arms. It consisted of forty men, commanded by a captain; who sent off an express to the governor Don Francisco di Baros, brigadier of infantry. This circumstance, confirmed by the Lisbon Gazette, produced immediate and positive orders that the ships and their crews should be furnished with whatever they required, at the lowest price; and an officer was appointed to attend on each of the frigates.

On the 9th of November La Perouse hauled in towards the fortress; and on the same day he went ashore with M. de Langle, and several officers, to pay his respects to the commandant, who saluted him with fifteen guns. An equal number was returned by La Perouse's ship. The next day he dispatched his Lieutenant Boutin, accompanied by several respectable gentlemen engaged in the Voyage of Discovery, to the town of Nostra-Senora del Destero, to return thanks to the governor, for the abundance, which, owing to his care and attention, they enjoyed. The boats of the Boussole and Astrolabe came back the following day at eleven o'clock, and announced a speedy visit from Don Antonio Di Gama, major-general of the colony. He did not

* On the 25th of October our navigators were overtaken by a most violent storm: at eight in the evening they were literally in the centre of a circle of fire: the lightning flashed from every point. The flame called *Corposanto*, otherwise named Jack with a lantern, settled upon the point of the conductor. The Astrolabe had also a *Corposanto* at her mast-head. From that day the weather continued bad till the arrival of the frigates at the Island of Saint Catherine. On the 6th of November La Perouse anchored between Saint Catherine's and the Main, in seven fathoms water.

After a navigation of ninety-six days, not a person was sick on board. Neither rain, nor fogs, nor the change of climate had impaired the health of our crews. Provisions of an excellent quality had indeed been provided, and every precaution taken that prudence could suggest. To keep up the spirits of the ships' companies, dancing from eight to ten was enjoined them every evening, when the weather permitted.

not come, however, till the 13th, when he brought La Perouse an obliging letter from his commanding officer *.

The inhabitants of the island of St. Catherine are mild, gentle, obliging, and hospitable: but they are superstitious, and so prone to jealousy, that their wives are never permitted to appear in public. The officers killed several birds in this island, of the most beautifully variegated plumage; and among others a fine *rollier*, a species not described by Buffon, though very common in this country.

La Perouse purchased at St. Catherine's a sufficient quantity of oxen, hogs, and poultry, to feed the ship's company at sea for a month. His gardener was also provided with kernels of oranges and lemons; and with the seeds of the cotton shrub, and Indian corn: as well as with all the vegetables which the inhabitants of the islands of the South Sea are known to be in want of. On the day of departure, la Perouse gave the Astrolabe new signals, on a more extensive scale than those which had before been adopted. They were destined to navigate in the midst of fogs, and in tempestuous seas; circumstances which required additional precautions. It was also agreed between the two respective commanders, that, in case of separation, their first rendezvous should be the harbour of Good Success, in Lemaire's Straits, if they should not have passed its latitude on the 1st of January; and the second, Point Venus, in the Island of Otaheite. It was also agreed that his researches in the Atlantic Ocean should be confined to *Isle Graude de la Roche*, not having sufficient time to seek a passage to the southward of Sandwich Land.

The weather continued fine till the 28th of November, when a violent gale of wind rose from the eastward. After variety of calculations, and a fruitless search of forty days, during which time five gales of wind were experienced, the idea of the existence of *Isle Grande de la Roche* was abandoned. La Perouse expressly said, "I am fully persuaded that *Isle Grande*, like Pepy's Island, is the creation of fancy: the account of La Roche, who pretends to have seen lofty trees upon it, being entirely destitute of foundation."

On the 14th of January the navigators struck ground on the coast of Patagonia; and on the 21st they got sight of the north point of Gallegos river on that coast. On the 22d at noon they set the Cape of the Virgins, bearing west, four leagues distant.

On the 25th, at two o'clock, La Perouse took bearings a league to the southward of Cape San Diego, forming the west point of the Straits of Lemaire. At three he entered the Straits, and saw some breakers which extended about a mile: he also perceived others much further in the offing, which induced him to steer to the south-east to avoid them. He soon discovered they were produced by the currents, and that the reefs of Cape San Diego were not far off. Blowing a fresh breeze from the north, he ventured to approach Tierra del Fuego, and ranged along it within half a league of the land. After some deliberation, as the wind was fair, he abandoned the idea of putting in at the harbour of Good Success, and resolved to stand on, without losing a moment, to double Cape Horn. He considered that if he steered for the island of Juan Fernandez, he was certain of procuring wood and water, with refreshments far superior to the Penguins of the Straits †.

On the 9th of February he was abreast of the Straits of Magellan, and steering for Juan Fernandez. He had passed over the pretended land of Drake, without bestowing much time in the search of it, being convinced that it did not exist. Examining the quantity of provisions he had on board, La Perouse discovered that he

* La Perouse had preferred the island of Saint Catherine to Rio Janeiro, to avoid the forms observed in large cities, which occasion much loss of time; and experience taught him that it combined many other advantages. Provisions of all kinds were abundant: a large ox cost only eight dollars; a hog, weighing one hundred and fifty pounds, half that sum: two turkies were purchased for a dollar: five hundred oranges were sold for less than half a dollar: and vegetables were extremely reasonable. To procure fish, it was only necessary to cast the net, and almost instantly to haul it up full of the aquatic tribe.

† During his run through the Straits of Lemaire, at half a league distance from Tierra del Fuego, he was surrounded by whales; as they had never been molested, they were not in the least alarmed at the ships, but swam majestically and securely within pistol-shot of them. They will probably remain sovereigns of these seas till the fishermen commence hostilities against them as at Greenland or Spitbergen. An additional motive for giving up the idea of touching at the Bay of Good Success, was, that the author had long been projecting a new plan for his voyage, concerning which he could not absolutely decide, till after having doubled Cape Horn.

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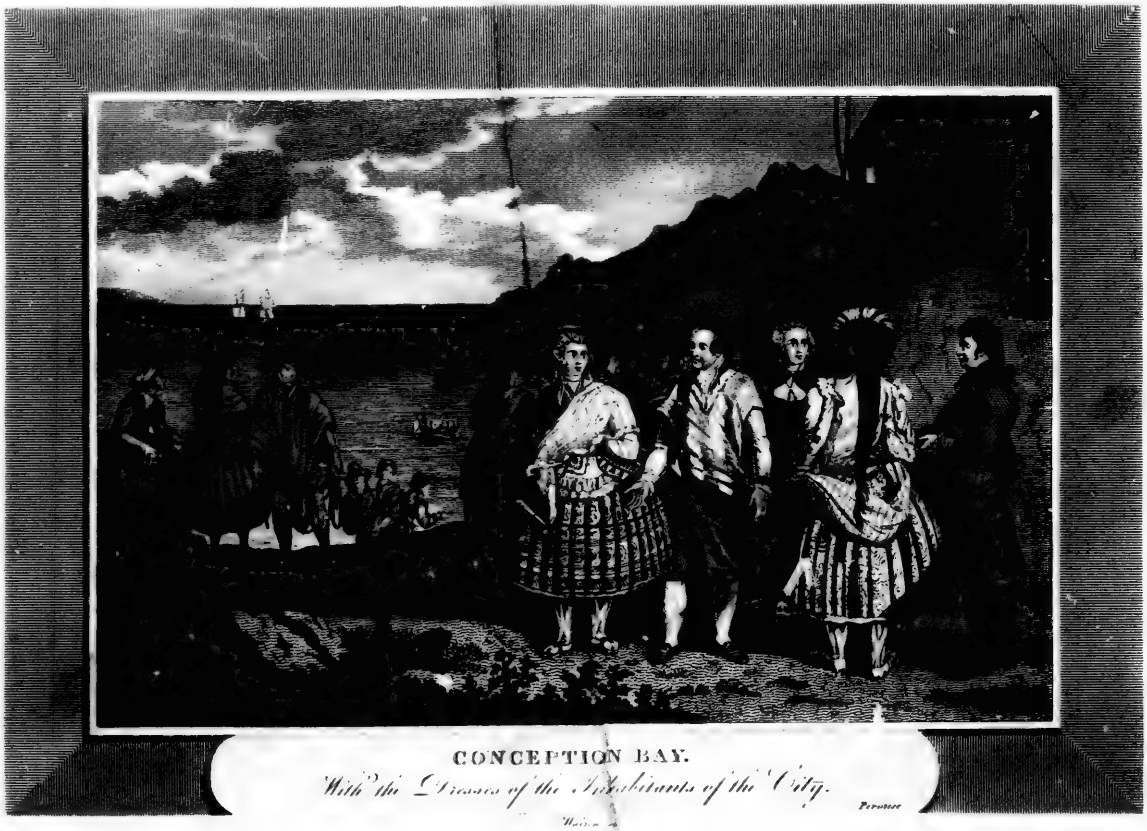

CONCEPTION BAY.

With the Dresses of the Inhabitants of the City.

had very little flour and bread left in store; having been obliged, as well as M. de Langle, to leave a hundred barrels at Brest. The worms had also taken possession of the biscuits, and consumed or rendered useless a fifth part of them. Under these circumstances, La Perouse preferred Conception to the island of Juan Fernandez. Knowing that this part of Chili abounded in corn; that it was remarkable cheap there; and that he should find every other article of food, in abundance, and on reasonable terms, he resolved to alter his course a little to the westward.

The Bay of Conception is about three leagues wide, from east to west, and the same depth from north to south. Bottom is found upon the coast from the island of Santa Maria to the entrance of the Bay. Endeavours were made with glasses to find the city of Conception, which, according to Frezier's plan, should have been at the bottom of the Bay; but nothing could be discovered. In the evening some pilots came on board, who said the city had been destroyed by an earthquake in 1751. Continuing to ply to windward, at nine in the evening the frigates anchored in nine fathoms water, at about a league from the anchorage of Talcaguana. It is remarkable that the two ships, after having doubled Cape Horn, arrived at Chili without having a single man indisposed in either of them.

SECTION III.

Description of Conception, its Inhabitants, &c.—Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants—Arrival at Easter Island.

THE Bay of Conception is a most excellent harbour: the water is smooth, and almost without any current, though the tide rises six feet three inches. The bay is sheltered from every point but the north, which, in these climates, blows only from the end of May to October, which is also the rainy season. The weather is constantly wet while that Monsoon continues.

The new city of Conception, after the destruction of the old one by an earthquake in 1751, was not resolved on till 1763: the bishopric, the cathedral, and the religious houses, were all transferred to the new town, which is of considerable extent; the habitations being only one story high, the better to resist the earthquakes which happen annually. The new town, which contains about ten thousand inhabitants, is the residence of the bishop, and of the major-general, who governs in the military department*.

But notwithstanding all these advantages, this colony makes but little progress in prosperity or population: the influence of the government counteracts that of the climate. The productions of this kingdom, under proper management, would suffice for the food and manufactures of half Europe, and yet the country is destitute of commerce. A few small vessels indeed arrive here yearly from Lima, with tobacco, sugar, and some articles of European manufacture, which the wretched natives can only purchase at second or third hand; heavy duties having been imposed upon them first at Cadiz, then at Lima, and afterwards on their entering Chili. They can only give in exchange wheat, which is of little value, hides, tallow, and a few planks; so that the balance of trade is always against Chili. It seems evident that if Spain does not change its system, Chili will never reach that pitch of popularity which might be expected from its climate, soil, and situation†.

The women wear a kind of plaited petticoat, formed

* There cannot be a more fertile soil than that of this part of Chili. Corn produces sixty for one; the vineyards are wonderfully productive, and the plains are covered with flocks, which multiply beyond imagination. A fat ox may be purchased here for eight dollars, and a sheep for three quarters of a dollar. A great number of oxen are annually killed, of which the hides and tallow only are preserved, and sent to Lima. This island is also remarkable for the longevity of its inhabitants: many of the natives of conception have completed a century.

† This country produces a small quantity of gold: § most of the rivers being auriferous, an inhabitant can earn about

§ *The gold annually collected in the bishopric of Conception, is estimated at about two hundred thousand dollars. There are single plantations in St. Domingo which produce as large a quantity.*

formed of antique gold and silver stuffs. These petticoats, however, are never summoned upon duty but on gala days, and may be entailed in a family; descending, in regular gradation, from the grandmother to the grand-daughter. A small number of females, however, are thus gorgeously habited, the majority have barely sufficient to conceal their nakedness.

Sloth and superstition, have peopled this country with nuns and monks; the latter of whom are the greatest profligates in America. The common people of Conception have a great propensity to thieving; and the women are far from being difficult of access. They are, in general, a mongrel race; but the true-bred Spaniards are polite and obliging in the extreme.

La Perouse was hardly at anchor abreast of Talcaguana, when a letter was brought him from M. Quexada, commandant *pro tempore*, informing him that he and his suite should be received like fellow-countrymen. This letter was accompanied by a large quantity of refreshments, which poured in from every quarter. Obliged to attend to the refitting of the ship, and some other pressing emergences, La Perouse could not go immediately to the governor to thank him for his flattering epistle, yet resolved to take the earliest opportunity of acquitting himself of that duty; but the governor was too expeditious, and came on board the Boussole, attended by the principal officers of his colony. The following day La Perouse returned the visit, accompanied by M. de Langle, and many of the principal officers. They were preceded by a detachment of dragoons. M. Quexada, M. Sabatero, commandant of the artillery, and the town-major, went to meet them at a league's distance from Conception; and they all entered the house of M. Sabatero, where an elegant dinner was provided for them; and at night a splendid ball was given, to which the principal ladies of the place were invited.

The dress of these ladies had a very singular appearance: a plaited petticoat, exposing half the leg, tied below the waist: stockings, striped with white, red, and blue; and short shoes so constructed as to give the foot the appearance of being circular, are the peculiarities of the ball-dress of the ladies of Chili. They wear no powder in their hair, which is divided in braids, extending down their backs. Their corset is usually composed of gold or silver stuff, and covered with two short cloaks of muslin and wool, of various colours. When in the streets, and the weather is cold, they cover the head with their woollen cloaks: when sitting in a room they generally place them on their knees. With the muslin cloak, the ladies of Conception display infinite grace by the judicious shifting of that article of apparel. They are beautiful, and in some degree fascinating: foreign navigators are no where received with so much kindness and civility as in the city of Conception. The ball concluded about midnight.

The Indians of Chili are converted, by the increase of horses, oxen, and sheep, into a nation of Arabs, resembling those that inhabit the deserts of Arabia. Continually on horseback, they regard an excursion of two hundred leagues as a moderate journey. In their peregrinations they are accompanied with their flocks and herds, and are supported by their flesh and milk, and often by their blood*. Of the skins of these animals they form their bucklers, curiasses, and helmets. The introduction of two domestic animals, has greatly influenced the manners of the tribes from St. Jago to the Straits of Magellan: their old customs, dress, and manners, are laid aside, and they now resemble the Tartars, more than their ancestors who existed two centuries ago†.

But in the midst of these diversions and amusements, the principal object was not to be forgotten. On the day of his arrival La Perouse had

half a dollar a-day by washing the earth; but, provisions being abundant, he has few incitements to labour. Unacquainted with luxury and arts, he has no energy to oppose to sloth. The ground lies waste and uncultivated; a few hours devoted to the washing of the sand of their rivers, exempts them from the necessity of learning any trade or employment, where industry or ingenuity is required.

* It is well known that they sometimes bleed their horses and oxen, and drink the luscious beverage.

† As La Perouse conceived himself under obligations t all the inhabitants, his gratitude induced him to give a general entertainment before his departure, and to invite all the ladies of Conception. A large tent was pitched near the sea, and a dinner provided for one hundred and fifty persons who should condescend to partake of it. After the repast, a dance ensued; which was followed by a brilliant display of fire-works, and a balloon. On the following day the crews of both the frigates were liberally entertained in the same tent. La Perouse and M de Langle were at the head, and each officer, down to the lowest sailor,

had signified that he should sail on the 15th of March, and that if the vessels should be ready before that time, every man should be permitted to go and amuse himself on shore. Though he apprehended this promise would create dispatch, he feared the consequences might be pernicious: he knew that wine was very common at Chili, and he also knew that every house in Talcaguana was a tavern: he knew also that the lower classes of the women were as compliant as the ladies at Otaheite. No disaster, however, succeeded their voluptuous revels.

At day-break on the 15th, La Perouse made the signal to prepare to sail; but the wind had settled at north. On the 17th, about noon, a light breeze sprung up, with which he got under way. It was so very faint that it only carried him two leagues out of the bay, where he remained becalmed in a heavy swell. Whales surrounded him during the night, and came so close to the vessels that they threw water on board from their spiracles. On the 8th of April, about noon, La Perouse saw Easter Island, which bore west 5° south, distant twelve leagues. During the night he ranged along the coast of that island, at three leagues distance. At day-break he steered for Cook's Bay, which is well sheltered from easterly winds. At eleven he was only a league from the anchorage. The Astrolabe let go her anchor, and the Boussole did the same; but a sudden shelving of the bottom permitted neither of them to hold. They were therefore obliged to heave them up, and make two boards to regain the anchorage. The ardour of the Indians was not restrained by this accident. They swam after the ships and came on board smiling, supposing themselves in perfect security. They were not in the least apprehensive of being carried away from their native land, though they were naked and unarmed; a bundle of grass girt round their loins with packthread, to preserve decorum, constituted the whole of their cloathing.

SECTION IV.

Easter Island—Occurrences in that Island—Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants.

EARLY in the morning every preparation was made for landing. This part of Easter Island rises about twenty feet from the sea. La Perouse expected to find many friends on shore, having loaded with presents all those who had come from thence the preceding night; but from the knowledge he had acquired of other navigators, he thought it might be necessary to prevent their usual depredations, by operating upon their fears. He therefore ordered the landing to be conducted with some military parade. It was accordingly effected with four boats and twelve armed soldiers. M. De Langle and himself were followed by all the passengers, and such officers whose presence was not absolutely necessary on board the two frigates, amounting in the whole to about seventy persons*.

The Indians, as before observed, were unarmed,

sailor, was seated according to his rank on board. Wooden bowls were substituted for plates and dishes.

The major-general then gave *a fete*, to which all the officers and respectable inhabitants were invited.

* About five hundred Indians, all unarmed, waited to receive the navigators on shore: a few of them were cloathed in white or yellow, and the rest were naked: the faces of some of them were painted red; and not a few of them were tatooed. With countenances expressive of joy, they advanced to tender their hands to facilitate their landing. That business being accomplished, an inclosure was formed with armed soldiers, ranged in a circle, leaving a space void, in which a tent was afterwards pitched. La Perouse then ordered the different animals to be brought on shore, as well as the several articles he intended to bestow as presents. He had strictly enjoined his people not to fire at the Indians, but to endeavour by mild and civil treatment, to prevent rapacity and outrage; but this clemency soon increased the number of these troublesome islanders to about eight hundred, among whom there were one hundred and fifty women. The features of these females were alluring, and their favours were to be purchased by a moderate present.

While the attention of the men was attracted by these seducers, they were plundered of their hats and handkerchiefs. The whole groupe were evidently accomplices in the robbery, for as soon as they had accomplished their views, they all fled at the same instant. Finding, however, that the French visitants did not make use of fire-arms, they instantly returned, renewed their caresses, and eagerly sought

armed, except a few of them who had a kind of slight wooden club. Some of them assumed an apparent superiority over the others, which induced La Perouse to consider the former as chiefs, and therefore distributed some medals among them, hanging them round their necks by a chain; but he soon discovered that these selected persons were the most notorious offenders; and, though they pretended to pursue others who had been accused of larcenies, it was easily perceived that they never intended to overtake them.

Having but a few hours to remain upon the island, and wishing to employ his time to the best advantage, La Perouse left the care of the tent, and other particulars, to his first lieutenant M. D'Escures. A division was then made of the persons engaged in the adventure: one part, under the command of M. De Langle, was to penetrate into the interior of the island to encourage and promote vegetation, by disseminating seeds, &c. in a proper soil; and the other division undertook to visit the monuments, plantations, and habitations, within the compass of a league of the establishment. The largest of the rude busts upon one of the terraces, is fourteen feet six inches in height, and the breadth and other particulars appeared to be proportionate.

With respect to the population of this country, some difficulties seem to arise. Out of twelve hundred persons who collected to greet the arrival of the navigators in the Bay, not more than three hundred women appeared. Perhaps many of them, either from delicacy, or a due attention to their children and domestic affairs, had remained in their humble mansions.

The monuments which now exist, appear to be very ancient: they are situated in *Morais*, (or burying places) as generally supposed, a large quantity of bones being always to be found near them. The form of their present government has so far equalized their conditions, that they have no idea of erecting a colossal statue to perpetuate the memory of any particular chief. Those pompous images are now superseded by small pyramidical heaps of stones, the uppermost of which is white-washed. These species of mausoleums are usually erected on the seashore. A native signified that one of these stones covered a tomb, by falling prostrate on the ground; and afterwards, elevating his hands towards the sky, wished to convey an idea that they believed in a future state*.

A small part of this island is under cultivation. It is, however, generally agreed, that three days' labour of an Indian will procure him subsistence for a year. From the ease with which the necessaries of life are procured, La Perouse supposed the productions of the earth were in common. He was convinced, indeed, that the houses were common, at least to a whole village or district. One of these habitations near his tent was three hundred and ten feet in length, ten feet in breadth, and ten feet in height towards the middle. The whole erection is capable of containing two hundred people. It forms a kind of hamlet of itself, but is totally unfurnished. Two or three small houses appear at a little distance from it. La Perouse does not pretend to decide whether the women are common to a whole district, and the children to the republic; but he asserts that no Indian seemed to exercise the authority of a husband over any one of the females. If they are private property, it is a kind of which the possessors are very liberal.

Some of the houses are subterraneous; others are built with reeds, which are methodically arranged, and form a sufficient defence from the rain. The building is supported by pillars of compact lava, resembling stone. It seems clear, as Captain Cook observes, that there is a strong affinity between this people, and those of the other islands of the South Sea: they have the same language and features, and their cloth is fabricated of the bark of the mulberry tree.

Perhaps these islanders formerly enjoyed the same productions as those of the Society Islands. The fruit trees must have perished with drought,

sought for opportunities to commit new depredations. After due inspection of the tricks and fallacies put in practice to rob the enamoured Frenchmen, La Perouse ordered them, to prevent dangerous consequences, to restore to the soldiers and sailors the articles that they had been pilfering.

* The busts of colossal size, which have already been noticed, demonstrate that small progress has been made here in sculpture. They are formed by a Volcanic production, known by the name of Lapillo; so soft a stone that Captain Cook's officers supposed it to have been composed of a kind of mortar hardened in the air.

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SANDWICH ISLANDS.
SANDWICH ISLANDS.

as well as the dogs and hogs, water * being essential to their existence; but man can reconcile himself to any thing: in Hudson's Straits he can make the oil of the whale his beverage, and drink the sea-water like the Albatrosses at Cape Horn.

Returning about noon to the tent, with the intention of going on board, in order to permit the next in command to come on shore, La Perouse found almost every man without either hat or handkerchief; so much had forbearance encouraged the audacity of the thieves, that he also experienced a similar depredation. An Indian, who had assisted him in descending from a terrace, rewarded himself for his trouble by taking away his hat. La Perouse, however, did not order him to be pursued, that he might be punished for his transgression: but at the hour of two he returned on board, and M. de Elonard, his next in command, appeared on shore.

Two officers of the Astrolabe arrived soon after to inform La Perouse that the Indians had been perpetrating new outrages, from which serious consequences might ensue. Some of them had dived under water, cut the small cable of the Astrolabe's boat, and taken away her grapnel. The discovery was not made till the plunderers had proceeded a considerable way into the interior of the island, when two officers and some soldiers went immediately in pursuit of them, but they were saluted by a shower of stones. A musket, loaded only with powder, and fired in the air, created no intimidation among them. It was therefore thought necessary to fire another piece charged with small shot; some grains of which perhaps annoyed the Indians, for the stoning instantly ceased, and the officers were enabled peace

fortunate mariner

their tent, but it was found impossible many take the robbers. They quickly returned all appeared among the multitude as usual, recommenced the offers of their women, and were as friendly as they had been when they first presented themselves. About six in the evening, every thing was re-embarked, the boats had returned on board, and a signal had been made to prepare for sailing. M. De Langle gave La Perouse an account of his tour into the interior part. He also furnished another striking *trait* of the portrait of these islanders, in the following anecdote. A sort of chief, to whom M. De Langle made a present of a male and female goat, received the animals with one hand, and robbed him of his handkerchief with the other †.

They endeavoured to allure the Frenchmen by forcing young girls of thirteen or fourteen years of age to come for the purposes of violation, for which they claimed a stipulated reward. La Perouse declares that "not a single Frenchman made use of the barbarous right that was given him; and if there were some moments dedicated to nature, the desire and consent were mutual, and the women made the first advances."

The arts of the Society Isles were exercised in this country, though in an inferior degree, for want of raw materials. Their coast appeared not to abound in fish, and the inhabitants feed principally on vegetables. Their chief sustenance is derived from potatoes, bananas, yams, sugar canes, and a small fruit resembling grapes, growing on the rocks on the sea-shore. A few fowls are sometimes seen upon the island, but they are not sufficiently abundant to be reckoned among the articles of provision.

The natives cultivate the fields with care and

* In times very remote the inhabitants were so imprudent as to prohibit the salutary shade, by cutting down all the trees, and thus exposing their country to the rays of the sun, and rendering it destitute of streams and springs: they knew not that in small islands encompassed by an immense ocean, the coolness of land covered with trees can alone stop and condense the clouds, and attract to the mountains abundant rain to furnish springs and rivulets on all sides. Islands deprived of this advantage experience a most dreadful drought, which, by gradually destroying the shrubs and plants, renders them almost uninhabitable.

† These people cannot have the same idea of theft which civilized nations have, for they hardly appear to be ashamed of such practices. They were, however, convinced that they had committed an improper or unjustifiable action, or why should they have fled to avoid punishment, which they feared, and perhaps thought they merited. Had the navigators continued long in the island, they would certainly have inflicted such chastisements on these depredators as were commensurate to their crimes, as lenity in the extreme might have been productive of disagreeable consequences. The most consummate rogues of Europe are not greater hypocrites than these islanders; all their caresses and civilities are feigned; their countenances never express a single sentiment of truth. It was necessary to be most distrustful of that Indian to whom we have been kind and liberal, and who appeared to be so much under the influence of gratitude as to be eager to return for it a thousand little services.

...ertilize the earth with grass, ...oot up, lay in heaps, and burn; with the ashes of which the soil is rendered more prolific*.

SECTION V.

*Observations of M. De Langle, on the Manners, Customs, &c. of the Inhabitants of Easter Island—Cultivation of the Soil, &c.—Departure from Easter Island—Arrival at Sandwich Island, &c.—Departure—*APRIL, MAY, JUNE, 1786.

M. DE LANGLE, accompanied by Messrs. Dagelet, and several others, went about two leagues from the shore to the westward, and, proceeding from house to house, visited many plantations of yams and potatoes. The soil of these premises was judged proper for the propagation of their seeds, and the gardener who attended them, sowed carrots, cabbages, beets, maize, and pumkins; signifying to the Islanders, as well as they were able, that they would germinate and produce roots and fruits for their support. They perfectly understood the benevolent intention of their visitors, and pointed out the particular spots where they were desirous of seeing these new productions.

M. de Langle met with no small shrubs, except the paper mulberry tree, and the mimosa. After proceeding about two leagues to the east, he returned southward towards the shore, and perceived, by the assistance of telescopes, a great number of monuments, many of which were overthrown, and in a perishable state. One of the largest measured sixteen feet ten inches in height, consisting of a light porous lava; its breadth over the shoulders was six feet seven inches, and its thickness at the base two feet seven inches.

Perceiving a small village, M. de Langle directed his course towards it: one of the houses it contained was constructed in the form of a canoe reversed, and measured three hundred feet in length: the ruins of several other habitations were visible. The monuments and terraces here were numerous; and on some of the stones, of which those terraces were composed, rude sculptures of skeletons were exhibited. Holes were observable, which were stopped up with similar substances, whence it was supposed that they might now form a communication with the caverns containing the bodies of the dead. An Indian, by very expressive signs, signified that they were first deposited there, and afterwards ascended to Heaven. Several pyramids of stones were ranged upon the sea-shore, and in the vicinity of these pyramids some human bones were scattered. In the morning seven different terraces were visited, upon which many statues were seen, some upright, and others defaced and injured by time. A mannikin of reed, representing a human figure ten feet in height presented itself: from its neck hung a net, resembling a basket, covered with white stuff, which seemed to be filled with grass. By the side of this bag the figure of a child was represented, about two feet in length. This mannikin which, from its appearance, could not have existed many years, was perhaps a model of some statue intended to be erected to the memory of some chief†.

Though these islanders were hospitable, and frequently

* The navigators could not quit the island without some oblique censures on the conduct of its inhabitants. "We landed among them," said they, "merely with a view of rendering them service; we loaded them with presents; we caressed their children; we disseminated useful seeds to enrich their country; and gave them sheep, hogs, and goats, that they might replenish the land. We demanded nothing in return.—But how were we rewarded for our generosity? They threw stones at us, and robbed us of every thing that could be taken away." Under other circumstances it would perhaps have been imprudent to shew them so much lenity; but as La Perouse had resolved to go in the evening, he hoped they would attribute his sudden departure to a disapprobation of their proceedings, and be induced to act with more integrity on future occasions.

§ *On the edge of the crater, on that side towards the sea, a statue, almost destroyed by time, sufficiently proves that the volcano has been extinct for several ages.*

† At the south end of the island was seen the crater § of an old volcano, the size, depth, and regularity of which excited our surprize. Grass having sprung up on the sides,

swamps

quently gave the party potatoes and sugar-canes, they never lost an opportunity of robbing them. when they could do it safely. Hardly a tenth part of the soil is cultivated, and the lands which are cleared are without any kind of enclosure: the remainder is covered with a coarse grass, even to the summit of the mountains. It being the rainy season when the party were there, the earth appeared to be moistened about a foot deep. Some holes on the hills contained fresh water, but they no where saw the least appearance of any kind of stream, nor did they observe among the people any kind of instrument for the cultivation of their grounds *.

The navigators took their departure from Cook's Bay, on Easter Island, the 10th in the evening. They lost sight of it the following day about two o'clock, being then about twenty leagues off. The weather was remarkably clear till the 17th, and then shifted to the north-east; when the crew began to catch bonetas, which attended the frigates to the Sandwich Islands, and furnished provisions for the ships' companies for about six weeks. This salutary food preserved all of them in good health. Not a sick person was to be found on board either of the two frigates. They traversed unknown seas; their course being nearly parallel to that of Captain Cook in 1777, when he sailed for the north-west coast of America; but they were about eight hundred leagues more to the eastward. La Perouse flattered himself, that in a distance of about two thousand leagues, he should make some discovery; to facilitate which, sailors were perpetually at the mast-head, and a pecuniary reward offered to the fortunate mariner who should first discover the land.

After M. Dagelet, in this run, had made many lunar observations, which agreed extremely well with the time-keepers of M. Berthoud, La Perouse discovered on the 7th of May, a great number of birds of the petrel species, man of war, and Tropic birds; the last two species of which are remarked for not appearing at any great distance from land. Many turtles were also observed passing alongside. The Astrolabe caught two of them, which were said to be delicious. On the 20th La Perouse passed through the midst of the supposed cluster of Los Majos, without perceiving the least appearance of an island; on the 28th he saw the mountains of Owhyhee, covered with snow, and afterwards those of Mowee, which are less elevated. At nine he beheld the point of Mowee. He also perceived an island bearing west which the English had not seen, and which was not to be found in their chart, and which in this particular is very defective; though whatever is laid down from their own observations merits the highest encomiums †.

About a hundred and fifty canoes were seen putting off from the shore, laden with fruit and hogs, which the Indians proposed to exchange for pieces of iron of the French navigators. Most of them came on board of one or the other of the vessels, but they proceeded so fast through the water that they filled alongside. The Indians were obliged to quit the ropes we had thrown them, and leaping into the sea swam after their hogs; when taking them into their arms, they

swamps appearing at the bottom, and the fertility of the adjacent lands, sufficiently demonstrate that the subterraneous fires have been long extinct. Night obliging the party to return towards the ships, they saw near a house a considerable number of children, who fled at their approach. Perhaps this habitation was the abode of all the youth of the district; as they could not possibly all belong to two women who appeared to have the care of them: the little difference in their ages seemed farther to countenance this observation. On their return to the tents, they presented to three of the natives the three different species of animals which they had destined for them.

* The most probable conjectures respecting the government of these people are, that they compose a single nation, which is divided into as many districts as there are morais; the villages being erected near those places of interment. The products of the earth seem to belong to all the respective inhabitants of the district. As the men, without any regard to delicacy, offer their women indiscriminately to strangers, it cannot be supposed they belong to any one, in particular. It also appears that, when the children are weaned, they are committed to the care of other women, who, in every respective district, undertake the task of rearing them. The whole population may be estimated at about two thousand people; but it may reasonably be supposed that the population was more considerable, before the trees were destroyed. It does not appear that life is long extended in these regions, for not a single man in the island appears to exceed the age of sixty-five.

† The island of Mowee, which he coasted along at about a league distance, had an enchanting appearance: cascades were beheld, falling from the summits of the mountains, and descending to the sea, after having laved the numerous habitations of the natives. The trees which crowned the mountains, the verdure, and the bananas which embellished the cabins, all contribute to operate so forcibly on the senses of the beholders, that they experienced the most exquisite sensations.

emptied

emptied their canoes of the water, and resumed their seat. Upwards of forty canoes were thus successively overset; but though the commerce was agreeable to both parties, no more than fifteen hogs, and a small quantity of fruit could be procured. The navigators were deprived of the opportunity of bargaining for upwards of three hundred more hogs, by this ludicrous and unexpected accident *.

La Perouse stood west and north-west to gain the anchorage where the Astrolabe had already brought up, about a third of a league from shore. They lay sheltered from the sea breeze by a high bluff, capped by clouds. The Indians of the villages eagerly came alongside in their canoes, bringing hogs, bananas, potatoes, and stuffs, forming certain particulars of dress, as articles of commerce. Not choosing they should come on board till the ship was completely at anchor, they were informed that she was *taboo* †, which they seemed perfectly to understand. M. de Langle, who had not adopted the same expedient, had his deck instantly crowded by them; but they were so docile and obedient as to be easily prevailed on to return to their canoes. When permitted to come on board, they manifested a fear of giving offence, and in all their commercial dealing gave proofs of their fidelity. They were much pleased with pieces of old iron hoops, and had sufficient address to procure them on the most advantageous terms.

The night was calm, with the exception of a few gusts, which were of short duration. At day-break the long-boat of the Astrolabe was detached, with M. de Vaujuas and others, to sound a deep bay, where it was supposed better anchorage might be found, but this new anchorage did not appear to be preferable to that which they occupied. At eight in the morning four boats of the two frigates were in readiness to set off; the two first contained twenty armed soldiers, commanded by a lieutenant: M. de Langle, accompanied by all the passengers and officers not on actual duty, were in two others. This preparation alarmed the natives, who from the dawn of the day had been alongside in their canoes. They continued their traffic, as usual, but did not follow the party on shore. About one hundred and twenty persons, including both sexes, waited for them on the beach. The officers and soldiers were first landed: the latter fixed their bayonets, selected a certain space of ground, and made such dispositions as would have been necessary in the presence of an enemy. These forms did not seem to deter the inhabitants; the women, by the most expressive gestures convinced them that they were disposed to grant them any act of kindness they could require: and the men were anxious to know the motive of their visit, that they might anticipate their wants. Two Indians, who seemed invested with authority over the others, gravely addressed them in a long harangue, the purport of which they could not comprehend, and each of them presented a pig. M. de Langle, in return, gave them medals, hatchets, and several pieces of iron. His liberality had a wonderful effect; the women redoubled their caresses, but they were far from being alluring; their features wanted softness and delicacy; and some traces were discovered of the ravages of a certain disease which they had not long been acquainted with.

After having visited the village, M. de Langle gave orders that six soldiers, with a serjeant, should accompany him: the others were left upon the beach, under the command of M. de Pierrevert, the lieutenant: to them was committed the protection of the ships' boats, from which not a single sailor had landed ‡.

The party re-embarked at eleven o'clock in very

* Each of these canoes contained from three to five men: the size was generally about twenty-four feet in length, one in breadth, and one in depth. One of these dimensions weighed about fifty pounds. With these fragile vessels the inhabitants of the islands traverse channels twenty leagues across, like that between Atooi and Wohaoo, where the sea runs extremely high; but they are such expert swimmers that no dangers by water can deter them. As the navigators advanced, the mountains seemed removed to the interior of the island; and they no longer saw any cascades: the trees were thinly scattered in the plain, the villages consisted of only ten or twelve cabins each, and those were very remote from each other. They regretted the country they had left behind them, and found no shelter till they saw before them a rugged shore, where torrents of lava had formerly flowed.

† A word which, in their religion, signifies a thing they cannot touch, or a consecrated place, into which they are not permitted to enter. Dixon gives a vocabulary of the language of the Sandwich Islands, in which the word *taboo* signifies embargo: though, in his plural, he explains the ceremony of lying under *taboo* in the same manner as Captain Cook has done.

‡ The soil of this island is principally formed of a decomposed lava, and other volcanic matters: the water which the inhabitants drink is brackish, drawn from shallow wells,

very good order, and arrived on board about noon; where M. de Clonard had received a visit from a chief, of whom he had purchased a cloak, and a helmet adorned with red feathers: he had also purchased a hundred hogs, a quantity of potatoes and bananas, plenty of stuffs, mats, and various other articles. On their arrival on board, the two frigates dragged their anchors: it blew fresh from the south east, and they were driving down upon the island of Morokinne, which was however at a sufficient distance to give them time to hoist in their boats. La Perouse made the signal for weighing, but before they could purchase the anchor, he was obliged to make sail, and drag it till he had passed Morokinne, to hinder him from driving past the channel.

As he did not entirely get his anchor till five in the afternoon, it was too late to shape his course between the island of Ramai and the west part of Mowee: till eight the breezes were so light that he could not run above half a league. At length the wind settled at north-east, when he stood to the westward. At the dawn of day he stretched towards the south-west extremity of the island of Morotoi. This island seemed to be uninhabited in this part, though, according to the English account, it is very populous on the other side. It is remarkable that in these islands the most healthy, fertile, and populous parts are always to windward *.

SECTION VI.

Departure from the Sandwich Islands—Sundry Occurrences—Description of the Bay of Port des Francais—Manners, Customs, &c. of the Inhabitants—Traffic with them—JUNE, JULY, 1786.

THE fresh stock that had been procured at the Sandwich Islands, afforded an agreeable and salutary subsistence to the companies of the two frigates for about three weeks. The hogs, however, could not be preserved alive for want of water and food. The crew were obliged to follow Captain Cook's method of salting them; but the greater number of them were so small that salt only tended to corrode them, which rendered it necessary to consume them as soon as possible.

On the 6th of June the trade winds no longer accompanied our navigators: of this they were convinced from several circumstances: the wind shifted to south-east, and the sky became dull and whitish. They were much afraid they should soon have cause to regret the loss of the fine weather, which had hitherto preserved them in so excellent a state of health. La Perouse's apprehensions of fogs were quickly realized. They began on the 9th of June, and they had no clear weather till the 14th. The humidity was extreme; the fog, or rain, had penetrated through all the sailors' cloathing: not a ray

wells, one of which will hardly furnish half a barrel of water in a day. Three or four villages presented themselves, which contained about ten or twelve houses each; they are covered with straw, and the roofs have two declivities: the height of the door is about three feet and a half, and the habitations cannot be entered without stooping: it is shut by a simple hatch, which can be opened with the greatest facility. The furniture consists of mats, which form a very neat covering, upon which they lie down: their kitchen utensils are large calabashes, which they mould to any shape they please while they are green: they also varnish and ornament them. Sometimes they glue them together, and form very large vessels of them: and their glue possessed the quality of resisting water. Their stuffs, of which they have great plenty, were made of the paper mulberry-tree. At their return they were harangued by some women, who presented them several pieces of stuff, which were paid for with hatchets and iron nails.

* On the first of June, at six in the evening, he had cleared all the islands, and had not employed more than forty-eight hours in examining them, and fifteen days in elucidating a very important point in geography, as it expunges from the French charts five or six islands which have no existence. The fishes, which had followed us from Easter Island, now disappeared. It is certain that the same shoal of these aquatic animals followed the frigates fifteen hundred leagues: several, which had been wounded by the French harpoons, retained a mark on them by which they were perfectly known: the people daily saw and recollected, the same fish that we had seen the preceding night. Had they not stopped at the Sandwich Islands, they would probably have followed them two or three hundred leagues, or till they could come to a temperature which suited them.

of the sun appeared to dry them. Being of opinion that cold wet weather was the principal cause of the scurvy, La Perouse ordered stoves, filled with burning coals, to be placed under the half deck, and between the decks where the people slept: he returned to every sailor their flannel under waistcoats and breeches, which he had kept in reserve for them from their departure from Cape Horn. He also distributed to every seaman and soldier a pair of boots. His surgeon likewise proposed that a slight infusion of bark should be mixed with their grog at breakfast, which might have salutary effects without destroying the relish of the beverage. This mixture was directed to be prepared secretly, as the crews might otherwise refuse to drink their grog: but as none of them perceived what had been done, no murmuring arose concerning this new regimen*.

A fair wind accompanied the navigators from their departure from the Sandwich Islands, till they landed at Mount St. Elias. As they advanced to the northward, they saw sea-weeds pass by, such as they never had beheld till then; a head, of the magnitude of an orange, terminated a stalk of about forty feet in length. Whales and wild geese convinced them that they were approaching land. Early in the morning of the 23d they descried it: a sudden dispersion of the fog opened to them the view of a long chain of mountains covered with snow. They distinguished Behrin's Mount Saint Elias, the summit of which appeared exalted.

The sight of land, though generally agreeable after a long voyage, afforded them little satisfaction. Immense heaps of snow, covering a barren land without trees, had no charms for them. A black rock, of immense height, destitute of all verdure, formed a striking contrast to the whiteness of the snow. A thick fog enveloped the land during the 25th, but on the 26th the weather became very fine, and the coast appeared at two in the morning, with all its windings. At two o'clock in the afternoon a calm rendered it necessary for La Perouse to come to an anchor. At six in the morning he had dispatched his long-boat, under the command of M. de Boutin, to reconnoitre this bay or channel. Messrs. de Monti and de Vaujuas quitted the Astrolabe for the same purpose: and they brought up to wait the return of these officers: the general opinion was that it was supposed the woody point of the island was either a channel, or formed the mouth of a great river. About nine in the evening the three boats, however, returned, and three officers unanimously declared, that there was neither channel nor river; that the coast only formed a semicircular hollow in the north-east, and that there was no shelter from the most dangerous winds. As M. de Monti's landing was attended with great difficulty, and as he was the commander of this little division, La Perouse gave the Bay the appellation of *Monti Bay*†. He then made the signal for getting under way, and as the weather appeared formidable, he embraced the advantage of a breeze to run to the south-east, and gain an offing‡.

This

* Many other precautions were attended with the greatest success; a carpenter constructed, from a plan of M. de Langle, a corn-mill, which proved infinitely serviceable. The pursers, convinced that kiln-dried corn might be preserved better than flour and biscuit, proposed to take a quantity of it on board. Mill-stones were provided, and four men were required to keep them in proper motion. At length, however, it appeared that the grain was only broken, and not ground, and that the whole day's labour of four men, relieved every half hour, produced only twenty-five pounds weight of imperfect flour. The corn forming half our store of provision, the crews would have been much embarrassed, had not M. de Langle, assisted by a sailor that had formerly been a miller's boy, adapted to the mill-stones the movement of a wind-mill. He first contrived sails to be turned by the wind, which he found to be a kind of improvement; but he afterwards introduced a handle, which rendered the project in some degree compleat. By this new method perfect flour was obtained, and about two hundred weight of corn could be daily ground with ease.

† Monti Bay is neither more or less than the anchorage of Dixon on the 23d of May; an anchorage sheltered from all winds, by the corner of an island which forms a kind of jetty, to which he gave the name of Port Mulgrave.

‡ On the 1st of July, about noon they were near enough to distinguish men, had there been any upon the shore, by the assistance of their perspective glasses; but they saw breakers which rendered a landing impossible. At two in the afternoon a falling in of the coast was perceived, which appeared to be a fine bay. La Perouse dispatched the jolly boat, commanded by M. de Pierrevert to reconnoitre it. The Astrolabe also sent two boats for the same purpose, commanded by Messrs de Flassan and Boutervilliers. The report of the gentlemen last mentioned was so favourable that La Perouse resolved to shape his course towards the passage. He soon perceived Indians, who shewed signs of friendship by hanging up skins and white cloaks; and several

This port, which had never been discovered by any other navigators, is situated thirty-three leagues to the north-west of that of Los Remedios, and about two hundred and twenty-four leagues from Nootka. The calmness of the interior of the bay we found extremely delightful, and the place was honoured with the name of *Port de Francais*. La Boussole came to anchor in the bay at half a cable's length from the shore: the Astrolabe did the same. M. Boutin having been afterwards sent to sound the bay, found an excellent bed of sand; afterwards both the frigates gained a good anchorage.

While the navigators were compelled to stay at the entrance of the bay, they were continually surrounded by the canoes of the Indians. In exchange for iron* they were offered fish, and variet' of skins; as well as sundry articles of dress, and the natives displayed much ability in their commercial dealings, but iron was more eagerly coveted than any other medium of barter. They indeed consented to take some pewter pots and plates, but they received them with indifference. Iron was their favourite metal: a dagger of it hung from the necks of many of them. Seeing the Frenchmen examine these daggers with great attention, they intimated to them that they never used them but against bears, and other beasts of the forests. Some of them were formed of copper, a metal not uncommon among them, though chiefly used for col'ars, bracelets, and other ornaments. The points of their arrows are also tipped with it. Some of their toys were composed of brass, well-known composition of copper and zinc; a circumstance which induced the French traders to suppose the metals they produced came from the Russians, the factors for the Hudson's Bay Company, or from the Spaniards. The love of gold is not more prevalent in Europe than that of iron is in this part of America †.

When the navigators had established themselves upon this island, they were visited by almost all the Indians of the Bay. The report of their arrival having spread itself to the adjacent parts, several canoes arrived filled with otters' skins, which the natives bartered for knives, hatchets, and bar-iron. The sea-otter is supposed to be more common here than in any part of America. The Astrolabe caught one, which probably had escaped from the Indians, as it was severely wounded. It weighed seventy pounds, and perhaps had attained its full growth. The sea-otter is an amphibious animal, remarkable for the beauty of its skin. The Indians of Port Francais call it *skecter*. Some naturalists have noticed it under the denomination of *saricovienne*, but the description of that animal in Buffon has no affinity with this, which has no resemblance of the otter of Canada, nor that of Europe.

On their arrival at their second anchorage, the navigators established an observatory on an island within a musket-shot of the ships: there they pitched tents, and formed a settlement for the time they supposed they should continue in this port. As all the Indian villages were on the continent, they thought they should be perfectly secure upon this little island, but they were soon convinced of their mistake. They indeed knew the Indians were all thieves, but they did not suppose they were such adepts in thievery as to be able to carry on the most difficult projects in the art. They watched every night for a favourable opportunity of committing their depredations; and though an excellent guard was kept on board, they often deceived their vigilance.

several canoes of them were fishing in the bay. At seven they were before it: the wind was light, and the ebb-tide so strong that it was impossible to stem it. The Astrolabe was rapidly driven out with it, and the Boussole came to an anchor, to prevent being drifted away by the current, of the direction of which La Perouse was then ignorant, but when he found that it set towards the offing, he weighed anchor and rejoined the Astrolabe.

* Virgin, or native iron, though very rare, has been found in Sweden, Germany, at Senegal, in Siberia, and at the island of the Elbe. La Perouse said he found it at Erba-longa, a village two leagues to the northward of Bastia, the capital of Corsica; it was spread with great profusion in the mass of a rock, situated on the sea-shore, and constantly under the octaedral form. The existence of native iron is still further proved, by the examples which exist in the greater part of the cabinets of natural history, and by the opinion of Stahl, Linnæus, Margraff, &c.

† On the day of their arrival they received a visit from the chief of the principal village: but before he attempted to come on board, he seemed to address a fervent prayer to the Sun: he afterwards delivered an elaborate speech, which terminated with melodious songs; the Indians in his canoe accompanied him by repeating the same air in chorus. Most of them then appeared on board, and danced to the sound of their own voices for about an hour. La Perouse made the chief several presents, which induced him to become so troublesome, that he every day continued five or six hours on board: and if these presents were not frequently repeated, he went away dissatisfied, muttering some threats, which indeed were not much regarded.

Nothing

Nothing was reclaimed that had been stolen, in order to prevent quarrels, and their disagreeable consequences *.

Messrs. de Langle, de Monti, and Dagelet, with several other officers, were anxious to ascend the glacier: with inexpressible fatigue, they attained the distance of about two leagues, in the course of which they were obliged to leap over clefts of an astonishing depth: yet they were unable to descry any thing but a continuation of glaciers and snow, which seemed to have no other termination than at the summit of Mount Fair Weather.

SECTION VII.

*Continue at Port des Francais—A melancholy Accident occurs—Particulars of Departure—Port des Francais described—Its Productions—Natural History—Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants—Their Propensities—Language—*JULY, 1786.

ON the following day the chief came again on board the Boussole; better attended and dressed than usual; and, after variety of singing and dancing, offered to sell to La Perouse the island on which the observatory had been placed; meaning, it is presumed, to reserve to himself and his associates the right of plundering from it. Without questioning his right of transferring the property to another, or mentioning a doubt whether he could execute a legal instrument of conveyance, he accepted the chief's offer; and gave him, as a valuable consideration for the land, several yards of red cloth, knives, hatchets, nails, and bar-iron. At the same time he complimented his suite with several presents. The bargain being thus completed, he sent to take possession of the island with the usual formalities.

Having taken in as much wood and water as was required, the navigators esteemed themselves the most fortunate of men in having arrived at such a distance from Europe without having a sick person among them, or any one afflicted with the scurvy; but a lamentable misfortune now awaited them. The following inscription, composed by M. de Lamanon, will briefly relate the particulars of this melancholy event.

"On the 14th of July, 1786, the frigates Boussole and Astrolabe, which sailed from Brest the 1st of August 1785, arrived in this port. From the care of M. de la Perouse, commander in chief of the expedition, of the viscount de Langle, commander of the second frigate, of Messrs. Clonard and de Monti, second captains of the two ships, and of the other officers and surgeons, none of the diseases which are incident to long voyages had afflicted our ship's companies; M. de la Perouse found himself happy in the reflection, as did all the others, of having been from one end of the world to the other, through every kind of danger, and of having visited people reputed to be barbarous, without losing a single man, or shedding a drop of blood. On the 13th of July, at five o'clock in the morning, three boats set off for the purpose of laying down the soundings upon the draught which

* This excess of lenity rendered the islanders extremely insolent, but La Perouse endeavoured to convince them of the superiority of the French arms. Experiments shewing the efficacy of cannon and musquet-balls were exhibited, and expert marksmen killed the birds flying over their heads. Not intimidated, however, by any thing that could be done or threatened, they pursued their former courses, and compelled La Perouse to take away the settlement he had made upon the island; but before they could accomplish their intention, they contrived, in spite of centinels, to carry off many of the effects; and had the address to introduce themselves into M. Lauriston's tent, where he slept, and took away an ornamented musquet, as well as the clothes of two officers, who had placed them under their bolster. They were unperceived by twelve soldiers upon guard. In this last robbery, the loss of an original memorandum book was much regretted, in which was written all the astronomical observations since their arrival in the Port des Francais.

To form a conception of this bay, let us suppose a bason of water of an unfavourable depth in the middle, bordered with excessive high mountains covered with snow, without a blade of grass, and condemned to perpetual sterility. Not a breath of air ruffles the surface of this water; though sometimes a tremendous noise is occasioned by the falling of enormous pieces of ice from five different glaciers. The air here is generally so calm, and the silence so profound, that a man's voice may be heard the distance of half a league, as well as the noise of some sea-birds, who build their nests in the cavities of these rocks.

had

had been made of the bay. They were commanded by M. d'Escures, lieutenant of the navy, and a chevalier of St. Louis. M. de la Perouse had given him instructions in writing, which expressly charged him not to approach the current, but at the moment he conceived himself at a sufficient distance from it, he found himself drawn in by it. Messrs. de la Borde, brothers, and de Flassa, who were in the boat of the second frigate, were not afraid of exposing themselves to danger, by flying to the assistance of their companions, but they, alas! shared the same unhappy fate. The third boat was under the orders of M. Boutin, lieutenant of the navy. This officer, contending with courage against the breakers during the space of several hours, made the most vigorous but useless exertions to assist his friends, and was only indebted for his own safety to the superior construction of his boat, to his own enlightened prudence, joined with that of M. Lapraise Mouton, lieutenant of the frigate, his second in command, and to the activity and ready obedience of his crew, consisting of Jean Marie, cockswain, Lhostir, le Bas, Corentin Jers, and Moners, all four sailors. The Indians seemed to participate in our sorrows, which were extreme. Moved, but not discouraged by our misfortunes, we sailed the 30th of July, to continue our voyage.

"The names of the officers, soldiers, and sailors, who were lost on the 13th of July, at a quarter past seven o'clock in the morning.

"THE BOUSSOLE.

"*Officers*—Messrs. D'Escures, de Pierrevert, de Montarnal.

"*Crew*—Le Maitre, first pilot; Lieutot, corporal and cockswain; Prieuf, Fraichot, Berrin, Bolet, Fleury, Chaub, all seven soldiers; the oldest not thirty-three years of age.

"THE ASTRGLABE.

"*Officers*—Messrs. de la Borde Marchainville, de la Borde Boutervilliers, brothers, Flassan.

"*Crew*—Soulas, corporal and cockswain; Philiby, Julien le Penn, Pierre, Rabier, all four soldiers; Thomas Audrieuse, Goulven Tarreau, Guillaume Duquesne, all three captains of the tops, in the flower of their age.

"At the entrance of this harbour perished twenty brave seamen.

"Reader, whoever thou art, join thy tears to ours."*

By continuing at the entrance of the bay, more knowledge of the manners and customs of the Indians was acquired than could have been expected at the other anchorage: the ships lay near their villages, which they daily visited. Almost every hour furnished fresh cause of complaint against them; though they continued to experience from the navigators the most evident proofs of benevolence and generosity. They brought some pieces of the wreck of the boats, which had been driven upon the eastern coast, and intimated, by signs, that they had buried one of the unfortunate sufferers on the shore. M. de Clonard, and two other officers, on receiving this intelligence, directed their course towards the east, accompanied by these Indians, to whom they had been extremely liberal. The officers were conducted over a very frightful road, by their guides, who demanded a fresh payment every half hour, or threatened to return. At length they fled with precipitation into the woods, when the officers were convinced that the report was fabricated merely to extort presents from them. In this journey they saw immense forests of large fir-trees; some of which were five feet diameter, and seemed to exceed a hundred and forty feet in height. They were not surprised at the manoeuvres of the Indians, as, upon all occasions, they had manifested considerable address in stealing †.

This

* Upon this lamentable event, M. de la Perouse declared that his sorrows have since been frequently accompanied by his tears; that time could not assuage his grief; and that every object recalled to his mind the loss they had sustained, in circumstances where such a catastrophe could not be dreaded or apprehended.

† Our travellers also saw a morai, by which they were convinced that these Indians were accustomed to burn their dead, and to preserve only the head. This monument consists of four stakes, which support a little wooden chamber, where the ashes of the dead are deposited in coffins; they opened these coffins, examined a packet of skins which enveloped the head, and carefully replaced every article, adding several valuable presents. The Indians who were present at this visit, seemed rather disconcerted, but instantly seized the presents which the travellers had left. But if these people reluctantly permitted the travellers to visit their tombs, they would not suffer them to approach their cabins, till they had previously removed all their women, who were objects of extreme disgust.

Strange canoes daily entered the bay, and whole villages quitted it, yielding their places to others. These Indians

This canoe had timbers and whales like the French boats: the wood-work was extremely well executed, and had a covering of seals' skin, serving as a kind of sheathing, so ingeniously formed that the best European artist could with difficulty imitate the work. This covering was deposited in the morai, near the coffins with the ashes; and the frame, elevated upon stocks, remained bare near this monument.

On the 30th of July, at four in the afternoon, La Perouse got under way: the horizon was so clear, that he perceived Mount Saint Elias, distant at least forty leagues, bearing north-west. At eight in the evening, he was three leagues to the southward of the bay.

This bay or harbour, to which La Perouse gave the name of *Port des Francais*, is situated in 58° 37′ north latitude, and 139° 50′ west longitude. In different excursions, he says, he found the high-water mark to be 15 feet above the surface of the sea. The climate of this coast is infinitely milder than that of Hudson's Bay, in the same degree of latitude. Pines were seen of six feet diameter, and a hundred and forty feet in height. Vegetation is vigorous during three or four months of the year. Plenty of celery, endive, sorrel, lupine, the wild pea, and yarrow were found, which were eaten in soups, ragouts, and sallads; all which perhaps contributed to keep the crews in perfect health. The woods abound with strawberries, rasberries, and gooseberries; the dwarf willow, elder, and different species of briar; the gum poplar tree, the poplar, and superb pines, proper for the masts of the largest ships.

The rivers abound with trout and salmon, but in the bay were taken some *fletans* *, some of which exceeded a hundred pounds in weight. There were also ling, the single thornback, plaice, and some *capelans* †. The navigators preferring salmon and trout to all these fishes, were furnished with greater quantities of them that they could consume. They had little angling, and that only with the line: they had not leisure to haul the seine, which required twenty-five men to draw it ashore. Muscles were profusely scattered over that part of the shore which is uncovered at low water, and small limpets are abundant upon the rocks. In the hollows of these rocks were observed several species of whelks and other sea snails. Large cockles were also found upon the sand of the beach ‡.

Nature has furnished inhabitants to this frightful country, who differ from those of civilized countries, as the scene in contemplation differs from the cultivated plains of France: as rude and barbarous as their soil is rocky and barren, they inhabit this island to destroy its population: eternally hostile to the animals, they despise the vegetable substances which surrounds them. Their arts indeed are somewhat advanced, and civilization has made some progress, but their ferocity requires much softening, and their manners much polishing. Their mode of life excluding all subordination, they are constantly agitated by revenge or fear. Irritable, and prone to anger, bloody quarrels frequently arise. Perishing for want in winter, because they cannot then be successful in the chase; they fatten on abundance in the summer, as an hour employed in fishing will support a whole family for a day: the remainder of which is devoted to idleness or gaming, to which they are as much

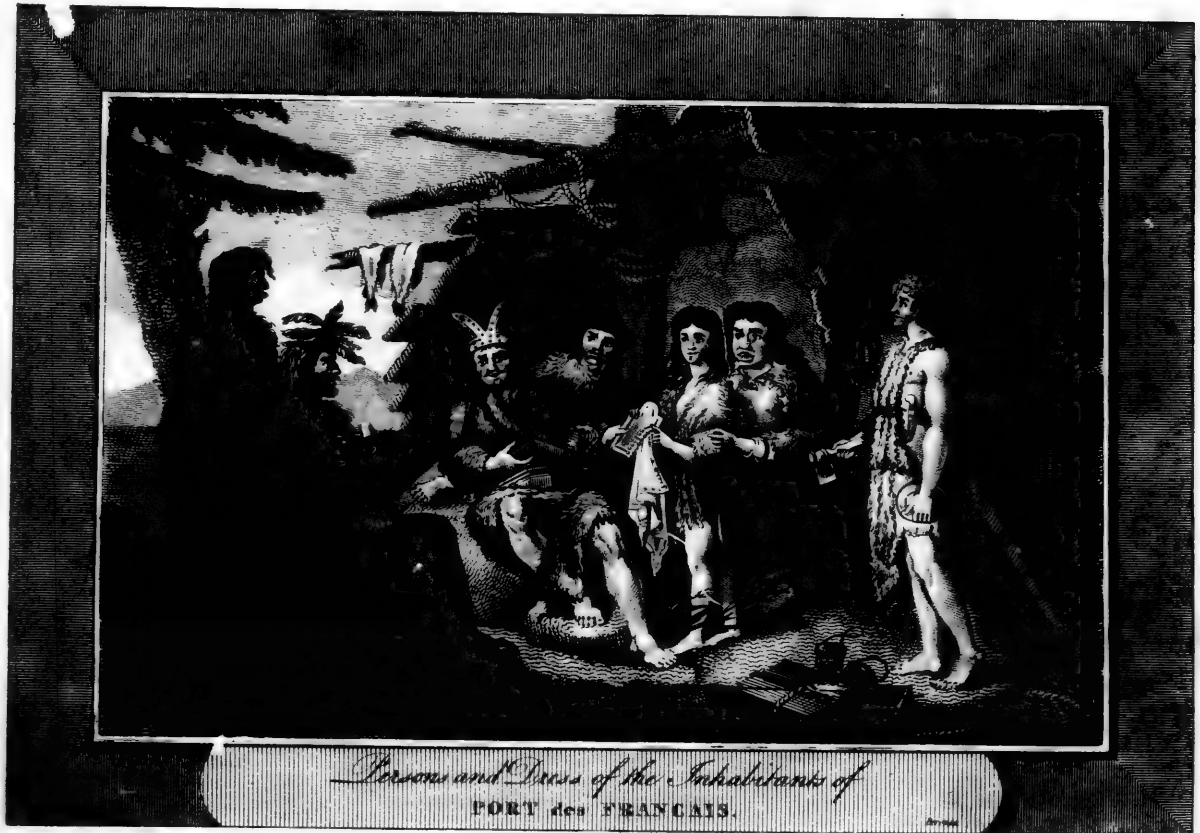
are so much in dread of the channel that they never entered it but at slack water. By the aid of glasses it appeared, that when they were between the two points, a chief or elder rose up, and extended his arms towards the sun, in the attitude of addressing prayers to it, whilst the others continued paddling with great earnestness. The meaning of this custom being required, it appeared that seven large canoes had been lost there a little time before, and the eighth had been with difficulty saved: the Indians who escaped this misfortune, consecrated it either to their God, or to the memory of their sufferers.

* A flat fish, not unlike the turbot, but longer, the back covered with black scales: those in Europe are much smaller.

A fish similar to cod, but generally larger. It is easily taken, from its greediness.

† This fish resembles the whiting, but is larger: the flesh of it is soft, pleasant, and easy of digestion: it is common on the coast of Provence, and is named the *poor priest*.

‡ The hunters discovered in the woods, plenty of bears, martens, and squirrels; and purchased from the Indians the skins of the brown and black bear; as well as of the beaver, the ermine, marten, little grey squirrel, Canadian marmot, and the red fox. There is no great variety of birds, though the individuals are numerous: the thickets swarm with nightingales, black birds, and yellow hammers. In the pairing time their singing was delightful. The white-headed eagle was seen towering in the air, and the large species of the raven. A king-fisher was killed, and a beautiful blue jay. Several sea-birds were also observed, such as gulls, cormorants, wild geese, and the red-footed guillemot.



Persons and Dress of the Inhabitants of
PORT des FRANCAIS.

Taylor sc.

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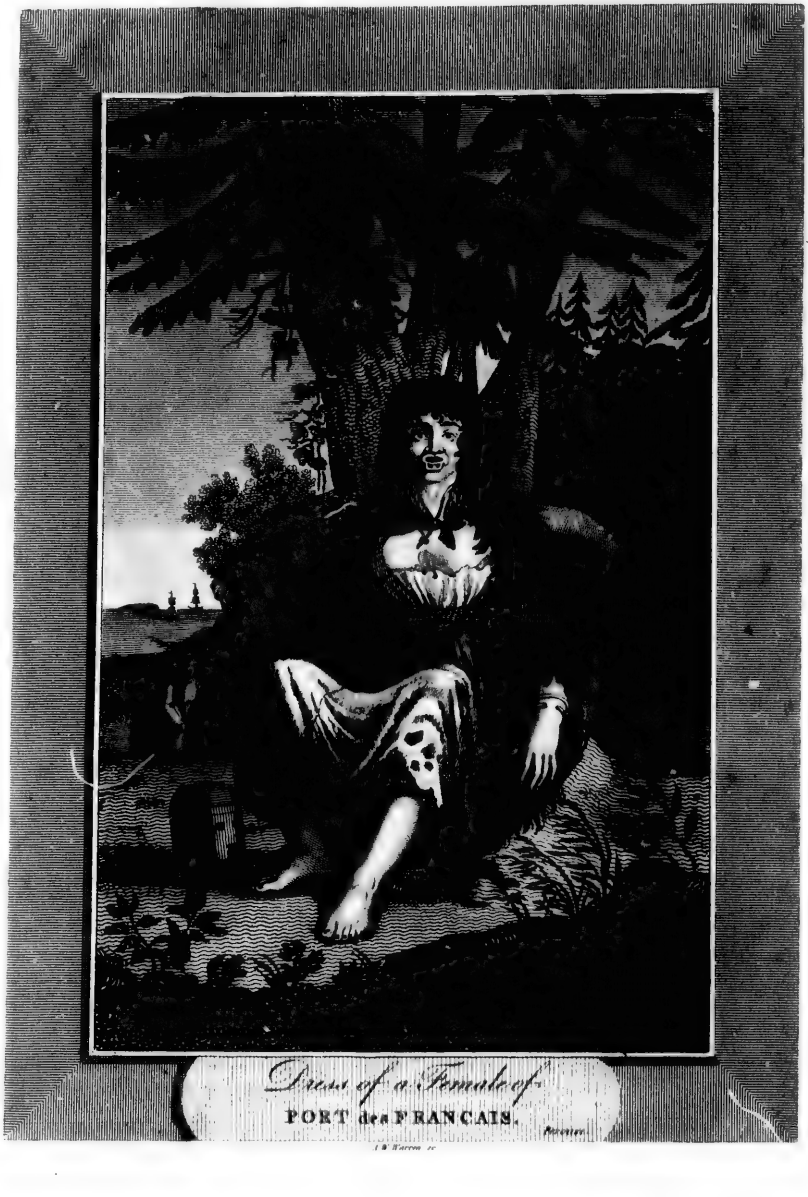
Dream of a Female of
PORT des FRANCAIS.

much addicted as the inhabitants of great cities.

La Perouse says he has been a witness of the injustice and deceptions of these people, who have been described as good, because they are nearly in a state of nature; but this same nature is only admirable in her masses, she is negligent of all details. We cannot traverse woods which the hand of civilized man has not rendered passable; or, in other words, we cannot form society with a man who is in a state of nature; because he is barbarous, wicked, and deceitful. In this opinion he acknowledges himself to have been confirmed by his own melancholy experience. But he never exercised the force which had been intrusted to him for repelling the injustice of these savages, and he did not recollect that men have certain established rights, which are not to be violated with impunity *.

None of the ships' companies ventured on shore, without being well armed and in force: the Indians were so terrified by their firelocks, that eight or ten Europeans could keep a whole village in awe. The surgeon-majors of the two frigates, imprudently hunting by themselves, were attacked by the Indians, who attempted to force their musquets from them, but without success. La Perouse gave the name of village to three or four wooden sheds of twenty-five feet in length, and fifteen in breadth; sheltered only to windward with planks or bark of trees. A fire appeared in the middle, and flat fish and salmon were drying in its smoke. Eighteen or twenty persons inhabited each of these sheds; the men on one side, and the women and children on the other. Every cabin seemed to form an independent colony: each of them had its canoe, and a kind of chief †.

During the summer the Indians wander in the different bays, seeking their provision like seals; and in winter they visit the interior country, hunting beavers and other animals. Dogs are their familiar friends and associates: three or four of them are usually seen in every cabin: they are small, and not unlike the shepherd's dog of Buffon: they seldom bark, but hiss like the Bengal jackal. Compared to other dogs, they are as savage as their masters are to civilized people. The men wear different small ornaments pendant from the ears and nose, scarify their arms and breasts, and file their teeth close to their gums; using, for the last operation, a sandstone formed into a particular shape. They paint the face and body with soot, ochre, and plumbago, mixed with train oil, making themselves most horrid figures. When completely dressed, their flowing hair is powdered, and plaited with the down of sea-birds: but perhaps only the chiefs of certain distinguished fa-

* Indians, in their canoes, continually surrounded the frigates; passing two or three hours in observation before they began to exchange fishes for otters' skins. They embraced every opportunity of robbing us, and tore off such iron as might be conveniently conveyed away: and they were particularly engaged in forming projects for committing depredations in the night. La Perouse solicited some principal persons among them to come on board his frigate, and was extremely liberal to them; yet these very men who had been so favourably distinguished, could not depart without pilfering a nail or an old pair of breeches.

When he caressed their children, and made them small presents, the parents did not seem delighted with his benevolence; they were only induced, by seeing these favours conferred upon their offspring, to ask to accompany them when they came on board. He often saw the father take advantage of the moment of his fond assiduities to please the child, to seize and conceal under his garment whatever lay within his reach. When he had loaded the Indians with presents, he sometimes expressed a desire for a few of their articles of trifling value; but these trials of their generosity were always made in vain. If these people had any virtues, he had not sufficient penetration to perceive them: eternally quarreling among themselves, indifferent to their children; and above all, tyrants to their women, who are destined to the most laborious and disagreeable employments.

† He ventures to assert that this bay is inhabited only in the favourable season, and that the Indians desert it on the approach of winter, as he never saw a cabin that was sheltered from the rain. The canoes were constantly entering and quitting the bay, accompanied with their houses and furniture, which consisted of a number of small boxes: these boxes are arranged at the entrance of their cabins, which abound with nastiness and stench. For the performance of the most necessary occasion, they never remove farther than about two steps, and they neither consult privacy nor shade: should such urgencies happen during a repast, they coolly take their places again after the completion of the business §. Their wooden utensils in cookery, which are never washed, serve for dish, plate, or kettle. As these vessels will not endure fire, they heat the water with red-hot flint-stones, which are perpetually changed for others equally hot, till the food is ready to be served up.

§ *The inside of these dwellings exhibits a complete picture of dirt and filth, indolence and laziness: in one corner are thrown the bones, and remaining fragments of victuals left at their meals, in another are heaps of fish, pieces of stinking flesh, grease, oil, &c.* Dixon's Voyage, 173.

milies are thus decorated. Their shoulders are covered with a skin, and the rest of the body remains naked, except the head, on which is generally worn a little straw hat, plaited with great taste and ingenuity. Sometimes indeed the head is decorated with two horned bonnets of eagles' feathers. Their head-dresses are extremely various, the grand object in view being only to render themselves terrible, that they may keep their enemies in awe. Some Indians have skirts of otters' skin. A great chief wore a shirt composed of a tanned skin of the elk, bordered by a fringe of beaks of birds, which, when dancing, imitated the noise of a bell. A common dress among the savages of Canada, and other nations in the eastern parts of America *.

The stature of these Indians is hardly different from the French: their features are various, and their eyes have some expression, but never beam forth a sentiment of tenderness. Their skin is brown, from their exposure to the air; but their children when infants, are as fair as those of France. The frame of their body is feeble; a weak sailor would overcome the strongest of them in wrestling. Many of their legs seemed swelled, and none of them appeared to have attained any considerable age. La Perouse says he saw only one woman who seemed to have reached the age of sixty.

The Indians in this part of the world, have made greater progress in the arts than in morals, and their industry exceeds that of the inhabitants of the South Sea Islands. The Americans of *Port des Francais* are capable of forging iron, of forming copper, and of spinning the hair of different animals; with the aid of a needle, they can fabricate, with yarn, a tissue not inferior to French tapestry. And they can improve this tissue by ingeniously intermixing it with narrow stripes of otters' skin, which gives a glossy appearance to their cloaks resembling the finest silk shag. They plait hats and baskets with reeds with inimitable skill, and figure on them very tolerable designs; they even engrave figures of men and animals in wood and stone with some degree of accuracy; and inlay boxes with mother of pearl with great elegance. To their ornaments of serpentine, they give the polish of marble. Their hostile weapons are the dagger already mentioned, a lance made of wood or iron, and a bow and arrows. Among their trinkets were seen pieces of yellow amber, but it was not known whether they were the produce of their own country, or whether, like the iron, they received it from the old continent by the attentions of the Russians.

The seven canoes mentioned to have been lost at the entrance of the harbour, were thirty-four feet in length, four in breadth, and six in depth; dimensions well appropriated to long voyages. The passion of these Indians for gaming is astonishing, and they pursue it with great avidity. The sort of play to which they are most devoted, is a certain game of chance: out of thirty pieces of wood, each distinctly marked like the French dice, they hide seven: each plays in succession, and he who guesses nearest to the whole number marked upon the seven is the winner of the stake, which is usually a hatchet or a piece of iron. This gaming, however, creates a kind of gloomy melancholy.

La Perouse says he has frequently heard these people sing; and when the chief honoured him with a visit, he generally paddled round the ship singing, and crossing his arms as a token of amity: he then ventured on board, and re-

* The chief, who always conducts the vocal concert, puts on a large cloak made of the elk-skin, tanned, round the lower part of which is one, or sometimes two rows of dried berries, or the beaks of birds, which make a rattling noise whenever he moves, *Dixon's Voyage*, 242.

This custom appears general among the colonies, which inhabit the north-west coast of America. It is extended even to the inhabitants of Fox Islands, and the Aleutian Islands. *See Coxe's Translation of New Discoveries by the Russians.*

La Perouse never saw any tatooing here, except on the arms of a few women; but many of them are addicted to a custom which renders them more hideous. The lower lip of all of them is slit at the root of the gums, as far as the mouth extends; they wear something like a wooden bowl resting against the gums, to which this lower cut lip serves for a support; the lower part of the mouth consequently projects two or three inches. These women, who were extremely disgusting, covered with skins stinking and untanned, excited desires in some of our people of eminence: they at first appeared coy, started difficulties, and by their gestures signified they ran the risk of their lives; but their scruples being overcome by proper presents, they did not object to the Sun's being a witness to their amours, and peremptorily refused to retire into the wood. This planet is probably the God of these people, to which they frequently address their prayers: but no priests nor temples were to be seen, nor the least trace of any worship.

hearsed

hearsed a kind of pantomime, representing combats, disasters, and death. The air which ushered in the dance was agreeable, and not destitute of harmony. French characters cannot express the language of these people: they have indeed some articulations similar to those of the French, but they are wholly strangers to many of them. The frequency of the letter K, and the double consonants, render this language extremely rough; but it is considerably less guttural among the men than the women, who find it difficult to pronounce the labials, the piece of wood fixed on their under lip operating as an impediment. There seems to be a great affinity in sound between this language and that of Nootka sound; in both the K is the prevailing letter, and appears in almost every word.

Though La Perouse admits that he saw no proofs or traces to convince him that these Indians are cannibals; but the practice alluded to is so general among the Indians of America, that he should probably have had this trait to add to their picture, had they been at war, and captured any prisoners*.

What immediately follows, as La Perouse very justly observes, can only be interesting to navigators and geographers. At length, after a very long run, on the 11th of September, at three in the afternoon, the navigators got sight of Fort Monterey, and two three-masted vessels which lay in the road. Contrary winds obliged them to come to an anchor two leagues from the shore, in forty-five fathoms, and the next day they brought up in twelve fathoms, two cables' length from the land. The commander of these two ships, having been informed by the viceroy of Mexico, of the probable arrival of the two French frigates, sent us pilots in the course of the night. It is remarkable that, during the whole of this long run, encompassed with the thickest fogs, the Astrolabe always continued within hail of the Boussole, and was never at a greater distance from her, till La Perouse ordered M. de Langle to reconnoitre the entrance of Monterey,

SECTION VIII.

Description of Monterey Bay—Of the Two Californias—Manners and Customs of the independent Indians—Grain, Fruits, and Pulse—Quadrupeds, Shells, &c.—Military Constitution—Missions.

THIS bay is formed by New Year Point to the north, and Cyprus Point to the south: it has an opening of eight leagues, and nearly six of depth to the eastward. The sea breaks there with a roaring sound which is audible at the distance of a league. The number of whales which are seen here creates surprise, as much as their familiarity. They frequently spouted at a small distance from the ships, and the water thus scattered emitted an offensive stench†.

These Indians are small and feeble, but manifest a desire of liberty and independence; their colour resembles that of the negroes whose hair is not woolly, they are skilful in managing the

* Captain J. Meares has sufficiently proved, in the narrative of his voyages, that the inhabitants of the north-west coast of America are cannibals.

Variety of considerations induced La Perouse to determine, in case of a separation, to give M. de Langle a new rendezvous. He had previously fixed on the ports of Los Remedios and Nootka, and proposed not to go into harbour but at Monterey; the last port being preferred because it was the most distant, and a greater quantity of water would be required there. The disaster at *Port des Francais* occasioned some changes in the staff establishment. M. Darbaud, a midshipman received orders to act as ensign, and M. Broudon, a spirited young volunteer, was appointed lieutenant.

† The coasts of Monterey Bay are generally enveloped in fogs, which render it difficult to approach them. Without this inconvenience, few would be more easy to land upon. Plenty of pelicans were seen in the sea: they are a species of birds that seldom appear more than five or six leagues from land. Though our navigators first saw them in Monterey Bay, they are very common over the whole coast of California. A lieutenant colonel, resident at Monterey Bay, is governor of the Californias, including an extent of more than eight hundred leagues in circumference; but his subjects consist of only two hundred and eighty two cavalry, who garrison four or five small forts, and furnish detachments to each of the twenty-five missions or parishes in the two Californias. So inconsiderable is the force to restrain about fifty thousand wandering Indians in this extensive part of America; among whom about ten thousand are supposed to have embraced christianity.

bow. Their perseverance in hunting the larger animals is remarkable. Our navigators saw an Indian, with a stag's head fixed upon his own, proceed on all fours, and imitate the manners of the animal he meant to represent: in this manner the natives perform their parts, till they arrive within a convenient distance of herds of stags, and then terminate their existence with a flight of arrows.

Loretto, the only presidency of Old California, is situated on the east coast of this peninsula, and has a garrison of fifty-four troopers, who furnish detachments to fifteen missions; the duties of which are performed by Dominician friars. About four thousand Indians, converted and residing in these fifteen parishes, are the sole produce of the long labours of the different religious orders, which have succeeded each other. By Vénéga's History of California it appears that the progress of these missions have been very slow. Spanish piety has hitherto maintained these missions and presidencies at a vast expence, for converting the Indians of these countries. A new branch of commerce would be more advantageous to Spain than the rich mines of Mexico; and the climate and soil, together with the abundance of all kinds of poultry, would give this part of America a preference to Old California; the barrenness and insalubrity of which would be poorly compensated by the few pearls collected at the bottom of the ocean*.

The land is inexpressibly fertile; farinaceous roots and seeds succeed wonderfully in it; corn, pease, and maize, can only be equalled by those produced in Chili: the medium produce of corn is more than seventy to one. The climate is very suitable to fruit trees, though they are rarely found there. Among the forest trees are the ever-green oak, the stone-pine, the cyprus, and the occidental plane tree: there is no underwood, a smooth verdant carpet beautifully covers the ground. Vast savannatis, or meadows, abound with game of every denomination. The land is light and sandy, and is supposed to derive its fertility from the humidity of the air, it being very partially watered: the nearest stream to the presidency is distant about two leagues. This rivulet approaches the mission of Saint Charles, and is called by the old navigators Carmel River.

La Perouse, after his digression respecting the missions, proceeds to inform his readers, that, on the evening of the 14th of September, he anchored at two leagues from the shore, in view of the presidency and the two ships in the road. Guns had been frequently fired to point out the anchorage, lest the fogs should conceal it. At ten in the evening, the captain of the corvette *La Favorite* came on board the Boussole, and offered to pilot the two French frigates into the port. La Princesse, the other corvette, had also dispatched a pilot on board the Astrolabe. It appeared that these were two Spanish ships, commanded by Don Estevan Martinez. A small navy was established by the Spanish government in this port, under the orders of the viceroy of Mexico, consisting of four corvettes of twelve guns, and one goletta. They are destined to supply with necessaries the presidencies of North California; and they are sometimes dispatched as packet boats to Manilla, when the orders of the court require the utmost expedition.

The navigators weighed anchor at ten, and anchored in the road about noon: they were saluted with seven guns, which they returned; and La Perouse sent an officer to the governor with the Spanish minister's letter, which had been forwarded to him in France before his departure. It was addressed to the viceroy of Mexico, whose authority extends to Monterey, a hundred leagues, over land, from his capital. M. Fages, commandant of the two Californias, had received orders to receive the French navigators with great civility and attention, and those orders were punctually obeyed: they did not confine themselves to personal civilities; oxen, vegetables, and milk were sent on board in great abundance.

* Prior to the Spanish settlements, the natives of California cultivated only maize, and were principally supported by hunting and fishing: fish and game of every denomination are extremely plenty in this country: stags, hares, and rabbits are numerous: otters and seals abound in it; to the northward, during the winter, bears, wolves, foxes, and wild cats are the common spoil. The thickets and plains contain large quantities of small grey tufted partridges, which are fat and deliciously flavoured. The trees are tenanted by a great variety of birds; among which are titmice, sparrows, speckled wood-peckers, and tropic birds. Those of prey are the great and small falcon, the goss hawk, the sparrow hawk, the white-headed eagle, the black vulture, the raven, and the large owl. The ponds and sea-shore exhibit to view different species of gulls, the wild-duck, the grey and white pelican with yellow tufts, herons, small sea-water hens, curlews, cormorants, and ring plovers. A bee-eater was taken here, which some ornithologists affirm to be peculiar to the old Continent.

The

The same eagerness to oblige was manifested by the commanders of the two corvettes, and the commandant of the fort; each of them seemed to claim an exclusive right to administer to the wants of the navigators; and, after adjusting accounts between these Spaniards and Frenchmen, the former could hardly be prevailed on to receive any money as a consideration for the articles they had been supplied with. Vegetables, fowls, and milk, were absolutely furnished *gratis*, and the oxen, sheep, and corn were so moderately rated, that they might in a great degree, be considered as *given* instead of *sold*. To these acts of generosity may be added, the obliging demeanour of M. Fajes; his house, with all his servants, was solely at the disposal of the French navigators*.

The company were received with all possible politeness and respect: the president of the missions, in his sacerdotal vestment, with the holy water in his hand, waited to receive them at the entrance of the church, which was splendidly illuminated as on their highest festivals: he then conducted them to the foot of the high altar, where *Te Deum* was sung in thanksgivings for their arrival. Before they entered the church they passed a range of Indians: the parish church, though covered with straw, is neat, and decorated with paintings, copied from Italian originals. A picture of Hell is there represented, in which the imagination of Callot is absolutely exceeded; but the senses of new converts must be struck with the most lively impressions. A representation of Paradise, placed opposite to that of Hell, is supposed to produce less effect on them. In returning from church, they repassed the same row of Indians, male and female, who had never deserted their post during the *Te Deum:* the children had removed a little, and formed groups round the missionary's house, which is opposite the church. The village, which is on the right, consists of about fifty cabins, which form dwelling places for seven hundred and forty persons, including men, women, and children, which compose the mission of Saint Charles †.

The colour of these people resembles that of the negroes: their store-houses are built of brick, and pointed with mortar; their horses, oxen, and many other particulars, give this country the appearance of a habitation of Saint Domingo, or some other West-India colony. The people are collected together by the sound of a bell; and conducted to their work, and all their exercises by one of the religious. Unfortunately the picture is still more perfect: men and women were seen loaded with irons, others were fixed in a frame resembling the stocks; and the noise of the strokes of a whip assailed the ears of all present, a proof that this punishment is also admitted here, though it is said not to be exercised with severity ‡.

* The holy fathers of the mission of Saint Charles soon arrived at the presidency, and invited the officers of the fort and the two frigates to dine with them. The latter eagerly accepted their invitation, and a day was agreed on for that purpose. M. Fages requested to be of the party, and undertook the task of providing horses. After passing over a small plain, where herds of cattle were seen, and in which only a small number of trees had been provided to shelter these animals from rain and excessive heat, the party ascended the hills, and were surprised with the sound of bells announcing their arrival; the monks having received intelligence from a horseman detached for that purpose.

† These cabins are wretched in the extreme: they are round, four feet in height, and six in diameter: the timber-work consists principally of stakes, and eight or ten bundles of straw over the whole forms a pretence of defending the inhabitants from wind and rain: more than half the cabin continues open in fine weather. The Indians, however, are happy to have two or three bundles of straw in reserve, in case of accidents: the exhortations of the missionaries could never induce them to alter their mode of architecture: they say they delight in plenty of air, and that it is often necessary to set fire to their habitations, when they are in danger of being devoured by myriads of fleas. It is matter, indeed, of no great importance, for they can build another in the course of a few hours. The independent Indians, as hunters, find it often convenient to change their places of abode.

‡ The monks give the following account of the government of the religious community among the missionaries; for no other name can be applicable to them: they are superiors in temporal as well as spiritual affairs; and the products of the land are under their control. Seven hours in the day are appropriated to labour, and two to prayers. On Sundays and festivals four or five hours are devoted to prayer, and the remainder of their time dedicated to rest and divine worship. Corporal punishments are inflicted on all those Indians who neglect pious exercises, and many of their sins incur the chastisement of chains or the stocks. In a word, from the moment a new convert is baptized, he is considered as if he had pronounced eternal vows; if he should escape, with a view of returning to the independent villages, he is three times summoned to return; and, on his refusal, they claim the assistance of the governor, who dispatches soldiers to force him from the protection of his family, § and conduct him to the missions, where he is sentenced to suffer flagellation with a whip.

The

§ *As these people are hostile to their neighbours, they cannot remove themselves further than twenty or thirty leagues.*

The Indians, as well as the missionaries, rise with the sun, and devote an hour to prayers and mass; during which time a species of boiled food is prepared for them: it consists of barley meal, the grain of which has been roasted previous to its being boiled. It is cooked in the centre of the square, in three large kettles. This repast is called atole by the Indians, who consider it as delicious, it is destitute of salt and butter, and must consequently be insipid to a Frenchman. A person is deputed from every cabin, to receive the portion for all its inhabitants, in a vessel formed of bark: no disorder or confusion arises in the distribution of the allotments; when the coppers are empty, they give what remains at the bottom to those children who have most distinguished themselves in their lessons of catechism. Three quarters of an hour being exhausted in this meal, the partakers return to their labours; some to plough, others to dig, and others to be employed in their respective domestic occupations, but always under the inspection of one or more of the religious.

The women have little more to attend to than their housewifery, their children, and the roasting and grinding of several grains: the latter operation is long and laborious, as they employ no other means than that of crushing it in pieces with a cylinder upon a stone. M. de Langle, however, seeing this operation, gave the missionaries his mill, with which four women could, in one day, perform the work of a hundred; and sufficient time would then remain for them to open the wool of their sheep, and to manufacture their stuffs. But the religious, almost wholly occupied in their heavenly interests, are so regardless of their temporal welfare, that they have neglected to cultivate the common arts. So great is the austerity of their practice, that they will not indulge themselves with a chimney in their apartments, notwithstanding the severity of the winter in that country. At noon, when the dinner was announced by the bell, the Indians quitted their employments, and sent for their proportions as at breakfast: but this second meal was more substantial than the former, being improved with corn and maize, and pease and beans; the Indians call it *poussola*. After this meal, they again return to their labour, till four or five: afterwards they pass an hour at evening prayers, and a new *etole* is provided like that at breakfast.

The Indian women, having no earthen or metallic vessels for this operation, perform it in baskets made of bark, over some lighted charcoal: they turn them with that rapidity, that they facilitate the swelling and bursting of the grain, without setting fire to the basket. The best roasted coffee is not prepared with that address and ingenuity which these women display in the preparation of their corn. It is regularly distributed to them every morning, and the most trivial dishonesty, when detected, is punished by whipping: but the women never receive this species of correction in public, but in a distant and enclosed place, imagining perhaps that their cries might create too much compassion, and induce them to revolt. The latter receive their punishment exposed to public view, to serve as an example. Before the strokes are given, they usually ask pardon, which has considerable effect in weakening the force of them, but they never recede from their stipulated number*.

The converted Indians preserve those ancient usages which are not prohibited by their new religion; the same cabins, games, and dresses.

* The rewards given are small distributions of grain, of which the little cakes are made, which are baked on burning coals; and on grand festivals the ratio is beef, which by many of them is eaten raw, especially the fat, which the natives prefer to the most excellent butter and cheese. They are very expert in skinning animals; and, when they perceive they are fat, they express a kind of voluptuous pleasure by croaking like ravens. Sometimes they are permitted to hunt and fish upon their own account, when on their return, they usually make the missionaries a present of a part of what they have procured. The women rear fowls in the environs of their cabins, with the eggs of which their children are fed. These fowls, as well as the cloaths of the Indians, are their own property: they are also entitled to little articles of household furniture, and those peculiar to the chase. No instances are related of their having robbed each other, though they have no other fastening than a bundle of straw placed across the entrance. The reader will, however, reflect that there is no furniture in these habitations.

In the missions, the men have sacrificed more to Christianity than the women, as they were habituated to polygamy, and permitted to espouse all the sisters of a family. The women have acquired the exclusive right of receiving the caresses of one man only. At the expiration of an hour, after supper, they confine, under lock and key, all those whose husbands are absent, and all young girls exceeding the age of nine years. But these precautions were often found ineffectual, men being frequently seen in the stocks, and women in irons, for having deceived the vigilance of these indefatigable females.

The

The dress of the richest consists of an otters' skin cloak, to cover their loins, and descend below the groin: the most indolent are satisfied with a simple piece of linen cloth, furnished by the mission to conceal their nakedness; a cloak of rabbits' skin, tied under the chin, serves as a veil for their shoulders: the rest of the body remains absolutely naked; except the head, which is sometimes ornamented with hats of straw, curiously matted or plaited. The women have a cloak of deer skin, tanned; those of the missions make a small bodice, with sleeves, of the same material. This, with a small apron of rushes, and a petticoat of stag's skin, which descends to the middle of the leg, is the whole of their apparel. Girls under the age of nine years have only a simple girdle, and boys are completely naked.

The Indians of the *rancheries*, * or independent villages, are accustomed to paint their bodies red and black, when they are in mourning: but the missionaries have prohibited the former, though they tolerate the latter, these people being singularly attached to their friends. The ties of family are less regarded among them than those of friendship: the children shew no filial respect to the father, having been obliged to quit his cabin as soon as they were able to procure their own subsistence: but they are infinitely more attached to the mother, who has reared them with the greatest tenderness, and never corrected them but when they have exhibited marks of cowardice in their little engagements with children of their own age. The aged men of the rancheries, who are become incapable of hunting, are supported at the joint expence of the village, by the individuals of which they are highly respected. The arms of the independent savages are the bow and arrow, pointed with a flint very curiously worked †.

The Indians, under the control of the missionaries, believe their superiors have an immediate communication with God, and that they daily prevail on him to descend upon the altar. Protected, under this opinion, the fathers live in perfect security in the villages; not having even their doors shut whilst they are asleep. Homicide is hardly known among the independents, and when it does happen it only incurs contempt; and if a man loses his life from the blows of several persons, he is supposed to have deserved his fate, by having drawn so many enemies upon him.

A Spanish commissary at Monterey, named M. Vincent Vassadre y Vega, brought orders to the governor to collect all the otter skins of his missions and presidencies, government having reserved to itself the exclusive commerce of them; and M. Fages assured La Perouse that he could annually furnish twenty thousand of them. The Spaniards were ignorant of the importance of this valuable peltry till the publication of the voyages of Captain Cook: that excellent man has navigated for the general benefit of every nation; his own enjoys only the glory of the enterprize, and that of having given him birth ‡.

New California, though extremely fertile, cannot boast of having a single settler: a few soldiers, married to Indian women, who dwell in the forts, or who are dispersed among the different missions, constituting the whole Spanish nation in this district of America. The Franciscan missionaries are principally Europeans; they have a convent at Mexico. The viceroy is now the sole judge of all controversies in the different missions. Don Bernardo Galves having united all the powers, Spain allows four hundred piasters to each missionary, two of which are appropriated to a parish: supernumeraries receive no salary. Money indeed is useless in a country where nothing can be purchased: beads are considered as the only money of the Indians. The convent of Mexico, instead of piastres, sends the value in effects; such as wax church-candles,

* The independent villages are so called.

† They neither eat their prisoners, nor their enemies which they have slain in battle: but when they have vanquished and killed eminent chiefs, or other courageous men, they have sometimes eaten pieces of them, less to gratify their revenge than to pay homage to their valour; fully convinced also that such food would inspire them with additional courage. In the Canadian style, they scalp the vanquished, and pluck out their eyes, which they preserve in excellent perfection as tokens of their victory. They burn their dead, and deposit their ashes in morais.

‡ The otter, an amphibious animal, is common over the whole western coast of America. The Indians, who are not so good seamen as the Esquimaux, and whose boats at Monterey are formed of reeds, catch them on the land with snares, or fell them to the earth with large sticks. But to ensure success in this mode of attack, they must carefully conceal themselves behind the rocks, as, on the least noise, the timid animal plunges into the water.

wine, oil, sugar, and chocolate. The salary of the governor is four thousand piastres; of the lieutenant governor four hundred and fifty. The captain inspector of the two hundred and eighty-three cavalry has a salary of two thousand piastres. Eight piastres is the price of a good horse; an ox is worth five piastres.

La Perouse having received favours from the soldiers, sent them a present of a piece of blue cloth. He also made presents to the missions of stuffs, coverlits, iron tools, beads, and sundry little articles, which might be necessary or convenient for them. The president did not neglect to inform the whole village, that it was bestowed on them by their ancient and faithful allies, who professed the same religion as the Spaniards. This intelligence operated on their generosity so effectually that each of them brought a bundle of hay or straw on the following day, for the accommodation of the sheep and oxen which were destined to be taken on board *.

On the evening of the 22d, every thing was on board, and leave had been taken of the governor and missionaries. The navigators carried away large quantities of provision, and transferred the poultry-yard of M. Fages, and that of the religious to the hen-coops of the two frigates. They also received from the religious large supplies of grain, pease, and beans: their offers of payment were obstinately resisted, accompanied with the following reply—"They were the administrators, not the proprietors of the property of the missions."—On the morning of the 24th, they sailed.

This section is followed by an account of some astronomical observations; remarks on the accuracy and use of time-keepers, and a vocabulary of the language of the different colonies adjacent to Monterey.

SECTION IX.

*C[illegible] Monterey—Discover Necker's Island—In Danger of perishing on a Sunken Rock—Search after the Isles de la Mira and des Jardins—Description of the Island of Assumption—Anchor in the Road at Macao—Arrival at Macao—Description of it—Departure from it—Landing on the Island of Luconia—Enter Manilla Bay—Anchorage at Cavite—*SEPTEMBER, 1786—JANUARY, FEBRUARY, 1787.

THE object of La Perouse's voyage being new discoveries, and the progress of navigation in seas not much known, he avoided the frequent tracks. He was obliged, however, to keep in the zone of the trade winds, as, without their assistance, he could not reach China in six months; and consequently could not pursue the ultimate design of his voyage. Since the taking of the Manilla Galleon by Admiral Anson, and even during the course of two ages, no progress has been made respecting the knowledge of this sea till the discovery of the Sandwich Islands; the Resolution, the Discovery, the Boussole, and the Astrolabe being the only ships which have departed from the tracks followed by the galleons for a period of two hundred years.

Calms and contrary winds detained La Perouse two days in sight of Monterey. Afterwards, noting the longitude assigned to the Island Nostra Senora de la Gorta, he entertained less hope of meeting with it, than of blotting it out from the charts; for islands improperly determined respecting latitude and longitude, had better remain in oblivion till accurate observations have actually been made.

On the 3d of November the frigates were surrounded with noddies, terns, and man-of-war birds; and on the 4th they made an island which bore west. At five in the morning of the 5th, they were only three leagues from the island, and La Perouse hailed the Astrolabe to make sail ahead, and prepare to anchor.

* Of wood and water a competent supply was procured; the botanists lost no opportunity of endeavouring to increase their collection of plants, but the season was very unfavourable. The mineralogists were as zealous and almost as unfortunate as the botanists: they found blocks of granite, some fragments of porphyry, but no trace of metal. Shells are not abundant: oysters were found, the pearls of which equal in size and beauty those of Ceylon, or the Gulph of Persia.

This

This small island is little more than a rock of about five hundred toises in length. Not a tree is to be seen on it, but a great deal of grass is visible on the top: the rock is much disfigured by the dung of various birds: the extremities of it are perpendicular like a wall, and the sea broke around it with such violence as to render it impossible to think of landing. La Perouse named it Isle Necker: during the day men were continually occupied in looking out at the mast head; the weather was squally, with rain: at sun-set it was fine: birds innumerable were moving around them in different directions. At the close of the evening, the moon being at full, it was so light that they thought they might venture to stand on. From the time of quitting Monterey to the present moment they had not known a finer night or a smoother sea; but these flattering appearances had almost occasioned the destruction of our navigators. About an hour past one in the morning La Perouse saw breakers at two cables' length a-head of the ship; the sea being so smooth, the sound of them was hardly heard: the Astrolabe perceived them at the same time, though at a greater distance from them than the Boussole: both the frigates instantly hauled to port, with their heads to the south-east. La Perouse gave orders for sounding: they had nine fathoms, rocky bottom; soon after ten and twelve fathoms, and in a quarter of an hour got no ground with sixty fathoms. They had just escaped the most imminent danger to which navigators can be exposed: happily no disorder or confusion arose; for the slightest negligence in working the ship, to remove ourselves from the breakers, must have accelerated our destruction. For almost an hour they saw the continuation of these breakers; but they stretched away in the westward, and lost sight of them in about three hours*.

* Had not this rock been more particularly reconnoitered, doubts would perhaps have remained with respect to the reality of its existence; but La Perouse, anxious that navigators should no longer be exposed to it, made a signal, at day-break, to tack and find it once more. At eight in the morning he saw it in the north-north-west; he crowded sail to near it, and soon perceived an inlet or split-rock, the diameter about fifty toises, and near twenty-five fathoms in height: it was situate upon the north-west extremity of this reef of rocks, the south-east point of which had so nearly proved fatal: it extended about four leagues in that point of the compass. He perceived, between the islet and the south-east breakers, three sand banks, not elevated more than four feet above the level of the sea; a greenish kind of water, not seeming to be above a fathom deep, separated them: rocks nearly level with the water, on which the sea broke with great violence, encircled this shoal, and defended it from the fury of the waves. He coasted along it at about the distance of a league on the east, south, and west side: on the north only a bird's eye view could be obtained from the mast-head; the length of it, from the south-east to the north-west is about four leagues. It is twenty-three leagues distant to the west-north-west, from Necker's Island. It may be approached with safety within the distance of four leagues. As this dangerous rock had nearly terminated his voyage, La Perouse gave it the name of *Basse des Fregates*.

After some judicious observations on the knowledge, use, and existence of the trade winds, La Perouse observes that he had directed his course with an intention to pass between Mira Island, and Desert and Garden Islands; but he declares that their names occupy spaces on the charts, where no land ever was, and thus impose upon navigators. The island of Assumption, to which the Jesuits have attributed six leagues of circumference, from the angles now taken was reduced to half, and the highest point is about two hundred toises above the level of the sea. A more horrid place cannot be conceived. It was a perfect cone, as black as a coal, and very mortifying to behold, after having enjoyed, in imagination, the cocoa nuts and turtles expected to be found in some one of the Maianne Islands. Some few cocoa-nut trees indeed appeared, which occupied a very small part of the island, in a hollow of about forty toises, where they were sheltered from the east wind: this is the only place where ships can possibly come to an anchor, in a bottom of thirty fathoms, black sand, extending about a quarter of a league. La Perouse's boat was sent on shore, under the command of M. Boutin; as well as that of the Astrolabe, in which M. de Langle himself embarked: fortunately the boats returned at two, and the Astrolabe got under way. M. Boutin assured La Perouse that the island was infinitely more horrible than it appeared at a little distance: torrents of lava formed ravines and precipices, bordered by a few stunted cocoa trees. Several persons were employed from nine in the morning till about noon in picking up about a hundred cocoa-nuts; and they experienced much difficulty in taking them to the sea-shore, though the distance was very inconsiderable. The lava from the crater covers the whole side of the cone almost to the sea: the summit never was visible,

being

being always capped with a heavy cloud; but smoke could not be perceived, the sulphur which powerfully saluted the nose, sufficiently proved that it was not quite extinct, or that the last eruption of it was at no remote period *.

Fortunately no supply of water was required till we reached China: the sailors saw none of this valuable fluid but in the hollows of the rocks, where it was preserved as in a vessel, and the most capacious of them did not contain two gallons. During the night an immense quantity of birds surrounded the two frigates; which were supposed to be the inhabitants of the Mangs and Uracas, which are only rocks. Most of them were species of man-of-war birds, and noddies, with some terns, gulls, and tropic birds. The Boussole now, for the first time, made a little water, which La Perouse attributed to the decay of the oakum about the seams of the water-line. It was not possible for the caulkers to regulate this work at sea, but it became their first employment after the arrival of the ships in Macao road †.

La Perouse did not mean to touch here, the Bashees having before been often visited, and having nothing particularly interesting. Having determined the position, he continued his course towards China; and on the first of January, 1787, he found bottom in sixty fathoms: a number of fishing boats surrounded him the next day; but their attention was diverted from our navigators by extremely bad weather. Besides, their manner of fishing would not permit them to gratify their curiosity by a transient visit: they were using very long nets, which they dragged over the bottom, and which required two hours to haul it up with dexterity. On the 2d of January our navigators made the White Rock. In the evening they anchored to the northward of Ling-ting Island, and the following day in Macao Road.

Cloudy weather had prevented us from perceiving the town, but at noon it cleared up: and the navigators made it from the west a degree south about three leagues. La Perouse sent a boat on shore, commanded by M. Boutin, to inform the governor of his arrival, and that he intended to continue in the road in order to refresh the ship's companies. M. Bernardo Alexis de Lemos, governor of Macao, received this officer with great politeness, and promised him every assistance within his power. He immediately sent a Malay pilot on board, to conduct them to the anchorage at Typa. At day-break they got under way, and at eight brought up in three fathoms and a half, the town of Macao bearing north-west five miles ‡.

The Chinese trade with the Europeans to an immense

* From every circumstance it appeared that neither human creature, nor quadruped, has ever sought an asylum on this island. A few large crabs were indeed perceived, one of which was taken on board: it is more than probable that this crustaceous animal has forced the sea-birds from the island, by devouring their eggs, which they always lay upon land. At the anchorage we only saw three or four noddies, but M. de Langle, while upon Assumption Island, killed a bird of a black colour, not unlike what is generally termed a black bird.

The naturalists found several fine shells in the cavities of the rocks: several plants were also collected, and three or four different species of the banana trees. No other fishes were seen than the red ray, the small shark, and a sea-serpent about three inches in diameter. The cocoa-nuts and the few objects of natural history we had procured, had exposed the boats and their crews to serious dangers. M. Boutin, who was under the necessity of throwing himself into the sea, to debark and get on board again, had been wounded in the hands by leaning on the sharp edged rocks, which he could not possibly avoid. M. de Langle also got the better of several imminent risks inseparable from landings on such small islands, especially of so circular a form.

† On the 28th our navigators made the Bashee § Islands, of which Admiral Byron has given an erroneous account respecting longitude: that of Captain Wallis is more correct. They passed within a league of the two rocks which are most to the southward: they ought rather to be called islets, without regarding the authority of Dampier; the least of them being half a league in circumference: and though not woody, it contains plenty of grass on the east-side.

‡ The navigators came to an anchor alongside of a French flute, commanded by M. de Richery, ensign in the navy, which had come from Manilla. M. de Richery had the preceding evening, accompanied the Malay pilot, and brought a plentiful supply of fresh meat, pulse, fruit, and other seasonable refreshments. As soon as the ship was moored, La Perouse went on shore with M. de Langle, to thank the governor for his kindness to M. Boutin, and entreat permission to have his establishment on shore, that he might erect an observatory. M. de Lemos received them as countrymen; and every favour they requested was instantly complied with. He offered them his house; and, as he was unacquainted with the French language, his wife, an amiable young Portuguese, obligingly undertook the office of interpreter: Donna Maria de Saldagnahad, twelve years before married M. de Lemos at Goa; soon after which La Perouse, then commander of the flute la Seine, happened to be in that city: she kindly reminded him of this circumstance, which was strongly impressed on his memory, and pleasantly remarked that, "He was an old acquaintance." Then

§ *Bachi or Bachi Islands, so named by William Dampier, from the name of a well-known intoxicating liquor.*

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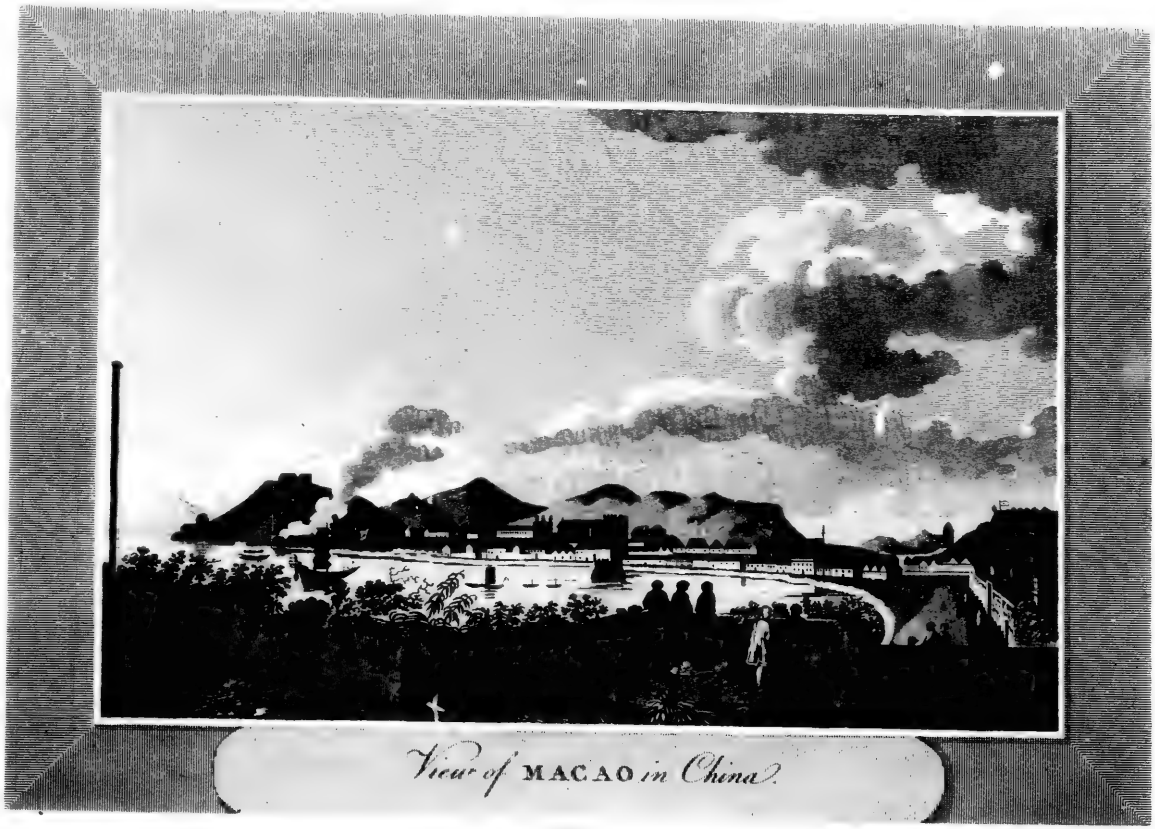

View of MACAO *in China.*

immense amount, upwards of one third of which is paid in silver, the rest in English cloth, Batavian tin, opium from Patna, cotton from Bengal and Surat, and in sandal wood and pepper from the coast of Malabar. Many articles of luxury are also carried from Europe. In exchange for these the Chinese give nothing but their black and green tea, and some chests of raw silk for the European manufactures. Their China ware, with which they ballast their ships, and from which they derive very little profit, is too unimportant to be noticed. There is not a nation in the world that carries on so advantageous a commerce with strangers as the Chinese, nor one that imposes such hard conditions, vexations, and restraints: every cup of tea, drank in Europe, has created some kind of humiliation to those who purchased it at Canton, and who have sailed over half the globe to bring this fascinating leaf into their markets. The following genuine fact will illustrate the Chinese character. An English gunner, making a salute by order of his superior officer, killed a Chinese fisherman, who had imprudently, and without the knowledge of the gunner, placed himself within the range of the musket. The Governor of Canton demanded and obtained the gunner, on a promise that he would do him no injury, declaring he could not be guilty of such injustice as to punish an involuntary homicide. Relying on this assurance, the unfortunate man was delivered up, and about two hours afterwards he was hanged.

Macao, situate at the mouth of the Tigris, is capable of receiving a sixty-four gun ship into its road, at the entrance of Typa; and in its port, below the city, ships of seven hundred tons half laden. The entrance of this port is defended by a fortress consisting of two batteries, and three small forts. These fortifications, which are in a neglected state, would not be regarded by Europeans, though they are sufficient to awe the whole maritime forces of the Chinese. A mountain also commands the country, on which a detachment might hold out a very long siege. The Portuguese of Macao, thinking more of their religious than their military duties, have erected a church on the ruins of a fort which crowned this mountain, and formed a post almost impregnable.

The Portuguese limits extend no farther than about a league from the city: they are bounded by a wall, and guarded by a few soldiers, under a manderin. This manderin is indeed the real governor of Macao, and the person to whom the Chinese owe obedience. He has not the privilege of sleeping within the enclosure of the limits, yet he may visit the place, inspect the custom-houses, &c. And on these occasions the Portuguese must salute him with five guns. But no European is permitted to set a foot on the Chinese country beyond the wall: an attempt of that kind would subject any person to the mercy of the Chinese: for such an indiscretion large sums might be demanded of him, or he might suffer detention as a prisoner. Some of the officers of the frigates wantonly exposed themselves to this risk, but it fortunately happened that no serious consequences arose from their levity*.

The viceroy of Goa appoints all the military and civil officers at Macao. The governor, and the senators are nominated by him. He has lately appointed the garrison to consist of one hundred and eighty Indian seapoys, and one hundred and twenty militia: the soldiers are armed with staves, the officer only being permitted to wear a sword; but, on no occasion to use it against a Chinese. If a robber of that nation is detected in breaking open a door, or

then, calling all her children into her presence, she assured him that it was thus she always presented herself to her friends; that their education was the object of all her cares; that she was proud of calling herself their mother, a pride which she trusted he would forgive, as she was resolved to introduce herself to her friends with all her faults. The whole universe could not exhibit a more enchanting picture: the finest of children, saluted and caressed by a mother of the most amiable deportment. To her personal charms and private virtues, she added a firm character, and an elevated mind. The administration of M. de Lemos at Goa, would have been highly advantageous to that colony, had government continued him in that distinguished office for a longer term than three years, and given him time to accustom the Chinese to a resistance of which they had even lost the recollection.

* The population of Macao is estimated at twenty thousand, of which about one hundred are Portuguese by birth; two thousand Portuguese Indians, of half blood; about the same number of Caffre slaves, who act in the capacity of domestics: the rest are Chinese employed in commerce or different occupations. But though most of them are mulattoes, they would deem it disgraceful to exercise any mechanical art for the maintenance of themselves and families. Their feelings, however, are not injured by earnestly and continually soliciting charity from passengers.

purloining any effects, he must not be arrested without the greatest precaution: if a soldier, in his own defence, should unfortunately kill him, he is delivered over to the governor, and hanged in the market-place. But if a Chinese kill a Portuguese, he is examined by the judges of his own nation, who make a pompous parade of fulfilling all the formalities of justice, but always connive at the evasion of it. The Portuguese, however, have lately made a spirited effort, which reflects honour on them. A seapoy having killed a Chinese, they shot him themselves in the presence of the Mandarin, and would not submit the decision of the affair to those of his own country*.

This is a handsome city, and has several fine remains of its ancient opulence: the principal houses are now occupied by the super-cargoes of different companies, who are obliged to pass the winter in Macao: the Chinese compel them to quit Canton on the departure of their last vessel, and will not suffer them to return thither till the arrival of the European ships in the following monsoon. Macao is an agreeable residence during the winter, principally on account of the super-cargoes who inhabit it, who are generally men of distinguished merit, and are enabled from their situation to be liberal and obliging. The navigators, from the object of their mission, experienced the most flattering reception: had they possessed no other title than that of Frenchmen, they might have been considered as orphans, the French East India Company having no representative there at that period.

To M. Elstockenstrom, the principal agent of the Swedish East India Company, La Perouse acknowledges great obligations to be due. He readily undertook, at his departure, the sale of all his peltry. The value of these articles was ten times less than at the period when captains Gore and King arrived at Canton; six expeditions having this year been undertaken by the English on the north-west coast of America. Some difficulty now arose with respect to the landing of the peltry, and their warehousing at Macao: the senate, to whom the French consul addressed himself, refused permission; but the governor, understanding it was the property of the sailors, who were employed on an expedition for the general benefit of mankind, ventured, in this instance, to depart from the general rules which had been prescribed to him†.

The climate of the road of Typa is, at this season of the year, precarious: most of the crews were afflicted with colds, accompanied with a fever; which yielded to the salutary temperature of the island of Luconia, when they approached it on the 15th of February. The north winds enabled La Perouse to stand to the eastward, and he would have made Piedra Blanca, had they not speedily come round to the east-south-east. From the instructions he had received at Macao, respecting the best track to follow to Manilla, a diversity of opinions prevailed: the easterly winds, blowing with violence, induced him to haul close to the starboard tack, and to shape his course to leeward of *Bank de Pratas*, which all the charts had erroneously laid down till Captain Cook's third voyage: Captain King, by accurately fixing the latitude of it has been highly serviceable to navigators who coast from Macao to Manilla.

Our navigators sailed along the Iloco coast, at the distance of two leagues, and perceived, in

* The senate of Macao consists of a governor, who presides, and three *vereadores*, who audit the city accounts. Two judges of orphans are next in rank, who take charge of the property of minors, the nomination of tutors and guardians, the regulation of testaments, and successions: but appeals from their sentence may be prosecuted at Goa. The other causes, civil or criminal, are tried in the first instance, by two senaters, named judges.

The Procureur of the city is the medium of communication between the governments of Portugal and China; he is answerable for all strangers who reside at Macao during the winter, and receives and transmits the reciprocal complaints of the respective governments: he is the only person who is not removeable at pleasure from his situation. That of the governor is held for the term of three years: the other magistrates are changed annually. An appeal lies to Goa from all decrees of the senate; their known inability renders this law extremely necessary.

† La Perouse having received proofs of the knavery of the *Crompador*§, an officer usually employed to procure provisions, he was dismissed; and the commissary of provision went daily to market, as in every European city, to purchase every article that was required: in consequence of this the expence of a whole month was less than the extravagant imposition of the first week.

§ *When Captain Dixon was desirous of procuring fresh provisions for the ship's company, no time was lost in making necessary enquiry for that purpose; but he found it impossible to avoid a number of impositions; and that every vessel was supplied with whatever provisions they wanted by an officer called a* Crompador, *who always demanded a* cumshau, *or gratuity of three hundred dollars, exclusive of the profits which would arise to him from serving us with provisions.* Dixon's Voyage, p. 292.

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the port of Santa Cruz, a small two-masted vessel, which was probably taking in a cargo of rice for China. On the 20th they doubled Cape Buliano, and on the 21st saw Point Capones, which bore east; they worked up to gain the anchorage, which does not extend more than a league from the shore. They saw two Spanish vessels, which appeared to be afraid to open the entrance of Manilla Bay, out of which the easterly wind blew strong, remaining under the shelter of the land. They made a stretch to the south of Marivella Island, in hopes of entering the north channel; but, after several tacks, they resolved to bring up in the port of Marivella, to wait for a fair wind, or a more favourable current. They came to an anchor there in eighteen fathoms; the town bore north-west by west, and the *Hogs (les Porcs)* south by east. This port, which is open only to the south-west winds, is good holding ground.

Wanting wood, which he knew was dear at Manilla, La Perouse came to a resolution of remaining twenty-four hours at Marivella to procure some; and early the next morning all the carpenters of the two frigates were sent on shore with the longboats: the rest of the ships' company, with the yawl, were reserved for a fishing party, but they were unsuccessful, as they found nothing but rocks and very shallow water. About noon La Perouse went on shore to the village, consisting of about forty houses, built of bamboo, covered with leaves, and ascended by a ladder: all the materials of such a house, including frame and roof, could not exceed the weight of two hundred pounds. A large edifice of hewn stone fronts the principal street; and, though in a ruinous state, two brass guns appear at the windows, which serve for embrasures. This parish is so miserably poor, that only a small hog, and a dozen fowls could be purchased in it. The curate, however, procured a young ox, which he positively asserted was the eighth part of the only herd in the parish *.

The curate had three small antelopes, which he refused to sell, alledging that he intended them for the governor of Manilla: there would have been, however, no probability of keeping them alive, they were so small and delicate, not exceeding a rabbit in size: the male and female represented the stag and the hind in miniature. Some beautiful birds, with varied vivid plumage, were seen in the woods, but the forests were rendered so impenetrable by being incumbered with climbing shrubs, that little game could be procured. In the village some *stabbed* turtle-doves were offered for sale: they obtained this name from having a red spot on the breast, resembling a wound given by the cut of a knife.

On the approach of night our navigators embarked, and prepared for sailing the next day. La Perouse hired as a pilot, an old Indian, who had been sent to him by the captain of one of the Spanish ships; the terms agreed on were fifteen piastres to pilot him to Cavite. Early on the 25th he sailed; and, though it is only seven leagues from Port de Marivelle to that of Cavite, he was three days in making this run. Though M. Depres's plan is incorrect, he would have been a better guide than the Indian pilot, who nearly ran aground upon the bank of St. Nicholas. The water in this bay is so smooth that the shoals in it cannot be discovered; but, in working into it, it is always necessary to keep the island de la Monha open with the north channel of Marivelle, and to put about when

* This reverend shepherd, was a young mulatta Indian, who inhabited the decayed mansion already described: some earthen pots, and a small wretched bed were the principal articles of his furniture. He said his whole parish, consisting of about two hundred persons, were ready, at the least warning, to hide themselves in the woods to escape the outrages of the Moors, who frequently make descents upon these coasts: they are so daring, and many of their enemies so negligent, that they often penetrate as far as the extremity of Manilla Bay. While our navigators were at Cavite, seven or eight Indians were taken away in their canoes at a small distance from the entrance of the port: even the passage boats from Cavite to Manilla, were captured by these same ferocious Moors. They undertake these enterprizes in light row boats; and are opposed by the Spaniards with an armament of galleys, which are so very slow in their motions that they have never taken any of them.

The officer next in dignity, after the curate, is the alcade, who enjoys the honour of bearing a cane with a silver head: his authority over the Indians is so great, that they dare not sell a fowl without his permission, or till he has ascertained the price: he has also the privilege, on account of government, of being the sole vender of tobacco for smoaking, of which the Indians are extravagantly fond. This tax, which has lately been imposed, is thought an intolerable grievance by the poorest class of the people, and has occasioned several revolts: La Perouse observes, that he should not be much astonished if it produced consequences, as extraordinary as the duty upon tea and stamp-paper did in North America.

this island begins to be shut in. On the 28th the navigators came to an anchor in the port of Cavite, in three fathoms, at two cables' length from the town. Twenty days elapsed in their run from Macao to Cavite, but had they followed the ancient custom of the Spaniards and Portuguese, in passing to the northward of Bank de Pratas, they would have been much longer.

SECTION X.

*Arrival at Cavite—How received by the Commandant—M. Boutin dispatched to the Governor General at Manilla—His Reception—Details respecting Cavite—Description of Manilla—Penances during Passion Week—Duty on Tobacco—Continuance at Manilla—Departure from Cavite—Encounter a Bank in the Channel of Formosa—Particulars of the Pescadore, or Pong-hou Islands—Run along Kumi Island—The Frigates enter the Sea of Japan, and run along the Coast of China—Run along the Coast of Corea—Quelpert Islands—Dagelet Island, &c.—*APRIL, MAY, 1787.

THE navigators were hardly anchored at the entrance of the port of Cavite, when an officer from the commandant came on board to request them not to go on shore till orders were received from the Governor General, to whom he should dispatch a Courier, when he knew the motives of their arrival. They informed him that they wanted provision, and permission to refit their ships, to enable them to continue their voyage without delay: but, before the Spanish officer had left them, the commandant of the Bay, having perceived their ships, arrived from Manilla *. He told our navigators that he had been informed of their arrival in the Chinese seas, and that the Spanish minister, in his letters, had long announced them. After some farther conversation he permitted M. Boutin, La Perouse's lieutenant, to accompany him in his boat to mention their arrival to the governor-general, and to solicit his orders that their several demands might be fulfilled before the 5th of April; the nature of their voyage requiring that the two frigates should be under sail the tenth. M. Basco, governor-general of Manilla, received the officer with great politeness, and issued positive orders that nothing should retard their departure.

He also ordered the commandant of Cavite to procure them every convenience in his power: proper houses were provided for them for salting their provision, and repairing their sails. They were indeed excellently accommodated, and found in the market and the arsenal every thing that could be required in one of the best ports in Europe. Cavite, situate, three leagues to the south-west of Manilla, was formerly a place of importance; but at the Philippines, as in Europe, the large towns are, in some degree, swallowed up by the little ones: it has now the commandant of the arsenal, a contator, a few other officers, and a hundred and fifty men in garrison. The other inhabitants consist of Mulattoes or Indians employed at the arsenal, and with their numerous families, form a population of about four thousand, including the city and the suburb of Saint Roch. There are two parishes, and three convents of men. The Jesuits had a handsome house here, which is now in the hands of government. The whole place is now almost a heap of ruins †.

Two days after the arrival of our navigators at Cavite, M. de Langle, accompanied by several officers, embarked for the capital. They made this trip in their boats, well armed on account of the Moors who infest Manilla Bay. They visited the governor, who detained them to dine with him, and afterwards sent an officer to conduct them to the residence of the archbishop, the intendant, and the several oidors. This proved a very fatiguing day: the heat was excessive,

* The commandant of the bay, in Spain, is the principal of the custom-house officers, with military rank: that of Manilla has the rank of captain.

† Having no hopes of meeting with a port more commodious than this, the captains of the two frigates resolved to overhawl their rigging completely, and strap their lower masts. This resolution was attended with no delay, as they were obliged to wait a month for the provision, for which they had applied to the intendant of Manilla.

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excessive, and they were on foot in a city where none of the inhabitants ventured out without a carriage; but none were to be hired, as at Batavia: had not M. Sebir, a French merchant, who accidentally heard of their arrival, sent them his coach, they would have been under the necessity of relinquishing the several visits they had engaged to make *.

Manilla is erected on the bay which also bears its name, and lies at the mouth of a river, being one of the finest situations in the world: all the necessaries of life may be procured there in abundance, and on reasonable terms; but the cloths, and other manufactures of Europe, are extravagantly dear. The great possessions of the Spaniards in America, have not permitted the government to attend minutely to the Philippines. La Perouse confidently asserts, that a great nation, without any other colony than the Philippines, which would establish a proper government there, might view all the European settlements in Africa and America without envy or regret.

These islands contain about three millions of inhabitants, and that of Luconia consists of about a third of them. These people seem not inferior to Europeans; they cultivate the land with skill, and among them have ingenious goldsmiths, carpenters, joiners, masons, blacksmiths, &c. La Perouse says he has visited them at their villages, and found them affable, hospitable, and honest. The Spaniards indeed speak contemptuously of them, but the vices they attribute to the Indians, may with more propriety be placed to the government established among them †.

Many oppressive distinctions are here supported and established with the harshest severity: the number of horses to draw carriages is fixed for persons of every rank; those who have the greatest number take precedence of all others travelling on the same road; they being compelled to summit to the mortification of keeping in a line behind their carriages. But the vices and vexations resulting from this government have not totally destroyed the advantages of the climate: the peasants display an air of happy cheerfulness, beyond what is generally observed in European villages; their habitations, shaded by luxuriant fruit-trees which require no cultivation, are singularly neat and picturesque. A late impost on tobacco is considered as a terrible scourge upon the people: their fondness for this narcotic is so excessive, that hardly a man or woman is to be seen without a *segar* ‡ in the mouth; even infants are permitted to contract this habit. The tobacco produced in the island of Luconia is the best in Asia: it is cultivated round every house, for the consumption of its inhabitants, and is transported, by permission or stealth, into every part of India.

The prohibitory law lately promulgated respecting this favourable plant, confines the cultivation of it to particular districts, where the advantages resulting from it are to be appropriated to the use of government. The price has been fixed at half a piastre a pound, in consequence of which the pay of a day-labourer will not permit him to procure a sufficient quantity of tobacco for the consumption of his own family. Insurrections were menaced in every

* The city of Manilla, including its environs, is extensive, and the population is estimated at thirty-eight thousand, not more than twelve hundred of which are Spaniards; the rest are composed of Mulattoes, Chinese, or Indians. The most inconsiderable of the Spanish families are not without a carriage. The neighbourhood of Manilla is truly delightful, seated on a beautiful river, branching into different channels, the two principal of which are received by the Lagoon, or Lake of Bahea, seven leagues within the country, surrounded by more than a hundred Indian villages, and in the midst of a fertile territory.

† Some streams producing gold-dust, in the neighbourhood of the Spice Islands, were certainly the temptations which occasioned the settlement of the Philippines; but the produce has not answered the expectations that had been formed of it. Enthusiasm superseded avarice, and multitudes of religions, of every order, were sent thither to disseminate christianity. So earnest and successful were these pious labourers, that these islands, in a very short time contained eight or nine hundred christians. Had this zeal been tinctured with prudence and philosophy, good consequences might have been expected, but the people were subjected to the most ridiculous and extravagant practices; every sin was punished with whipping, in proportion to the priest's idea of its enormity; the punishment for non-attendance at prayer or mass, was indiscriminately inflicted on men and women, by order of the curate, at the church-door. The holidays, and the practice of particular devotions consume much of their time; La Perouse says he has seen, during passion week, masked penitents dragging chains in the streets, having their waists and legs surrounded with a girdle of thorns, receiving in certain situations several severe strokes of discipline, and submitting to the most rigorous penances. These practices, which must have a greater tendency to make enthusiasts, than create true devotion, have lately been forbidden by the archbishop of Manilla; but some confessors continue to recommend them, though they will not venture to command them.

‡ A roll formed of a leaf of tobacco, which they smoke without a pipe.

part of the island, and troops were employed to suppress them: an army of custom-house officers were appointed to prevent smuggling, and to compel the consumers to purchase it at the national offices. Many of them have indeed been massacred, but speedy vengeance for their deaths was the certain retaliation: fewer formalities are required in the conviction of the Indians, than in that of other citizens *.

Coffee, sugar-canes, cotton, and indigo, grow there without cultivation, and it is generally believed that their spices would not be inferior to those of the Moluccas: a general liberty of commerce for all nations would command a sale which would encourage the cultivation of them all; and a moderate duty on all articles exported would soon defray the expences that government might sustain.

The navigators remained only a few hours at Manilla, and the governor, having taken leave of them immediately after dinner, to indulge in his afternoon's nap, they visited M. Sebir, from whom they had received the most essential services, during their continuance in Manilla Bay. About eight in the evening they returned to their frigates; but being apprehensive that it would be necessary to send an officer to take up his abode at Manilla, to accelerate the repair of the frigates, to procure necessaries, &c. they nominated M. Vaujaus, lieutenant of the Astrolabe for that purpose; but M. Gonsoles Carmagnal, intendant of the Philippines, generously took that task upon himself, daily inspecting the progress of the workmen, and every other matter of importance, with care, vigilance, and activity. He even opened his cabinet of natural history to the officers of the frigates, and bestowed on our navigators a complete double collection of the shells which are found in the Philippine seas †.

The labours at Cavite being finished, the boats built, the sails repaired, the rigging overhauled, and the salt provision barrelled up, &c. objections were made to the last mentioned article: La Perouse was unwilling to trust to the victualing agents of Manilla; he knew that the salt provision of the galleons would hardly keep good for three months, and confidently relied on Captain Cook's method; a copy of which was remitted to every salter; and they were superintended by several officers. They had salt and vinegar on board which they brought from Europe, and they purchased hogs from the Spaniards on very reasonable terms.

Before they sailed the navigators thought it their duty to wait upon the governor-general, to thank him for the great dispatch with which his orders had been executed; and still more to express their obligations to the intendant, who had rendered them the most essential services. These duties performed, they consumed about two days in visiting the ports adjacent to Manilla, to which they were occasionally conveyed in carriages. They were not captivated with the view of palaces, parks, or gardens; but nature is there so fascinating, that a simple Indian village, on the bank of a river, and a house in the European style, might vie with a magnificent mansion. Such is the dwelling of the most opulent citizens; and this would be one of the most enchanting spots to live in, if a more rational and moderate system of government were established. The fortifications of Manilla have been much improved, under the direction of M. Sauz, an eminent engineer; but the garrison is far from numerous.

On the 9th of April, according to the French manner of reckoning, and the 10th as the Manillese reckon, our navigators sailed, and got to the northward of the island of Luconia. They flattered themselves with finding under Formosa the same variations of wind as under the island of Luconia. On the 21st they made the island of Formosa; and experienced, in the channel which divides it from that of Luconia, some very violent

* The picture which might be drawn of the state of Manilla, in a very short time, would be very different from that of its present state, should the Spanish government adopt a better constitution for the Philippines: the land is capable of producing the most valuable articles; a proper number of persons in the island of Luconia, with due encouragement, might cultivate it to infinite advantage. "The climate" says la Perouse, "will allow the produce of ten crops of silk in a year, whilst that of China gives but a faint promise of two."

† The ship's companies began to experience the disagreeable consequences of the excessive heats of Manilla: some of the sailors were seized with colics, which were not however of an inveterate kind: but Messrs. de Lamanon and Daigremont, who had received the first attacks of a dysentery at Macao, grew daily worse; and M. Daigremont died on the 25th. He was the second person who had been deprived of life by sickness on board the Astrolabe. Disregarding the advice of his physicians, and without the knowledge of his friends and associates, he was determined to cure his disease with burnt brandy, pimento, and other medicines: but, relying on the strength of his constitution, of which he entertained too high an opinion, he fell the victim of his own imprudence.

violent currents. On the 22d they set Lamay Island, at the south-west point of Formosa, about three leagues distance. They sounded twenty-five fathoms, sandy bottom, and in three or four minutes afterwards only nineteen fathoms. From this sudden shoaling of the water they supposed they were near a bank which had not been laid down upon the charts: they continued to sound, and soon after found only twelve fathoms: they tacked, and stood towards the island of Formosa, when the bottom still continued very irregular. The Boussole then came to anchor, and made a signal for that purpose to the Astrolabe. In the morning they got under way, and stood towards the continent of China: at nine they had again twenty-one fathoms by the lead, and a minute afterwards only eleven. Judging it imprudent to continue so hazardous a survey, as their boats were not in a condition to assist them, they came to the resolution of running out upon the opposite point of the compass, and fixed the course at south-east by east. They ran thus six leagues over an uneven bottom from twenty-four fathoms to eleven; the soundings then grew deeper, and at ten in the evening they could get no ground, when about twelve leagues from the point from which they had put about in the morning. Perhaps this bank may not be dangerous, the shallowest water having been eleven fathoms; but the inequality of its bottom renders it very suspicious. It may be necessary also to observe, that these shoals in the Chinese seas have frequently points level with the water, which have occasioned many shipwrecks.

The tack they then stood on conveyed them upon the coast of Formosa, near the entrance of the bay of Old Fort, Zealand, where the city of Taywan, the capital of that island, is seated. Having been informed of the revolt of that Chinese colony, and that an army of twenty thousand men under the santog of Canton, had been dispatched against it, La Perouse resolved to sacrifice a few days to learn the particulars of this event, and came to an anchor to the westward of the bay. He thought it imprudent to send his boat on shore, as suspicions might arise in the state of war in which this Chinese colony was then engaged; he therefore drew alongside some Chinese boats, which were sailing within his reach. As a powerful temptation, he shewed them some piastres, but the inhabitants of these islands were not permitted to have any communication with strangers. Only one man could be prevailed on to come on board; whose fish were instantly purchased at his own price, to induce him to give a favourable account of our navigators, should he venture to acknowledge that he had communicated with them.

No person could guess at the meaning of any of the answers given by these fishermen to the questions which had been proposed to them, which they certainly did not comprehend. The language of these people bears not the least resemblance to that of the Europeans, but a kind of pantomimic jargon, accompanied with inclinations of the head, and other emotions. Convinced of the impossibility of having his curiosity gratified, La Perouse resolved to get under way the following day, with the land breeze. Several fires appearing upon the coast, he supposed they were meant as signals, and that he had created an alarm*.

Thus circumstanced, and convinced that the channel between the islands, and the banks of Formosa, did not exceed four leagues in width, it would have been dangerous, in such dreadful

* The land and sea breezes enabled the navigators, the next day, to get ten leagues to the northward, when they perceived the Chinese army at the mouth of a great river: they came to an anchor abreast of this river, in thirty-seven fathoms. It was impossible to ascertain the number of these vessels; some of them were under sail, others at anchor on the coast, and a great number of them in the river. The admiral, covered with a multiplicity of flags, was the farthest in the offing. He came to an anchor at a league to the eastward of the French frigates: night arriving, he hung out lights on all his masts; those vessels which were obliged to pass by the frigates, in order to join their commander, were cautious of coming within the reach of their guns, not knowing whether they were friends or enemies.

The weather becoming extremely bad, accompanied with a fog, the Chinese admiral ran before the wind into the river, and La Perouse flattered himself that he should be able to double the Pescadores, or Pong-hou Islands, by keeping the ship's head to the north-west; but, to his great astonishment, he perceived, at nine in the morning, several rocks, part of a group of Islands, bearing north-north-west: the breakers which surround them were hardly distinguishable from those occasioned by the sea. He tacked, and stood towards Formosa; and at noon the Astrolabe, which was ahead, made a signal for twelve fathoms: the Boussole sounded, and found forty: hence it appears that, in the distance of a quarter of a league, there was a shoaling of forty fathoms to twelve.

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weather, to ply to windward during the night, and in so rough a sea; La Perouse determined to bear up, that he might run to the eastward of Formosa.

These islands consist of a heap of rocks, assuming a variety of shapes; one of which exactly resembles the tower of Cordouan, at the entrance of Bourdeaux river. Among these islets five islands were enumerated of a moderate height, having the appearance of sandy downs, without any trees upon them. The next day a violent squall of wind was experienced, which only lasted till ten o'clock in the evening, having been preceded by an abundant rain. During the night the sky was continually in a flame; the most vivid lightning darted from every point of the horizon; but only one clap of thunder was heard. The whole of the next day a dead calm occurred, in mid-channel, between the Beshee Islands, and those of Botol Tabacoxima*.

La Perouse made each of them a present of some medals, and a piece of nankin: but it was very apparent that these islanders did not quit the coast with an idea of traffic, for they had nothing to offer in exchange for these presents: they only fastened to a rope a bucket of fresh water, making signs that they still considered themselves indebted to him for the favours they had received, but that they were going ashore to get provision, which they signified by putting their hands into their mouths. Before they approached the frigates, they placed their hands upon their breasts, and elevated their arms towards the sky. These gestures being repeated by the ships' crews, they ventured to come on board, but their countenances indicated a want of confidence in the persons who had invited them: they intimated, however, that if their benefactors would come on shore, they should want for nothing. Their canoes, which were made of hollow trees, were managed very indifferently.

It is probable that vessels might provide themselves in this island with provision, wood, and water; but as it does not exceed three or four leagues in circumference; its population may not perhaps amount to more than four or five hundred. La Perouse preserved the name of *Kumi Island*, which Father Ganbil gives it in his chart; in which he makes it part of a group of seven or eight islands, of which this is the westernmost: and this separated from those supposed to be eastward of it, by channels of eight or ten leagues.

At one in the afternoon he crowded sail to the northward, without waiting for those islanders who had signified they would return with provisions: he continued his course to the northward, and before sun-set lost the sight of Kumi Island. At day-break he made an island in the north north-east, and farther east saw several rocks or islets; he ranged along it at a third of a league distance without finding any bottom, or discovering any trace of a habitation; it was so steep that he supposed it uninhabitable, and its circumference did not seem to exceed two leagues: when he came abreast of it, he perceived another island, which was woody, but nearly of the same size and form, though not quite so high; and between these islands five groups of rocks appeared, which were surrounded by birds innumerable. He continued to this last the appellation it had received of *Hoapinsu Island*, and to that most to the north-east *Tiaoyu-*

* The wind permitting him to come within two miles of this island, La Perouse distinctly saw three villages on the southern coast, and a canoe seemed to direct its course towards him. Approaching Botol Tabacoxima he sounded several times, and, till within half a league from the land, found no bottom: hence it appeared that if there was any anchorage it must have been extremely near the coast. This island, on which no one has yet been known to land, is about four leagues in circumference, and is separated by a channel from a large rock or islet, on which some verdure, and a few shrubs were seen. The island, however, contained many inhabitants; three large villages having presented themselves within the space of a league. A considerable part of it is woody, and the summit seemed to be capped with very large trees. In many places the land was cultivated, and exhibited a most beautiful green; though furrowed by the impetuosity of the torrents which descend from the high mountains.

On the 5th of May, at one in the morning, our navigators made an island: after standing off and on, under an easy sail, at day-break, they ran along the west coast of this island, at the distance of half a league. They sounded several times, but found no bottom: they were convinced the island was inhabited, as they saw fires in several places, and herds of cattle grazing on the sea shore. When they had doubled its west point, which was the most populous and beautiful, several canoes set off from shore to observe them. They seemed, however, much afraid: their curiosity impelled them to advance within musket-shot, but their timidity induced them speedily to depart. But language, gestures, and tokens of peace and amity, accompanied with the display of some stuffs, at length prevailed on two of the canoes to come alongside of them.

…, given by Father Gaubil to the islands to the …ast of the north point of Formosa, and which …ave there been laid down too much to the …outh*.

In the night of the 25th our navigators passed the strait of Corea, sounding very frequently, and as the coast of Corea appeared more eligible to follow than that of Japan, they approached within two leagues of it, and shaped a course parallel to its direction. The channel between the coast of the continent and that of Japan is about fifteen leagues wide: following the continent very near, they saw, on the tops of mountains, some fortifications which had the appearance of European forts: hence it seems to appear that the greatest objects of defence, on the part of the Coreans, are directed against the Japanese. This country is mountainous, and seems very much parched: the snow, in certain channels, was not entirely melted, and the earth had not the appearance of being prolific. Their habitations are numerous; no less than a dozen champans or junks also presented themselves as they sailed along the coast: they hardly differ, in any respect, from those of China; and, like those, their sails were made of mats. The appearance of the ships did not seem to create fear among the natives, but they had not courage enough to speak to our navigators: they continued their course without regarding them, and the sight of the vessels, though very new, did not attract their attention. At eleven, however, two boats set sail to reconnoitre, and came within a league of the frigates; they afterwards followed them for two hours, and then returned into the harbour they had quitted in the morning. It is therefore probable that they had created an alarm on the coast of Corea, as, in the afternoon, fires were seen on all the promontories†.

On the 27th he made the signal to bear up, and steer east, and soon perceived in the north-north-east, an island not laid down upon any chart, at the distance of about twenty leagues from the coast of Corea. He named it *Isle Dagelet*, from the name of the astronomer who first discovered it. The circumference is about three leagues. La Perouse ran along it, and nearly made its circuit at about a third of a league, and found no bottom. M. Boutin was then ordered in a boat to sound as far as the shore, and found bottom in twenty fathoms, but not till near the edge of the surf. This island, though steep, is embellished with fine trees, from the edge to the very summit: a rampart of bare rock, almost perpendicular, encircles the whole of it, seven little sandy creeks excepted, where it is practicable to land. In these creeks some boats of a Chinese construction were seen upon the stocks; but the workmen were intimidated by the sight of the French ships, and fled into a wood. A few huts were

* Father Gaubil, in his chart, gives a third island to …orth-west of Hoapinsu, under the name of *Pongkiachan*. …nd about the same distance from it as *Tiaoyu-su*. Should …his island really exist, it is astonishing, from the course of …a Perouse, that he did not discover it. *Lettres Edifiantes*, …8th collection.

† The navigators were now got out of the archipelago of the islands of Liqueo, and were about to enter a more extensive sea between Japan and China. On the 19th of May they made the signal for getting under way, and shaped their course north-east by east towards the island of Quelpaert. This island, known to Europeans by the wreck of the Dutch ship Sparrow Hawk, in 1635, was then under the dominion of the king of Corea. No island can possibly afford a finer aspect: a peak of about a thousand toises is visible at the distance of twenty leagues, and occupies the middle of it; the land slopes gradually towards the sea, whence the habitations appear as an amphi-theatre; the soil appeared in high cultivation; and, by the aid of glasses, the division of fields was clearly seen, which plainly demonstrated that the population was great: but unfortunately the inhabitants are prohibited from all communication with strangers; and those are detained in slavery who have the misfortune to be shipwrecked on these coasts. Some of the crew of the Sparrow-hawk, after a captivity of eighteen years, and receiving many bastinadoes, contrived to take away a bark, and cross to Japan; afterwards they were conducted to Batavia, and from thence to Amsterdam. Knowing this circumstance, they were not inclined to send a boat on shore: they had seen two canoes put off from it, but they never came within a league of the frigates, their object was probably to watch the proceedings of their new visitors, and give the alarm on the coast of Corea.

† On the 26th, the men who were looking out at the mast-head, called down to inform the crews that they felt burning vapours as if proceeding from the mouth of an oven, which passed like puffs of wind, regularly succeeding each other in about the space of half a minute. All the officers repaired to the mast-head, and experienced the same extraordinary heats. During the night a gale of wind from the north continued for about seven or eight hours, but the sea was very high. The next day La Perouse approached within three leagues of the continent: notwithstanding the violence of the wind, he had gained a little to the northward, and explored the most interesting coast of Corea. He then shaped his course for the south-west point of Niphon Island.

seen, but nothing like a village; and the land was wholly uncultivated. Hence it was conjectured that the Corean carpenters come hither during the summer, for the purpose of building boats, which they dispose of upon the continent; and that conjecture was afterwards ascertained; for the workmen belonging to another dock-yard, who were so situated as not to be able to see the frigates, were surprised by these French visitors, in the very act of fashioning their timber, and constructing their boats; but not approving of the appearance of interlopers, they instantly quitted their labour, and fled into the forests, with the exception of only two or three, who seemed not in the least degree, to be astonished or afraid. La Perouse wished he could have found an anchorage, that he might have an opportunity of convincing these people, by the exercise of friendly and benevolent offices, that he and his suite were not their enemies: the strong currents, however, drove from the land, night approached, and fearing the boat which he had dispatched under M. Boutin, might not be able to rejoin him, La Perouse ordered him by a signal to return on board, at the very moment he was on the point of landing on the beach. He hauled towards the Astrolabe, which was farther west, having been drifted by the currents, and a perfect calm ensued; the height of the mountains of Dagelet Island having occasioned it by intercepting the sea-breeze.

SECTION X.

*Route to the North-West Part of Japan—Cape Noto, and of the Island Jootsi-sima—Particulars of this Island—See several Japanese and Chinese Vessels—Return towards the Coast of Tartary—Remain at Baie de Ternai—Its Productions—Some Account of the Country—Depart from it—Anchor in Baie de Suffren—Proceed to the Northward—Anchor at Baie de Langle—Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants—Continue to proceed to the Northward—Put in at Baie d'Estaing Departure—Banks in the Channel—Arrival at Baie de Castries, on the Coast of Tartary—*MAY, JULY, 1787.

ON the 30th of May, La Perouse shaped his course east towards Japan, and on the 2d of June he saw two Japanese vessels, one of which passed within hail of him. It had a crew of twenty men, all habited in blue cassocks resembling those worn by French priests. This vessel was about a hundred tons burthen, and had a single high mast stepped in the middle. The sail, which was very large, was of linen, the breadths of which were laced lengthwise; and two jibs, with a sprit-sail, composed the remainder of her suit: a small gallery projected from each of the sides of this vessel, and extended along her gun-wale to about two-thirds of her length. The boat placed athwart her bows exceeded the breadth of the vessel by seven or eight feet. These vessels did not appear to be intended to go any considerable distance from the coast, as they could not be safe in a high sea during a squall of wind: the Japanese have probably other vessels to brave the bad weather.

Our navigators passed so near this vessel, that they particularly observed the countenances of individuals, in which they saw no appearance of fear or astonishment. They had a small Japanese white flag, whereon some words were seen, written vertically: the Astrolabe hailed her as she passed; but neither the question nor the answer was comprehended: she continued her course to the southward, to give the earliest intelligence of two foreign vessels having appeared in seas, where no European navigator had ever ventured. At different times of the day seven Chinese vessels, of a smaller construction, were seen, which were better calculated to encounter bad weather.

All these junks ran close to the wind, and were doubtless at no great distance from the land. In the morning, on the following day, two other Japanese vessels were perceived; and on the 6th our navigators made Cape Noto, and the island of Jootsi-sima, separated from it by a channel about five leagues in width. Though distant about six leagues from the land, they could distinguish particular objects on it. Some

islands, rocks, and other impediments, prevented their nearer approach to the coast: at this distance they had soundings at sixty fathoms. At two they saw the island of Jootsi-sima in the north-east. They were soon obliged to haul the wind, in order to weather the breakers, that are extremely dangerous in the fog, which, at this season generally conceals the northern coasts of Japan. This island is about two leagues in circumference, flat, and well wooded. It also appeared to be well inhabited, and some considerable edifices were observed between the houses. Near a sort of castle, at the south-west point, some gibbets made their awful appearance *.

During the seventy-five days, since our navigators sailed from Manilla, they had run along the coasts of Quelpert Island, Corea, and Japan; but as these countries were inhabited by people inhospitable to strangers, they did not attempt to visit them. On the contrary, they well knew that the Tartars were hospitable, and that they had a force sufficiently formidable to over-awe any small tribes that might be met with on the sea-shore. They were extremely impatient to reconnoitre this land, and it was the only part of the globe which had escaped the activity of Captain Cook.

The geographers who had drawn the strait of Tessoy, erroneously determined the limits of Jesso, of the Company's Land, and of Staten Island: it therefore became necessary to terminate the ancient discussions by indisputable facts †. The latitude of Baie de Ternai was the same as that of Port Acqueis, though the description of it is very different ‡.

Fresh provision is truly desireable to every man, and even that which is the least relishing is infinitely more wholesome than salt meat: the prospect of a plentiful fishery induced La Perouse to order the salt provisions to be locked up, and preserved for less fortunate periods: he also directed casks to be prepared and filled with fresh limpid water, of which there was great plenty; he even sent into the meadows to procure pot-herbs, where onions, celery, and sorrel were found in abundance. The plants which France produces, carpeted the whole soil. Roses, lilies, and all European meadow flowers were beheld at every step. Pine trees embellished the tops of the mountains; and oaks, gradually diminishing in strength and size towards the sea, adorned the less elevated parts: birch, willow, and maple trees form agreeable borders to the banks of the rivers, and the rivulets; and on the skirts of forests, there was a profusion of apple, medlar, and hazle-nut trees.

Traces of men were frequently perceived by the havoc they had made, some small baskets, formed of the bark of birch-trees, sewed with thread like those of the Canadian Indians, were also found; and several rackets for walking on the snow. By these, and many other corroborating circumstances, the navigators were clearly of opinion, that the Tartars approach the borders of the sea, when invited thither by the season for fishing and hunting; that they assemble for those purposes along the rivers; and that the

* Some satisfactory observations of latitude and longitude, which will be interesting to geographers, but cannot be entertaining to the general reader, are not here particularized. After some very essential scientific information, La Perouse proceeds to inform his readers, in his narratives, that on the 23d of June, the wind became settled at north-east; he therefore determined to stand in for a bay he had seen to the west-north-west, where it was probable he might find good anchorage: at six in the evening he dropped anchor there, in seventy-four fathoms, half a league from the shore. He named it *Baie de Ternai*. Though it is open to the easterly winds, he supposes they never blow in upon the coast there, and that they follow the direction of the land: the bottom, which is sandy, gradually diminishes to six fathoms within a cable's length of the shore.

† Many of the geographers have pointed out an island to the north of Japan, under the several names of Jeco, Yeco, or Jesso, which they have separated from Tartary, by a strait which they have named Tessoy. This imaginary strait appears on all the old charts; and its pretended existence may have originated from the real strait which divides Segalien Island from the continent, and which William de Lisle also gave the name of Strait of Tessoys on a chart of Asia, published in 1700.

‡ Never did any country exhibit gradations of colour of so varied and strong a green as that which was now beheld; and though neither a single fire nor a canoe could be seen, it could not be imagined that a country so near China, apparently so fertile, should be entirely uninhabited. Before our navigators had landed their boats, their glasses were directed towards the shore, but they saw only bears and stags passing deliberately along the sea-side. The impatience of the crews to land was much increased by this circumstance. Arms were prepared with as much activity as if an enemy had menaced the most alarming hostilities; and while all these preparations were making, the sailors were employed in fishing, and had taken ten or twelve cod-fish with their lines, in a very short space of time.

mass

mass of people reside in the interior of the country, to attend to the multiplication of their flocks and herds*.

M. de Langle, with several other officers, who had a passion for hunting, endeavoured to pursue their sport, but without success: yet they imagined that by silence, perseverance, and posting themselves in ambush in the passes of the stags and bears, they might be able to procure some of them. This plan was determined on for the next day, but, with all their address and management it proved abortive. It was therefore generally acknowledged that fishing presented the greatest prospect of success. Each of the five creeks in the Baie de Ternai, afforded a proper place for hauling the seine, and was rendered more convenient by a rivulet, near which they established their kitchin. They caught plenty of trout, salmon, cod-fish, harp-fish, plaice, and herrings.

In one of these fishing parties they discovered, on the bank of a rivulet, a Tartarian tomb, erected near a small ruinous house, and almost hidden in the grass: curiosity induced them to open it, and they observed two persons in it, placed on the side of each other; a cap of taffeta covered their heads; their bodies were wrapped up in a bear's skin; and they had also a girdle of the same, from which several small coins, and different copper trinkets were pendant. Blue beads were scattered in this tomb, and ten or twelve silver pendants for the ears, were also found: a knife, an iron hatchet, a wooden spoon, a comb, and a small bag of nankeen, full of rice, were afterwards discovered. The construction of this monument was inferior to that of the tombs of *Port des Francais*. Great care was taken to cover these articles up again, after preserving a small part of each to authenticate the discovery†.

The Chinese coins, as well as the other articles, make it manifest that these people have regular commercial dealings with that nation, and it is also probable that they may be subjects of that empire. The rice, in a blue nankeen bag, countenances the Chinese opinion, that there will be a succession of wants in the life to come: the hatchet, knife, comb, &c. have a marked resemblance to those among the American Indians; and if they have never had any communication with each other, it may fairly be suggested, that people in the same degree of civilization, and under the same latitudes, may probably adopt the same customs.

This delightful country, the east part of Tartary, presented to the view nothing interesting to the botanists and mineralogists of the two frigates. The plants were the same as those in France; sea and land-birds are scarce, though some turtle-doves, ravens, quails, swallows, albatrosses, gulls, bitterns, and wild-ducks, made their appearance; but the view was not enlivened by those innumerable flights of birds, which swarm in other uninhabited countries. At the Baie de Ternai those aerial visitors were seldom seen, and in the interior of the woods the most gloomy silence was seldom interrupted by their vocal melody‡.

On

* At half past six three boats, filled with officers from the two frigates, landed at Bear's Creek, and at seven they had fired several musket-shots at different wild beasts, which rapidly fled into the woods. Three young fawns were the only victims of their inexperience: the boisterous joy of those who had just landed accelerated the departure of these intimidated animals. The meadows, though delightful to behold, were almost impassable: thick grass of five or six feet high, impeded the progress of the adventurers, and almost buried them in their luxuriance. They also dreaded the noxious company of serpents, many of them having been seen on the banks of the rivulets, though their venomous quality had not then been experienced. The sandy flats on the shore were the only places that could be walked on with security and ease.

† It seemed clear that the Tartarian hunters made frequent landings on this bay; a canoe, found near the monument, indicated that they came thither by sea, from the mouth of some river not then ascertained.

‡ On the morning of the 27th, after having buried different medals in the earth, with a bottle in which the date of their arrival was registered, the navigators set sail, and ran along the coast fifty leagues, with the finest weather. They continued to run along near the coast, the direction being the north by east. On the 1st of July, a thick fog surrounding them near the land, La Perouse made the signal to anchor, in thirty fathoms: till the 4th it continued so thick that no bearings could be taken, nor could the boats be sent on shore; but upwards of eight hundred cod-fish were caught, and the surplus beyond the immediate consumption was salted and put into barrels. They also procured a great quantity of oysters, the shell of which was so extremely fine that they were supposed to contain pearls, though they had only found two, half formed. Hence some credit is due to the account of the Jesuits, who say there is a pearl fishery at the mouth of several rivers of East Tartary: but this is probably to the southward, at the places adjacent to Corea, for towards the north the country is too destitute of inhabitants to engage in such enterprizes: our navigators having run down

On the 4th, at three in the morning, there was a fine clear sky, and the navigators saw, upon their right beam, at the distance of two miles from them, in the west-north-west, a great island into which a river discharged itself. A boat from each frigate was armed and manned to reconnoitre it; the landing was found easy, and the water shoaled gradually towards the shore. The country resembled that at Baie de Ternai, and though three degrees more to the northward, the productions of the earth differed very little from it.

It was here apparent that the traces of the inhabitants were more discernible than in many other places: branches, separated from trees with a sharp-edged instrument, the leaves of which had not lost their verdure, were frequently seen: two elk-skins, methodically stretched upon pieces of wood, were left at the side of a small cabin, which was not sufficiently capacious to accommodate a family, but might perhaps conveniently shelter two or three hunters: a small number might probably have been at that time in possession of it, who, from the alarm occasioned by the intrusion of unknown visitors, might have fled into the woods. M. de Vaujuas, who had been dispatched in one of the frigates, took away one of the elk-skins, but not without leaving, in exchange for it, some hatchets, and other iron instruments of infinitely more value. That officer's representation, nor that of the naturalists, did not encourage La Perouse to continue any longer in this bay, on which he thought proper to bestow the name of *Baie de Suffren*.

La Perouse got under way from Baie de Suffren, with a light breeze at north-east, hoping to gain a distance from the coast. In the course of his departure the dredge was several times employed, and oysters were taken to which little shell-fish, named Poulattas were attached: also large whelks, sea hedge-hogs, and a great quantity of star-fish. The calm and fog compelled him to anchor in forty-four fathoms, a league farther from the shore: but on the 6th, notwithstanding the fog, he set sail. At eight in the morning of the seventh, he made an island which seemed of great extent: he supposed at first, that this was Segalien Island, the south part of which some geographers had placed two degrees too far to the northward. The aspect of this land was extremely different from that of Tartary: nothing was to be seen but barren rocks, the cavities of which retained the snow; but the distance was too great to admit a satisfactory view of the low lands, which like those of the continent, might probably be cloathed with verdure. To the highest of these mountains La Perouse gave the appellation of *Peak Lamanon*, on account of its volcanic form, the naturalist of that name having particularly applied himself to the study of volcanic productions.

He was obliged, by the southerly winds, to ply to windward with all sails set, to weather the southern extremity of the new land, the end of which he had not perceived. He waited for a clear sky with the greatest impatience, and on the 11th of July at noon he obtained one, though in these foggy seas a horizon of vast extent is very seldom seen: at two in the afternoon, he took bearings of the land from the north by east, to the north by west. Perplexed with the different opinions of his officers, he thought it eligible to endeavour to find a port, and procure satisfactory proofs of the natives of the country. On the 12th he was within a league of the coast of the island, which ran directly north and south. On a nearer approach to it, he found the coast as woody as that of Tartary; and in the evening he neared the land, and dropped anchor in fourteen fathoms, two miles from a small creek, into which a river flowed. M. de Langle, who had come to anchor some time before him, came instantly on board his ship, having already hoisted out his long-boat and small boats. He submitted to La Perouse whether it would not be proper to land before night, in order to reconnoitre the country, and gather some necessary information from the inhabitants. By the assistance of their glasses, they perceived some cabins, and two of the islanders hastening towards the woods.

La Perouse approved of the proposal of M. de Langle, and requested him to receive into his suite M. Boutin and Abbé Mongés. After the frigate was brought up, and the boats hoisted out, he manned his pinnace, commanded by M.

own two hundred leagues of this coast, and always at a short distance from the land, without seeing houses or canoes, and when they went on shore they saw only the tracks of some hunters, who perhaps only visited these places.

de Clonard, and gave him and his associates orders to join M. de Langle, who had already landed on the beach. They found only two small houses on this bay, and they had been recently abandoned, for the fires in them were not extinguished, and none of the furniture had been removed. A litter of puppies, of so tender an age that they had not yet the faculty of seeing, was also left behind; and the mother, which they heard barking in the woods, induced them to suppose that the owners of these cottages could be at no great distance: M. de Langle then deposited hatchets, several other iron tools, glass beads, and many other articles which he supposed might be useful or agreeable to these islanders; imagining that, on his re-embarking, they would return to their humble mansions, and be convinced, by these presents, that their disturbers were not enemies. He then had the seine hauled, and procured at two casts of the net, a greater quantity of salmon than were sufficient for the consumption of the ships' companies for at least a week*.

M. de Langle made them several presents, and manifested by signs, that he was obliged, by the approach of night, to return on board, but that he entertained a hope of seeing them there again, on the following day, and having the pleasure of making them additional presents. They, in their turn, signified that they reposed in the vicinity, and would punctually give them the meeting.

It was generally supposed they were proprietors of a warehouse for fish, that they had been seen on the bank of the small river, erected upon stakes at four or five feet above the level of the ground. M. de Langle, in a respectful visit like that to the abandoned cabins, found in it dried salmon and herrings, salmon skins manufactured like parchment, and some vessels filled with oil. It was almost eleven at night when the boats returned on board; and the report which La Perouse received, greatly excited his curiosity. Before sun-rise he was on shore with the longboat and barge, and the natives soon afterwards made their appearance in the creek. Among these Islanders were the proprietors of the cabins, in whom confidence had been inspired by the bounty of M. de Langle; but not a single woman appeared among them, which seemed to intimate a trait of jealousy: dogs were heard barking in the woods, which induced our navigators to suppose that those animals remained there with the women. Some persons in their suite wanted to penetrate those recesses, but the pressing remonstrances of the natives prevailed on them to relinquish their curiosity†.

They were extremely poor, though a few of them wore pendant ear-rings, decorated with blue glass beads, perfectly similar to those which were found in the tomb at Baie de Ternai, their little copper ornaments also resembled those deposited in the tomb. Their pipes, and their steels for the purpose of striking fire, were evidently of Chinese or Japanese manufacture. Pointing to the west, they informed their visitors, in the same pantomimic mode, that the blue nankeen, the beads, and the steels came from the country of the Mantchou Tartars. They were anxiously desirous of getting possession of the hatchets and stuffs which they had seen, and were not backward in asking for them; but they

* When he was preparing to return on board, he saw seven men land on the shore from a canoe, who did not seem in the least intimidated by the numbers they beheld. They run their boats aground upon the sand, and seated themselves upon mats, among the French sailors, with an air of perfect security, which induced a strong prepossession in their favour. Among these were two aged men, with long white beards, apparelled with a stuff, manufactured of the bark of trees, resembling the cloths of Madagascar: two of these islanders were clad in dresses of blue nankeen quilting, the fashion of which differed but little from that of the Chinese: a long robe was worn by others, closed by a girdle, and some small buttons, rendering it unnecessary for them to be encumbered with drawers. The head was naked, with this exception, two or three of them were seen with a bandeau of bear's skin encircling their heads. The crown of their head, and their faces were shaved; the hair behind was ten or twelve inches in length. They had all boots, which were made of seal-skin, the feet of which were neatly manufactured in the Chinese style. The eldest of these inhabitants, to whom the others paid great deference, had weak eyes, and wore a shade round his head to preserve them from the two refulgent lustre of the sun. Their weapons consisted of pikes, bows and arrows tipped with iron. The manners of these islanders was noble, dignified, and striking.

† M. de Langle, with several of his principal officers, arrived on shore soon after La Perouse: presents of various kinds were liberally bestowed on the inhabitants, before the conversation with them began: they manifested their good sense by their partiality for useful articles; iron and stuffs were held in high estimation among them; they perfectly understood the quality and value of metals, and preferred silver to copper, and copper to iron.

never

never presumed to take any thing that had not been actually presented to them; and from the whole of their conduct it evidently appeared that their ideas of theft was perfectly consonant to those of the most conscientious Europeans. They were so delicate, in this respect, that they could hardly be prevailed on by the most earnest entreaties, to pick up a single salmon from the shore, from among the thousands that were scattered there in the fishery the preceding night.

Our navigators were successful in making them comprehend that they requested a description from them of their country, and that of the Mantchous, one of the old sages rose up, and with great perspicuity, pointed out the most essential and interesting particulars with the end of his staff. His sagacity in guessing the meaning of the questions proposed to him was astonishing; though, in this particular, he was surpassed by another islander of about thirty years of age. The last-mentioned native informed our navigators that they had a commercial intercourse with the people who inhabit the banks of Segalian River, and he distinctly marked, by strokes of a pencil the number of days it required for a canoe to sail up the river to the respective places of their general traffic. La Perouse and M. de Langle thought it of importance to discover, whether the island they had run along was the same as that which geographers have named Segalian Island: the two frigates were therefore ordered to be in readiness for sailing the next day. The bay in which they lay at anchor was named *Baie de Langle*, as captain de Langle was the first who discovered it, and first landed on its shore.

They spent the remainder of the day in visiting the country and its inhabitants, when their curiosity and admiration were particularly excited. They were surprised to find among a people composed of hunters and fishermen, who were strangers to the cultivation of the earth, and without flocks or herds, such gentle manners, and such a superiority of intellect. The attention of the inhabitants of the Baie de Langle was attracted by the arts and manufactures of the French; they judiciously examined them, and debated among themselves the manner of fabricating the several articles. They were not unacquainted with the weaver's shuttle: a loom of their construction was brought to France, whence it appeared that their methods of making linens was similar to that of the Europeans; but the thread of it is formed of the bark of the willow tree. Though they do not cultivate the soil, they convert the spontaneous produce of it to the most useful and necessary purposes. In their cabins were displayed several roots of the yellow lily, or *saranna* of *Kamtschatka*, which they dry and preserve for their winter's provision: these were accompanied by a quantity of garlic and angelica root, with which the skirts of the woods abound.

From the short continuance of our navigators on this spot, they could not learn whether these islanders have a form of government; on that head they could not hazard their conjectures: but they particularly remarked, that the greatest deference and respect was manifested to old men, upon all occasions; their manners are mild, and would have conveyed a striking idea of the manners and customs of the patriarchs, had they been shepherds, and possessed of numerous flocks. They are, in general, of a strong habit and constitution, and a prepossessing countenance: they are rather below the middle size, few of them exceeding five feet five inches in height, and several of them were under five feet. They readily permitted the French painters to draw their pictures, but obstinately refused to suffer any person to take the measure of their bodies, supposing, it is presumed, that was a magical operation, the idea of magic being extensively prevalent in Tartary and China*.

Desirous of knowing whether the agreeable sensation

* The inhabitants of this island seem to form a well-regulated society, but extremely poor. Only two marten's skins could be purchased: a very few skins of bears and seals were displayed; but the peltries of these islands would be inconsiderable. All the silver trinkets which ornamented twenty-one of these natives did not weigh two ounces; a medal, with a silver chain, with which the captain decorated the neck of an old man, was thought inestimable by these people. Each of the inhabitants wears a large ring on his thumb, consisting of horn, lead, or ivory: they suffer their nails to grow, like the Chinese, and like them salute by kneeling and prostrating themselves on the earth; like them too, they sit down on their mats, and eat with little sticks. Some Chinese, on board one of the frigates, did not understand a syllable of the language of the Islanders, though they perfectly comprehended that of two Mantchou Tartars, who a short time before passed from the continent for the supposed purpose of buying fish.

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sensation of smells, like those of taste, depended on custom, La Perouse gave one of the old men a bottle, filled with perfumed water; when, on placing it to his nose, he manifested as much disgust as La Perouse had shewn to his oil. These people were continually smoaking, and their tobacco which was used in great leaves, was of an excellent quality; it was understood to have been procured from Tartary, but it was evident that their pipes was the manufacture of Japan. The commodore could not persuade any of them to take snuff, which was a fortunate circumstance, as it would have been injurious to them to introduce a new want among them.

At day-break, on the 4th of July, La Perouse made the signal for getting under way: early on the 19th, he saw the land of an island from north-east by north, as far as east-south-east; but so thick a fog prevailed that none of the points could be particularly discovered: he stood on to approach it, but almost instantly lost the sight of it; he continued to run along it by the lead till two in the afternoon, when he dropped anchor to the westward of a fine bay, in twenty fathoms, two miles from the shore. At four the fog, in a great degree, dispersed, and the navigators took bearings of the lands astern to them to the north by east. This bay, which La Perouse says is the best in which he had ancnored since his departure from Manilla, he named *Baie d'Estaing*. At four in the afternoon the boats belonging to the frigates landed there, at the foot of ten or twelve cabins irregularly placed, and at a considerable distance from each other. They were constructed like those already described, but rather larger, and divided into two apartments: the inner contained the furniture, &c. of the family; the outer was entirely empty, and seemed appropriated to the purpose of receiving visits, strangers being perhaps excluded from being permitted into the presence of the women *.

M. de Langle, who first landed in the island, found the islanders assembled round three or four canoes, laden with smoked fish: he was there informed that the men who composed the crews of the canoes were Mantchous, and had quitted the banks of the Selagian river to become purchasers of these fish. In the corner of the island, within a kind of circus planted with stakes, each surmounted with the head of a bear, the bones of these animals lay scattered. As these people use no fire arms, but engage the bears in close combat, their arrows being only capable of wounding them, this circus might probably be intended to perpetuate the memory of certain great exploits †.

Having entertained conjectures relative to the proximity of the coast of Tartary, La Perouse at length discovered that his conjectures were well founded; for when the horizon became a little more extensive, he saw it perfectly. In the evening of the 22d he came to an anchor in thirty-seven fathoms, about a league from the land. He was then abreast of a small river, to the northward of which he saw a remarkable peak: its base is on the shore, and its summit on all sides preserves a regular form. La Perouse bestowed on it the title of *Peak la Martinere*. Having seen no hut or habitation along the coast of the island from *Baie d'Estaing*, he was anxious for information on that subject: he therefore armed four boats, belonging to the two frigates,

The cabins of these islands display skill and ingenuity, and every precaution to prevent the admission of cold into them: they are formed of wood, covered with bark: over which other timber-work is erected, covered with dry straw, resembling the thatch of European peasants' houses: the door is low, and the hearth is in the centre, under an aperture in the roof for the smoke to evaporate: little banks, of the height of eight or ten inches, encompass it, and the inside is strewed with mats. The cabin, just described, is situate in the midst of a clump of rose-trees, about thirty yards from the sea-shore: these shrubs, being in full flower, exhaled a most delicious odour, but not sufficient to overpower the stench of the fish and oil, which doubtless have been triumphant over all the perfumes of Arabia.

* Some of the officers belonging to the frigates met with two women, who had fled and concealed themselves in the grass. When the canoes landed in the creek, the women set up the most shocking shrieks, as if they expected to be devoured; though they were under the protection of a native, who safely conducted them to their habitations, and strove to allay their fears. M. Bloudela drew several sketches of these women, which were strong likenesses: upon the whole their countenances are tolerably agreeable: they have small eyes, and large lips; the upper one being painted blue; and a long linen shift enfolded their legs: their figures at full length were not very elegant; their hair was lank, not being curled by art: it was permitted to grow on the upper part of their heads, though such a practice was prohibited among the men.

† The productions of the soil of *Baie d'Estaing* differs little from those of Baie de Langle: salmon was equally abundant there, and every cabin had its storehouse. The frigates' boats departed at eight in the evening, after having liberally gratified the Tartars with valuable presents.

frigates, under the command of M. de Clonard, and sent him to reconnoitre the creek. He returned at eight in the evening, and astonished the commodore with such a quantity of salmon as to fill all the boats; though the crews were wholly unprovided with nets or lines. The officer informed him that he had landed at the mouth of a small narrow rivulet, and not exceeding a foot in depth; that he found so completely filled with salmon that the bed was covered with them, and that the sailors had killed twelve hundred of them in an hour, by beating them with sticks which they had procured. He could only farther relate, that he had seen two or three deserted huts, which he imagined to have been built by the Mantchou Tartars*.

On the 28th, in the evening, our navigators found themselves on the coast of Tartary, at the opening of a bay which presented a safe and convenient anchorage. Being in want of wood, as well as of a speedy supply of water, they put in here, and came to an anchor at the north point of this bay, at five in the evening, in eleven fathoms. M. de Langle reported to La Perouse that there was excellent shelter behind four islands: he had landed at a village of Tartars, where he was kindly received, and where he discovered a watering place, abounding with the most limpid element. These islands, the good anchorage of which was not farther distant than three cables' lengths, were covered with wood. From M. de Langle's report, La Perouse gave orders to prepare for anchoring in the bottom of the bay, and at eight in the morning they brought up in six fathoms. This bay was named *Baie de Castries*.

SECTION XI.

Description of Baie de Castries, and of a Tartarian Village—Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants—They create Confidence—Their extreme Tenderness for their Children—Productions, and Natural History of Baie de Castries—Departure from Baie de Castries—Strait dividing Jesso from Ocu-Jesso—Stay at Baie de Crillon—Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants—Staten Island—Uries Strait—Company's Land—Island of the Four Brothers—Mareckan Island—Kurile Islands, AUGUST, SEPTEMBER, 1787.

BAIE DE CASTRIES is situate at the bottom of a gulph, at the distance of two hundred leagues from the strait of Sangeer, the only certain passage from the Japanese seas. As soon as the frigates were moored, particular duties were assigned to their boats, long-boats, &c. by La Perouse and M. de Langle, to be invariably attended to during their stay. The pinnaces enabled the superior officers to superintend the different labours, and to convey themselves and the naturalists to the Tartarian village, to the different islands, or on any other necessary pursuit.

Of all the bays on the coast of Tartary, which our navigators had visited, that of de Castries was the only one which really merited that denomination: it ensures a shelter to ships in bad weather, insomuch that it would be possible to pass the winter in it. It has a muddy bottom shoaling gradually from twelve to five fathoms in approaching the coast, which is surrounded by a flat, three cables' lengths from the shore. Beds of sea-weeds, or *fuci* abound in this quarter. Salmon were seen leaping, as they came out of a rivulet, the water of which loses itself among these weeds: two thousand of these fish were taken in a day. The inhabitants saw the success of the fishery without emotion or concern,

* Celery and cresses grew in abundance on the banks of this river: juniper-berries were also extremely plentiful: the botanists collected several scarce plants. Fir trees and willows were more numerous than the oak, the maple, or the birch: strawberries, raspberries, and gooseberries, were in full flower, and promised a delicious harvest. While the crews of the boats visited the shore, those on board caught a considerable number of cod-fish: so that this anchorage, in the course of a very few hours, supplied the whole ships' companies with fresh provision for a week. La Perouse named this river *Ruissaue du Saumon*, and at day-break got under sail. He ran along at a small distance from this island, and saw a few habitations here and there upon the shore. Not thinking it necessary to reconnoitre this bay more particularly, he only sailed across it, and named it *Baie de la Jonquiere*.

being well assured that the quantity of them was inexhaustible. The day after their arrival in the bay, they landed at the village, where M. de Langle, who had been there first, had procured them friends by his generosity.

A tribe of better men cannot be found in the universe than what this country can produce. The chief, or oldest man among them, advanced to receive the navigators on the beach, accompanied by several of the inhabitants. He prostrated himself to the earth, the usual Chinese salutation, and afterwards conducted the visitors to his cabin, where his wife, children, and grandchildren were attending. Ordering a mat to be spread, he invited them to sit down on it, and a small grain, with which they were wholly unacquainted, was put with some salmon into a copper on the fire, in order to be presented to them. This grain is considered among them as the most delicious food, and they intimated that it came from the Mantchou country. They informed their new visitors, by signs, that they were themselves of the nation of the Orotchys; and shewing the four strange canoes, which had that day arrived in the bay, they called the crews of them *Bitchys;* they signified that these last reside farther to the south; for these nations, like the Canadians, change their name and language at every village. These strangers had kindled a fire at the edge of the sea near the village of the Orotchys, where they cooked their fish. They were come from the river Segalian, and brought back grain and nankeens, which they had probably received in exchange for dried fish. Except elks and bears, which are not numerous in this country, squirrels and dogs were the only quadrupeds that were seen by our Europeans*.

Every cabin was encircled with a place for drying salmon, which are exposed upon poles to the heat of the sun, after having been several days smoked round the fire in the cabin. The women superintend this operation, and when the fish appear to have been sufficiently penetrated with the smoke, they take them into the open air to acquire solidity. In carrying on their fishery, however, their conduct was highly offensive to beholders of the least delicacy. With disgusting avidity they devoured the snout, the gills, and the small bones of the salmon. But they dexterously strip off the skin and eat it as delicious food, greedily sucking up the mucilage of particular parts, as Europeans swallow a savoury oyster.

In this bay the French navigators first discovered the use of the circle of lead or bone, which these people, and the inhabitants of Segalian Island, wear on the thumb like a ring: it greatly assists them in cutting and stripping the salmon with a knife, which is always hanging to their girdle. Their village was built upon low marshy land, which must doubtless be uninhabitable during the winter; but on the opposite side of the gulph, another village appeared on a more elevated situation. It was seated at the entrance of a wood, and contained eight cabins, larger and better constructed than the first. Not far from these cabins, they visited three yourts, or subterranean houses, exactly resembling those of the Kamtschadales, described in the third volume of Captain Cook's last voyage; they were sufficiently capacious to accommodate the inhabitants of the whole eight cabins during the severity of the inclement season. On the borders of this village several tombs presented themselves, which were larger and more ingeniously fabricated than the houses: each of them contained three, four, or five biers, decorated with Chinese stuffs, some pieces of which were brocade. Bows, arrows, and the other most esteemed articles of these people, were suspended in the interior of these monuments, the wooden door of which was closed by a bar, supported at each end by a prop†.

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* The village of the Orotchy's consisted of four cabins, substantially built with the trunks of fir-trees neatly carved at the angles; a frame, formed of the bark of trees, supported the roof: a wooden bench encompassed the apartment, similar to those of the cabins of Segalian Island: and the hearth, and aperture for expelling smoke were nearly on the same plan. Our navigators supposed, from variety of corroborating circumstances, that these four houses were occupied by four different families, who live together in the most perfect harmony and friendship. One of these families, during the temporary abode of the French visitors in that quarter, were so fully convinced of the fidelity and integrity of these people, that they left their sacks, full of iron tools, beads, and stuffs, and every other article of barter, in the middle of their cabins, without lock or key, or any other seal of security than their own probity; and in no instance was their extreme confidence abused; and, on their departure from the bay, they were firmly of opinion, that they did not suppose such a crime existed as that of theft.

† The houses of these people, like their tombs, were filled with effects; nothing was taken away: their arrows, pikes,

It might have been conjectured by the number of tombs which were found in all the islands, rocks, &c. that some recent epidemical disorder had made great ravages in this country; but it seems very apparent that the different families, of which this nation is composed, were dispersed in the neighbouring bays, where they were occupied in catching and drying their salmon, and that they assembled only in the winter, carrying with them their harvest of fish to subsist on till the sun resumes his salutary influence. Some persons, indeed, have supposed, that the religious respect entertained of the memory of their worthy ancestors by these people, induces them to support and repair their tombs, to perpetuate the good fame of the deceased, and the gratitude of the descendant.

No external difference was observable among the living inhabitants, but the ashes of the dead repose in a style of greater or less magnificence, according to their imaginary wealth. The bodies of the indigent are exposed in the open air, on a bier supported by stakes of about four feet in height; but these humble monuments, though they display no escutcheons, are adorned with the bows, arrows, and nets of the deceased, together with some pieces of stuff, which it would perhaps be sacrilegious to take away *.

The women are wrapped in a large robe of nankeen, or salmon's skin, curiously tanned, descending as low as the ancle-bone, sometimes embellished with a border of fringe manufactured of copper, and producing sounds like those of little bells. Those salmon which furnish a covering for the fair, weigh thirty or forty pounds, and are never caught in summer; those which were taken by the French visitors did not exceed three or four pounds in weight; but that disadvantage was fully compensated by the extraordinary number, and the extreme delicacy of their flavour.

Nothing can, with certainty, be said of the religion of these people; no temples or priests having been seen among them: some rudely carved figures were, however, suspended from the ceiling of their cabins, representing children, &c. These images might possibly be taken for idols by some; but is it probable they were meant only to call to remembrance a child devoured by bears, or some hunter wounded or injured by any of those animals. It is not in the least improbable that persons of so weak a frame should be superstitious.

They perhaps supposed our navigators to be sorcerers, for they answered their questions with visible uneasiness, though with great politeness: the motions of the hand in writing they construed into signs of magic, and intimated that

kes, skins, &c. remained in the deserted village, in which ey never reside but in the winter; they pass the summer the other side of the gulph, where they now lived; and om which they saw the French visitors enter their cabins d their tombs, without manifesting any apprehensions seeing their property taken away. The boats' companies, well as the officers, were so impressed with this striking ark of confidence, that not one of them ventured to disace himself by basely condescending to commit the most significant theft.

* These people, like those of Segalian Island, seem to ve no chief; nor are they subject to any regular form of overnment. Their mildness and suavity might remove all e inconveniences of anarchy; no instances were known their engaging in the slightest quarrel; their reciprocal fection, and their endearing tenderness for their children, ould afford exemplary lessons to the European natives. ut with all these interesting truths, candour must certainly mit, that the senses were disgusted with the fetid smell of eir salmon, with which the houses and adjacent premises ere infected: the bones and blood were scattered and read about the hearth, and hungry dogs devoured the reainder. The nastiness and stench of these people are beond conception; and, with respect to their forms, no race human beings can be more feebly constituted, or possess atures less entitled to the appellation of beautiful. Their ommon stature is about four feet ten inches; they have high cheek bones, a flat nose, small blear eyes, placed diagonally, a large mouth, a short chin almost beardless, and an olive-coloured complection, varnished with oil and smoke. Their bodies are lank, and their voices thin and weak. They permit their hair to grow, and tie it up in the Parisian style: that of the women flows loosely over the shoulders. The figure and features of the men so nearly resemble those of the women, that the portrait above drawn would answer for either sex, were it not for a slight difference in dress.

The women are solely occupied in cutting and preparing their apparel, in exhibiting their fish to be dried, and in the management of their children, who have free access to the breast till they are three or four years of age. Great deference is paid to the tender sex by their obedient consorts; they never conclude any bargain of importance, without consulting their wives; the pendent earrings, and other ornamental trinkets, are exclusively appropriated to their wives and daughters. The men, and little boys have a waistcoat of nankeen, or the skin of a dog or fish, formed like a waggoner's frock. All of them wear seal-skin boots in the winter; and men of all ages, and at all times, wear a leather girdle, with the following appendages:—a bag to contain tobacco, a knife in a sheath, a steel for the purpose of striking a light, and a pipe to smoke with.

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such a practice was evil. They were so incapable of vanquishing their prejudices, that even the most valuable presents, on such occasions, were bestowed on them in vain. Supposing that greater delicacy might be required in the manner of conferring favours on them, La Perouse sat down in one of their houses, and calling two little children to him of three or four years old, tenderly carressed them, and gave them, from his pocket, a piece of rose-coloured nankeen. The highest satisfaction in the countenances of the whole family was immediately evinced; but he was clearly of opinion, that had it been offered directly to themselves, they would have refused this present.

The husband quitted the cabin, and almost instantly returned with a most beautiful dog, entreating La Perouse to accept of it. He politely declined the intended favour, alledging that it would be more useful to its present master. Finding his urgent solicitations ineffectual, he caused the two children who had received the present to approach, and placing their little hands on the dog's back, signifying that he ought not to refuse his children*.

To obtain a satisfactory account of the geography and other essential particulars of these regions, La Perouse had intended to remain in the bay till the 2d of August, at which time he would certainly depart. Till then he was employed in reconnoitering some part of the bay, and the different islands of which it is formed. The naturalists made several excursions in search of objects peculiar to their department. M. de Lamanon, though in a debilitated state of health, requested he might attend on these excursions. M. de Martiniere visited the courses of rivers, to search for unexplored plants on their banks; but he found only the same species he had seen in the bays *de Ternai* and *de Suffren*. The conchologists were more fortunate: they found very fine foliated oysters, of a black and vinous colour, but adhering so close to the rock that great dexterity was required to remove them: the scales of their covering were so thin, that they could with difficulty be preserved entire. Some whelks of a beautiful colour were taken, with various kinds of the kima cockle, and small common muscles.

The hunters killed some wild-ducks, water hens, black and white wagtails, cormorants, guillenots, and a small fly-catcher of an azure blue; but all these species were extremely scarce. The nature of all living creatures in these frozen climates appears to be in a state of torpidity: a gloomy solitude prevails over the whole sea-shore; and the woods, enlivened only by the croaking of ravens, serve as a retreat for eagles, and other birds of prey. Cormorants and gulls pass a solitary life on the tops of rocks and precipices. The martin, and the sand martin seem, exclusively of all other birds, to be in their proper country; nests and flights of them are to be seen on all the rocks on the sea-shore†.

On the 2d of August, as La Perouse proposed, he sailed with a light breeze; and on the 9th, after experiencing variety of weather, our navigators attained the latitude of Baie de Langle, which they had left on the 14th of July. A bank, on which the soundings are regular, and no danger is to be apprehended, extends ten leagues from north to south, opposite Baie de Langle, and runs out about eight leagues to the west. After reconnoitering it minutely, La Perouse continued to run along the coast the next day, at two leagues distance, and perceived in the south-west a small flat island, which, with that of Segalian, formed a channel of about six leagues. He called it *Isle Monneron*, an officer employed in this expedition being so named. Directing his course between these two islands, he never found less than fifty fathoms water. Soon afterwards he made a peak of about ten or twelve hundred toises in height, consisting of a bare rock, with snow in its cavities; but neither verdure nor trees were perceived on it. He named it *Peak de Langle*. Segalian Island terminating in a point, a distant horizon of mountains was no longer seen: many circumstances announced that he was approaching its southern extremity, and that the peak was upon another island. On this supposition, which was realized

* Dogs are of great importance in this country; they yoke them to light sledges, like those of the Kamtschadales.

† Though the natives cultivate no plants, they are fond of vegetable substances: the grain of the Mantchous, which is similar to small shelled millet, is one of their greatest dainties. They collect the different wild roots, which they dry and preserve for their winter provision. They have not, like the inhabitants of Segalian Island, the use of the shuttle, but are clothed in Chinese stuffs of the inferior kind, and the spoils of the land animals, or seals.

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e next day, the anchor was let go in the even-g, as the calm rendered it necessary to anchor the south point of Segalian Island.

This point, which was named Cape Crillon by Perouse, is situate in 45° 57′ north latitude, d 140° 34′ east longitude: it terminates this land, which, from north to south is of im-ense extent, separated from Tartary by a chan-l terminated by sand-banks to the northward, tween which no passage for ships is to be und. This same island is Oku-Jesso. Chica land, abreast of our navigators divided by a annel from that of Segalian, and from Japan the strait of Sangaar, is the Jesso of the Ja-anese, extending to the south as far as the strait Sangaar. The chain of the Kuerile moun-ins is more to the eastward, and with Jesso and ku Jesso, forms a sea which communicates ith that of Ochotsk*.

The persons of the islanders which were seen Crillon Bay were well sized, strong, and vi-orous; their features were expressive, and their ards descended to their breasts: their arms, cks, and backs, were also covered with a pro-sion of hair. Their middle stature is sup-osed to be about an inch lower than that of e French. Their skin is tawny, like that of e Algerines, and other nations on the coast Barbary†.

But if these islanders are deficient in point of orality, they are abundantly supplied with dily strength and industry: all their dresses e woven with their own hands; their houses rpass, in elegance and neatness, many on the ntinent; their furniture is composed of the st materials, and manufactured by ingenious tisans, many articles of which are furnished by e Japanese. They have also an important ticle of commerce, unknown to the narrow of Tartary, from the exchange of which arises all their wealth. Of the whale oil they make a most plentiful harvest, though their manner of extracting it may not be consistent with economy: they cut the flesh of the whale into little pieces, and expose it to the air and sun, to rot upon a kind of slope; and the oil which flows from it is received into vessels made of bark.

These islanders who came on board, retired before night, after answering, as well as they could, such questions respecting the geography of the country and its environs. On their departure they promised, by signs, to return the next day: that promise was punctually performed, for at the dawn of day they appeared on board, with a quantity of salmon, which they exchanged for hatchets and knives: they also sold a sable on board, and a linen habit of the construction of the country; and beheld with regret that the frigates were preparing to sail. They earnestly solicited the ships' company to double Cape Crillon, and to stay in a small bay, which they called *Tabouoro*.

A light breeze having sprung up from the north-east, La Perouse made a signal for getting under way, and at first directed his course to the south-east, which is terminated by a rock, towards which the tide strongly sets in. Having doubled it, a second rock was discovered from the mast-head, about four leagues from the point towards the south-east. He named this *La Dangereuse*, from its being level with the surface of the water, and might probably be covered at the height of the tide. The sea broke very much upon it, but whether from the effect of the tide, or the sand-banks which surround it is uncertain. The next day he saw Cape Aniva bearing north-west, and perceived the eastern coast, receding to the northward towards Cape Patience. The weather continued

* At Cape Crillon the navigators received the visits of eral islanders on board: they at first manifested some mptoms of fear and distrust, but those apprehensions edily vanished: they seated themselves familiarly in a cle on the quarter-deck, and cheerfully smoked their pes. Presents of nankeen, tobacco, silks, iron instru-nts, and beads, were liberally conferred upon them; but presently appeared that tobacco and brandy were held in her estimation than any other articles, and these had en but sparingly distributed among them; because the bacco was required for the ships' companies, and dis-reeable consequences might arise from the incautious use brandy.

† Grave in their manners, they expressed their thanks by noble and solemn gestures; but their importunities for additional presents were most pressingly enforced; though they had not the gratitude to offer, in return, any of the salmon with which their canoes were laden: many of which they carried with them on shore, because they could not obtain the extravagant prices for them that they demanded. They had, however, received, without any consideration, plenty of instruments, beads, linens, stuffs, &c. With respect to gratitude, how much did these islanders differ from the Orotchys of Baie de Castries, who, instead of imploring presents, frequently and obstinately refused them, unless the giver would accept of a requital from them.

very fine; but the south-south-east winds, which blew continually for four days, retarded his progress to the Staten and the Company's Islands. No land was now to be seen, nor was any bottom to be found with a line of two hundred fathoms.

On the 17th he approached Staten Island, of which he had a perfect view. On the 19th Cape Troun was perceived to the southward, and Cape Uries to the south-east by east; its proper direction, according to the Dutch chart: their situation could not possibly have been determined with more precision by modern navigators. On the 20th he saw the Company's Island, and reconnoitered the strait of Uries, though it was very foggy: he ran along the south coast of the Company's Island, at the distance of three or four leagues: it appeared to be barren, without trees or verdure, and even without inhabitants. At six in the evening, he was abreast of the north-east point of this island, terminated by a steep cape, which he denominated *Cape Kastricum*, from the name of the vessel to which we owe the discovery. Beyond it were seen four small islands, and to the northward a large channel, open to the east north-east, which formed the separation of the Kuriles from the Company's Island.

On the 29th, after a series of foggy weather, our navigators reconnoitered Marreckan Island, considered by some as the first of the southern Kuriles: its extent is about ten leagues, from north-east to south-west, and each extremity is terminated by an eminence; a peak or volcano rising in the middle. They saw two other islands to the north-east, which seemed to have a channel between them and the first. At day-light they perceived at about two leagues distance, the south-west point of Marreckan, which they called *Cape Rollin*, the name of the surgeon. Being driven by the current towards the middle of the channel, where we were not able to strike the ground, they advanced about five leagues to the westward. The night was extremely fine, the winds settled at east north-east, and they entered the channel by the light of the moon: La Perouse honoured it with the name of *Canal de la Boussole*; it being the finest between the Kuriles*.

On the 5th of September, though the fog continued obstinate, the navigators crowded sail in the midst of darkness, and at six in the evening of the same day, it cleared up, and enabled them to see the coast of Kamtschatka; the whole of which appeared hideous: the eye surveyed with terror enormous masses of rocks, which in the beginning of September were enveloped in snow. The next day they approached the land, and found it agreeable to behold when near; and the base of these enormous summits, crowned with eternal ice, was carpeted with the most beautiful verdure, finely diversified with trees.

In the evening of the 6th, they made the entrance of Avatcha Bay, or Saint Peter and Saint Paul. The light-house, erected by the Russians on the east point of the entrance, was not kindled during the night; as an excuse for which the governor declared, the next day, that all their efforts to keep it burning had been ineffectual; the wind had constantly extinguished the flame, which was only sheltered by four planks of wood very indifferently cemented; and was not modelled after any of the light-houses of Italy, Egypt, or ancient Greece.

At two in the afternoon of the 7th, they entered the bay; when the governor came in his canoe five leagues to meet them; though the care of the light-house had occupied his attention during the night, he took the blame on himself of not having succeeded in his endeavours to render it perfect. He informed them that they had been long expected there, and that he believed the governor-general of the Peninsula, who was expected at Saint Peter and Saint Paul in a few days, had letters for them.

* The navigators intended to approach the islands situate to the north, but impenetrable fogs opposed the design: for the space of ten days, only twenty-four hours of clear weather had been experienced. A fog returning with obstinacy, and the season rapidly advancing, La Perouse resolved to abandon the exploring of the northern Kuriles, and to shape his course for Kamtschatka. He had determined the most southerly of them: he therefore thought it would have been imprudent to sacrifice to an unimportant enquiry the health of the ships' companies, which began to require rest. He therefore stood north north-east, and gave up his project of coming to an anchor at one of the Kuriles, to observe the nature of the land, and the manners and customs of the inhabitants.

He further observes that the aspect of the southern islands, close to which he ran along, is extremely dreary; and he expresses his opinion that the Company's Island, those of the Four Brothers, Marreckan Island, &c. are uninhabitable rocks, without verdure and vegetable earth, and can only serve as a miserable refuge to persons shipwrecked.

SECTION XIII.

...ay of Avatska—Obliging Reception there—Arrival of Mr. Hasloff—Great Attention of the Governor—A Ball of the Kamtschadales—A Courier brings Letters from France—Departure.— SEPTEMBER, 1787.

THE French navigators were hardly moored before the harbour of Saint Peter and Saint ...aul, when they received a visit from the Toyon, ... chief of the village, with several other in...bitants; all of whom made them presents of ...mon or skate: they also made them a tender ... their services in hunting bears, or in shooting ...cks which abounded in their ponds and rivers. ...eir offers were gladly accepted, and wild fowl ...s never wanting during their continuance in ...e Bay of Avatscka. They required no re...ard for their labours, but the grateful French...en insisted upon being permitted to make them ... proper compensation.

The government of Kamtschatka had been ...aterially changed since the departure of the ...nglish, and was now only a dependency of that ... Okhotsk. These particulars were commu...cated to our navigators by lieutenant Kaborof, ...overnor of the harbour of Saint Peter and Saint ...aul, having a serjeant and forty soldiers under ...s command. He told them that Mr. Kasloff ...ugreuin, the governor of Okhotsk, was ex...ected at Saint Peter and Saint Paul in a few ...ays. M. de Lessops, who acted as interpreter, ...d who perfectly understood the Russian lan...uage, wrote a letter, in La Perouse's name, to ...e governor of Okhotsk, to whom La Perouse ...so wrote in French himself. He told him that ...e narrative of Cook's last voyage had spread ...broad the fame of the hospitality of the Kamt...hadale government; and he flattered himself ...at he should be as favourably received as the ...nglish navigators; as his voyage, like theirs, ...as intended for the general benefit of all mari...me nations.

As Mr. Kasloff's answer could not possibly ar...rive for some days, the lieutenant informed La Perouse, that he only anticipated his orders, and those of the empress of Russia, by requesting that he would, in the mean time, consider himself at home, and indulge freely in every thing the country would afford. The serjeant, and all the soldiers manifested the strongest inclinations of rendering every service in their power; and Mrs. Kaboroff, on her part, was infinitely obliging. Every one was anxious of conferring favours upon these French visitors; and, spite of their determination not to receive any, it was impossible to be inattentive to the solicitations of the lieutenant's lady, who prevailed on La Perouse, M. de Langle, and their officers to accept a few skins of sables, rein-deer, and foxes, which were certainly more useful to them, than to persons who were destined to return towards the tropics. The visitors, however, were permitted to discharge the obligation, by presenting them with such articles as were not to be found in Kamtschatka.

A commodious house in the village was kindly offered them for the purpose of accommodating the astronomers, who had hardly erected their observatory, when the naturalists, equally zealous with themselves in the pursuit of science, resolved to visit the volcano at the distance of about eight leagues. A mountain, almost covered with snow, presented a crater at the summit; the mouth of which turned towards the bay of Avatscka, emitting constantly thick clouds of smoke; and once, during the night, faint blue and yellow flames were perceived, which rose to a considerable height*.

Their guides had only undertaken to conduct them to the bottom of the peak, an antient pre...

* M. Kaboroff's zeal was much excited in favour of the ...turalists: eight Cossacks were immediately ordered to ...company M. Bernizet, and two other gentlemen, to assist ...n laborious undertaking for the advancement of Science. ...one of the learned, who had travelled in Kamtschatka, ...d ever ventured upon so difficult an enterprize. From ... aspect of the mountain, La Perouse supposed it ... be inaccessible. No verdure was perceptible—it was ...ly a bare rock, of which the declivity was wonderfully steep. The intrepid adventurers, however, entertained hopes of surmounting these obstacles. The Cossacks were the bearers of their baggage, which consisted of a tent, several skins, and a quantity of provision: the naturalists undertook to carry the barometers, the thermometers, and the other articles required for making accurate observation, not choosing to risk such fragile instruments in other hands.

judice

judice having induced both Kamtschadales and Russians to believe, that the mountain emits a vapour which would instantly suffocate the rash adventurer who would dare to ascend it. They perhaps supposed that the natural philosophers, like themselves, would stop at the foot of the volcano. Full of this idea they set off in high spirits, without halting till they came to the middle of the woods, at the distance of six leagues from Saint Peter and Saint Paul. The ground they had passed over presented no serious obstacles to oppose them, though covered with shrubs and trees: the pines were stunted and appeared like dwarfs. Berries of every kind, and of every colour, continually presented themselves; the taste of which was generally acid, though highly palatable with sugar.

At sun-set the tent was pitched, the fire kindled, and every thing prepared for the accommodation of the enterprising party; but the greatest care imaginable was taken to prevent the fire from extending to the trees of the forest, as such an accident would inevitably have put the sables to flight, and no more of them would be found during the winter, which is the hunting season. The skin of these animals, which may be deemed the only riches of the country, is given in exchange for all the commodities the inhabitants require, and serves to pay the annual tribute to the crown; great must therefore be the enormity of the crime that deprives the Kamtschadales of advantages so important. Influenced by this consideration, the Cossacks carefully cut down the grass round the fire-place, and, before their departure, dug a hole to receive the ashes, which they extinguished with moistened earth. During the progress of this day, they saw no other quadruped than a hare, which was almost white: not a single bear, reindeer, or argali*, having made its appearance, though these animals are common in that country.

Rising at the dawn of the next day, they proceeded on their journey: a great quantity of snow had fallen during the night, and what was more distressing, a thick fog obscured the volcanic mountain, the foot of which was not reached by the philosophers till three in the afternoon. Their guides, adhering to their stipulation, stopped on their arrival at the limits of the vegetative earth, pitched their tents, and lighted a fire. A night's rest was found a necessary preparative to the fatigues of the ensuing day†.

While this experiment was making, the navigators caused their casks to be filled with water, and their hold with wood: they also cut a quantity of grass, and dried it for the consumption of the cattle they expected, for they had now only one sheep left alive. The finest grass grows in natural meadows at Kamtschatka to the height of about four feet, and an immense quantity of hay might be provided for the winter, which in this climate continues upwards of seven months: but the Kamtschadales prefer their present mode of living upon the produce of their hunting and fishing. The Cossacks, and the Russians, who are more expert soldiers than farmers, have adopted the same method.

The lieutenant and the serjeant were the only persons who had inclosed little gardens for the cultivation of turnips and potatoes; their example had no influence over their neighbours, who did not dislike those edible roots, but they were not inclined to be at any trouble to produce them: had they grown spontaneous, like *suranne*, garlick, and the berries from which their

* The *mountain sheep*, or *capra ammon* of the Linnæan system. It is supposed to exist in no other parts of Europe than Corsica and Sardinia, and to be the same of which a living specimen existed a few years ago in the prince of Conde's collection at Chantille. It was there called *mouffoli*, and was considered by M. Buffon as the parent stock whence all the varieties of domestic sheep are sprung.

† At six in the morning the natural philosophers began to ascend the steep, and continued their progress till three in the afternoon, when they approached the very edge of the crater. They had often been under the necessity of crawling upon their hands and knees, to facilitate their passage among the broken rocks, and to avoid some dangerous precipices. The mountain is principally composed of lava, more or less porous. Gypseous stones, and crystallized sulphur were found at the summit; but the latter was inferior to that of the Peak of Teneriffe. All the other stones they found here, were less beautiful than those of that ancient volcano, which has not erupted for a century past; though the Kamtschadalian mountain had an eruption in 1778, while Captain Clarke was in the bay of Avatscka. According to the calculations of the natural philosophers, the travellers ascended about fifteen hundred toises, an amazing height considering the difficulties they had to surmount. Their views having been frustrated by a fog, they resolved to go over the same ground again the succeeding day; but a prodigious fall of snow, and other adverse circumstances intervening, induced them to abandon all idea of engaging in a repetition of the ascent, and they returned to the village of Saint Peter and Saint Paul.

most

most agreeable beverage was procured, they would gladly have indulged in them.

In the midst of their labours, our navigators devoted intervals to pleasure, and engaged in several hunting parties on the rivers Avatscka and Paratounka, expecting to be able to shoot a few rein-deer, bears, or other quadrupede inhabitants of that climate. They were obliged, however, to content themselves with a few ducks or teal, an inferior sort of game, which were considered as a poor compensation for their laborious excursions. But if their own endeavours were not so successful as their sanguine expectations had predicted, their friends among the Kamtschadales made ample amends for the disappointment. During their stay they had received from the inhabitants of the village, an elk, four bears, and a rein-deer, with such a quantity of divers, and other wild fowl, that they found it necessary to distribute a considerable part of them among their crews. This was rendered the more necessary as they had been cloyed by a super-abundance of fish: a single cast of the net, alongside of the frigates, would have procured sufficient sustenance for half a dozen ships; but there was little variety of species, cod, salmon, herrings, and plaice, were almost the only produce of the net.

Mr. Kasloff, on his arrival at Saint Peter and Saint Paul, after having taken a tour through his provinces, politely informed the navigators, that he had perceived by the public papers, that several able naturalists had embarked on board their frigates; and that he should be happy to avail himself of so fortunate a circumstance, that he might learn the nature of the minerals of the peninsula, and thus become a naturalist himself. As he spoke French, and was well informed of the object of their research, it may easily be conceived that an intimacy must have been immediately formed.

The day after his arrival he went to dine with La Perouse on board the Boussole, in company with Mr Schenaleff, and the vicar of Paratounka. By La Perouse's order, he was saluted with thirteen guns. Mr. Kasloff, after reciprocal compliments, expressed the utmost concern at his inability to procure more than seven oxen before the time of his departure; as there was no resource but that of waiting for their being brought from the river of Kamtschatka, a hundred leagues distant from Saint Peter and Saint Paul*.

The ball commenced with Russian dances, the tunes of which were pleasing. The Kamtschadale dances, which followed, resembled those of the *Convulsionaires* at the well-known tomb of Saint Medard†. The Kamtschadale females, by their convulsions and contracted motions, create disagreeable sensations in the spectators, which are aggravated by a pitiful cry unnaturally drawn from the pit of their stomachs, and which is the only music to regulate the steps of these wonderful performers. The violent fatigue of this exercise excites such profuse perspiration, that many of the party sink motionless on the ground, losing for a time the power of rising. The exhalations from their bodies perfumed the apartment with the delicious odour of oil and fish, to which European noses are too little accustomed to form a judgment of its fragrance.

The dances of these nations having ever been imitative and pantomimical, La Perouse requested to know what two of the most active of the women meant to express, in their most violent exertions. He was respectfully informed, that they had given the representation of a bear-hunt: the women who rolled on the ground had performed the part of the animal; and the other was the accomplished hunter. But never were bears more awkwardly represented!

This dance, equally fatiguing to the beholders and the performers, was hardly finished, when a

* On the following day the governor, with all his suite, dined on board the Astrolabe, where he also was honoured with the discharge of thirteen guns; but he earnestly requested that he might receive no more compliments of that kind, and that they might see each other on friendly and familiar terms. It was impossible to prevail on him to accept of the value of the oxen, though repeatedly urged in the most pressing terms that could be devised: he only lamented that he could not furnish his friends with a greater number. He invited them to partake of a ball, to be given on the succeeding day on their account, to all the women of St. Peter and St. Paul; informing them that, if the assembly was not numerous, it would at least be curious: thirteen women, clad in silk, ten of whom were Kamtschadales, were sitting round the room on benches: the latter were rendered remarkable by their broad faces, little eyes and flat noses; the other three were Russians. All the ladies had silk handkerchiefs tied about their heads, seemingly in imitation of the Mulatto women in the French West-India Islands.

† The tomb of a pious Abbé at Paris, where *lameness* is cured by throwing the patient into *convulsions*.

joyful exclamation announced the arrival of a courier from Okhotsk. He was the bearer of a large trunk filled with packets for the French voyagers. The ball was interrupted, and each of the females dismissed with a goblet of brandy, a refreshment well calculated for such votaries of Terpsichore. Mr. Kasloff, perceiving the impatience of the French navigators to learn the news of what could not fail of being highly interesting to them, entreated them not to defer that pleasure, and conducted them into his own apartment, that the different effusions produced by the relation of different events, might not be improperly restrained*.

La Perouse expressed his surprise at finding the aged Ivaschtkin in Kamtschatka, the English accounts having stated that he had obtained permission to go and reside at Okhotsh. He could not avoid feeling much concern for the fate of this unfortunate man, when he was informed, that some indiscreet expressions respecting the empress Elizabeth, was his only crime; and those were uttered at the breaking up of a convivial party, when his reason was disordered by wine. He was then under twenty, and an officer in the guards. He belonged to a Russian family of distinction, and could boast of a handsome face and figure. He was banished to the interior of Kamtschatka, after having received the punishment of the knout, and endured the slitting of the nostrils. The empress Catherine granted this unfortunate man a pardon many years ago; but the bitter recollection of his ignominious punishment, and his resentment of so flagrant a sentence for so trivial an offence, rendered him insensible to a tardy act of justice, and he seemed determined to end his days in Siberia. He pointed out the grave of M. de la Croyere, of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, who died here in 1741, deservedly regretted by his country. An inscription, engraved on copper, does honour to his memory†.

Though M. Kasloff was no stranger to the sciences of chemistry and mineralogy, he evaded a discussion on those subjects with M. Blondela, alledging that, instead of those sciences, it was the part of a wise administration, first to endeavour to procure the inhabitants bread, by training them to agricultural labours: the rapidity of vegetation here sufficiently proved the fertility of the soil, and he was convinced that abundant crops of rye and barley might be produced; and that wheat might be prevented from shooting by the severity of the winter. He requested them to remark the promising appearance of several fields of potatoes, the seed of which had been brought from Irkoutsk a few years before; and proposed to adopt measures of making farmers of the Russians, Cossacks, and Kamtschadales.

The Kamtschadales are of an imitative genius, and fond of adopting the customs of their conquerors. They have already abandoned the *yourts*, in which they were formerly accustomed to burrow like badgers, breathing foul air, during the whole of the winter. The most opulent among them now build *isbas*, or wooden houses, like those of the Russians: they are divided into three small rooms, and are conveniently warmed by a brick stove. The inferior people pass their winters and summers in *balagans*, resembling wooden pigeon-houses, covered with thatch, and placed upon the tops of posts twelve or thirteen feet high; to which the women, as well as men, find a ladder necessary for their ascension. But these latter buildings will pro-

* The intelligence contained in these packets was generally satisfactory, particularly to La Perouse; who, by a degree of favour to which he did not presume to aspire, had been promoted to the rank of commodore. The compliments he received on this event, soon reached the ears of Mr. Kasloff, who ordered a discharge of all the artillery of the place upon this joyful occasion. Innumerable, indeed, were the favours conferred by this gentleman, as well on M. de Langle as himself; and, among others, a great quantity of sable skins. They gratefully offered, in return, every thing that they supposed might be agreeable to him, but they had nothing worthy such a benefactor; they were rich only in commodities for the savage market. They entreated him, however, to accept The Narrative of Cook's Third Voyage, with which he was highly gratified, especially as, in his *suite*, the following personages were introduced. Mr. Shmaloff, the good vicar of Paratounka, and the unfortunate Ivaschkin. To them he translated the passages which related to them, the truth of which they readily admitted, on hearing the particulars repeated.

† Mr. Kasloff's permission was then requested to engrave upon a plate of the same metal the inscription over the grave of Captain Clerke, which had then been only written by a pencil upon wood, and was too perishable to perpetuate the memory of so estimable a navigator. The governor did more than comply with the prayer of this petition: he promised to erect, without delay, a monument more worthy of those two celebrated men, who died in the midst of their arduous undertaking at so great a distance from their native land.

bly soon disappear; for the Kamtschadales imitate the manners and dresses of the Russians*.

It is curious to see, in their little cottages, a quantity of cash in circulation; and it may be considered as still a greater curiosity, because the practice exists among so small a number of inhabitants. Their consumption of the commodities of Russia and China are so few, that the balance of trade is entirely in their favour, in consequence of which it is necessary to pay them the difference in rubles. The Kamtschadales, says La Perouse, appeared to me to be the same people as those of the Bay of Castries, on the coast of Tartary: they are equally remarkable for their mildness and their probity; and their persons are not very dissimilar.

The bay of Avatscka is one of the completest and safest that can be met with in any part of the world. The entrance is narrow, and ships would be under the necessity of passing under the guns of the forts that might be easily erected. Two vast harbours, one on the eastern, and the other on the western side, are capable of containing all the ships of the French and English navy. The rivers of Avatscka and Paratounka fall into this bay, but they are choaked up with the sand-banks, and can only be entered at the time of high water†.

He related a number of particulars respecting the Kuriles, of which he is also the vicar, and of which he makes an annual tour. The Russians have substituted numbers to the ancient names of those islands, concerning which authors are much divided in their opinions. They are now known by the names of Number 1, 2, &c. as high as 24, which last terminates the pretensions of Russia. Of these twenty-four islands belonging to Russia, four only are inhabited, the first, the second, the thirteenth, and the fourteenth. The last two may indeed be considered as one, the inhabitants passing the winter upon No. 14, and return to No. 13 to pass the summer months. The others are uninhabited, though they are occasionally visited by the islanders, who come in their canoes for the pleasure and emolument of hunting foxes and otters. Several of these last mentioned islands are little better than large rocks, and not one among them is embellished with a single tree. The currents being very violent and dangerous between the rocks, the vicar never made the voyage from Avatscka to the Kuriles in any thing but a canoe; and even then had several times been nearly lost, or perishing with hunger, having been driven out of the sight of land: he attributed his preservation to his cassock and his holy water. The population of the four inhabited islands does not exceed fourteen hundred: the inhabitants live upon seals, fish, and the produce of the chase; the males are remarkably hairy, and wear long beards. These people are poor, inoffensive, and hospitable, and have all embraced the Christian religion.

The approach of winter now warned our navigators to depart: the ground, which on their arrival on the 7th of September, was adorned with the most beautiful verdure, was as yellow and parched up on the 25th of the same month, as it is in the environs of Paris at the conclusion of December. La Perouse therefore gave pre-

* It may be affirmed, in honour of the Russians, that, though they have established a despotic government in this wide climate, it is so tempered with mildness and equity that its inconveniencies are imperceptible. The taxes which are levied on the Kamtschadales are so very moderate, that they can only be considered as a mark of gratitude towards the sovereign, the produce of half a day's hunting being sufficient to discharge the imposts of a year.

† On a selected spot Mr. Kasloff purposes laying down the plan of a city, which may hereafter become the capital of Kamtschatka; and perhaps the centre of an extensive trade with China, Japan, the Phillippines, and America. He prudently observed, however, that bread and hands were required, and that their stock of them was very small: but he ventured to give orders which announced a speedy erection of the other *ostrogs* to that of Saint Peter and Saint Paul, where it was his intention speedily to erect a church. The Greek religion has been established among the Kamtschadales without difficulty, persecution, or violence.

The vicar of Paratounka is the son of a Kamtschadale father, and a Russian mother. He performs his sacred functions with an accent and feeling highly gratifying to his auditors, who reward his cares and endeavours with offerings and alms, but pay no tithes. The canons of the Greek church permitting priests to marry, appears to be a kind of security for the morals of the country clergymen. La Perouse, however, believes them to be very ignorant, and supposes they will long continue so. He admits that the daughter, the wife, and the sister of the vicar, were the best dancers among the women, and seemed to enjoy a perfect state of health. The worthy priest knew that the navigators were good catholics, which procured them an ample aspersion of holy water; and he also enjoined them to kiss the cross which was carried by the clerk. These ceremonies were performed in an uninclosed part of the village, where a tent was his parsonage-house, and his altar the open air: but the usual place of his abode was at Paratounka; he appeared at Saint Peter and Saint Paul only as a visitor.

paratory

paratory orders for their departure, and on the 29th got under way. Mr. Kasloff came to take a final leave of him, and dined on board. He accompanied him on shore, with M. de Langle, and several officers, and was liberally entertained with a good supper, and another ball.

At day-break the next morning, La Perouse made the signal for sailing; soon after which he heard a discharge of all the cannon of Saint Peter and Saint Paul. He ordered a return to be made to this salute, which was repeated at the mouth of the bay, the governor having sent a detachment of soldiers to pay him the honours of departure. It was with considerable regret that they parted with M. de Lesseps, whose good qualities had endeared him to all who had the happiness of approaching him.

SECTION XIV.

*Account of Kamtschatka—Bay of Avatscka—Make the Island of Navigators—Receive Visits from several Canoes—Barter with the Indians—Anchor at the Island of Maouna—Manners, Customs, &c. of the Islanders of Maouna—The Beauty of the Country contrasted with the Ferocity of its Inhabitants—M. de Langle goes on Shore to water his Ship, with Four Boats manned and armed—M. de Langle, and Eleven other Persons murdered—*SEPTEMBER, OCTOBER, *and* DECEMBER, 1787.

THE Russians, as earnest after peltry as the Spaniards are after gold and silver, have long undertaken the most tedious and difficult journies by land, to obtain the valuable spoils of the sable, the fox, and the sea-otter: but assuming the character of soldiers rather than hunters, they thought proper to impose a tribute upon the natives of the country they had subdued, instead of sharing with them in the fatigues of the chase. The peninsula of Kamtschatka was discovered by them near the close of the seventeenth century, the first expedition against the liberty of its wretched inhabitants being undertaken in 1696. The authority of Russia was fully acknowledged throughout the peninsula in 1711.

The court of Russia has several times changed the form of government in this country: that which the English found established in 1778, was totally altered in 1784; Kamtschatka being then a province of the government of Okhotsk, which is itself a dependency of the sovereign court of Irkoutsk. The *Ostrog* of Bolcheretsk, formerly the capital of Kamtschatka, where Major Behm resided when the English arrived there, is now governed by a serjeant named Martinoff, and the other places by persons respectively appointed. These commandants are not responsible to each other, but severally render their own account directly to the governor of Okhotsk, who has established an inspector with the rank of major, and with a particular command over the Kamtschadales*.

In some respects the French navigators were less chilly than the Russian and Kamtschadale inhabitants of the ostrog of Saint Peter and Saint Paul. They were clothed with the thickest skins. The heated air deprived the French voyagers of respiration, and obliged the lieutenant to open the windows whenever they were in his apartment. The population of the Kamtschadales is now estimated at four thousand, scattered over the whole peninsula; and from its extent it is calculated that there are several

* Russia has been at very little expence in extending her dominions: commercial houses fit out vessels at Okhotsk, which are from forty-five to fifty feet long, with a single mast in the middle, carrying from forty to fifty men, who are all more expert as huntsmen, than as seamen. They sail from Okhotsk in June, pass between the point of Lopatka, and the first of Kuriles, steer eastward, and run from island to island for three or four years, till they have bought or killed a sufficient number of otters to pay the expence of fitting out, and yield the merchants a profit of *cent. per cent.* upon the capital advanced.

It is now generally known that furs fetch a high price at Kiatcha, on the frontiers of China and Russia. Twenty-five vessels, the crews consisting of about a thousand men, had been sent this year in quest of furs to the eastward of Kamtschatka; long experience having taught them, that the otters hardly ever frequent the latitudes farther north than the 60th degree. When these vessels return, they sometimes put in at the bay of Avatscka; but always repair ultimately to Okhotsk, the usual residence of their owners, and of the merchants who trade directly with the Chinese on the frontiers of the two empires.

square

quare leagues for each individual. They cultivate no production of the earth; and, as they prefer dogs to rein-deer in drawing their sledges, they no longer breed hogs, sheep, rein-deer, horses, or oxen, supposing those animals would be devoured before they could acquire strength and activity to defend themselves. Fish is the common aliment of their draught dogs, which travel about twenty-four leagues a-day, and are never fed till they have completed their journey.

The bay of Avatscka resembles that of Brest, but affords much better holding ground: its entrance is also narrower, and more easily to be defended: no mineral or vegetable substances were found upon its shores, but such as are exceedingly common in Europe. The north wind, which favoured the navigators at sailing out of the bay of Avatscka, deserted them when they were two leagues in the offing. It shifted, and blew with such obstinacy, that they abandoned their plan of reconnoitering, and laying down the latitude and longitude of the Kuriles, as far as the isle of Marikan. While our navigators were searching for a large, rich, and well-peopled island, said to have been discovered by the Spaniards in 1620, they met with a real misfortune: a seaman fell overboard from the Astrolabe, in the act of furling the mizen-top-gallant-sail. Whether he was wounded in the fall, or could not swim, they could not ascertain, but he never rose again.

Signs of land were seen on the 18th and 19th: flights of ducks, and other birds that frequent the shore were observed. Indeed the signs of land were too frequent, and of too decided a nature to admit of any further doubt. On the first of November, after experiencing several vicissitudes of weather, a great number of birds were seen; and, among others, curlews and plovers, two species which are never observed at any considerable distance from land. Some large clouds remaining constantly fixed towards the south, induced La Perouse to imagine that there was land in that point of the compass, and he steered his course accordingly, continuing to see birds for two or three successive days. By degrees, however, these harbingers deserted him, and he began to enjoy a serene sky.

About this time the navigators caught several doradoes, and a couple of sharks, upon which they fared deliciously; all the crew having been reduced to salt pork, which had received some injury from the influence of a burning clime. Having at length reached the tropic, the sky became still clearer, and the horizon was of great extent; but no land was perceived, though birds were every day met with which are never seen far distant from the shore. On the 4th of November they caught a golden plover which appeared to be moderately fat, and therefore could not have been long at sea; on the 5th they crossed their own track from Monterey to Macao; and on the 6th that of Captain Clerke from the Sandwich Islands to Kamtschatka, when the birds had entirely disappeared. A heavy swell from the east, like that from the west in the Atlantic ocean, constantly prevails in this vast sea: they saw neither bonetas nor doradoes, nor any thing but a few flying fish; a distressing circumstance as their fresh provision was entirely consumed. The sea was smooth, and the breezes moderate; but the sky was covered with thick clouds, and it began to rain almost incessantly during the day, though the nights were tolerably fine: the heat was suffocating, accompanied with great humidity*.

Black goelettees, and others entirely white, were so extremely plenty, that they killed more of them than of noddies, or man of war birds: and yet the latter flew round the ships in such numbers, especially during the night, that they almost stunned the people on the quarter-deck, who could not, without difficulty, hear each other speak; but, to punish their insults, many of them were killed and devoured.

* On the 6th of November they fortunately caught eight bonetas, which furnished a good repast to the whole crew, and to the officers. The rain and storms ceased, and the heavy sea subsided about the fifteenth, when fine weather accompanied our navigators beyond the equator, which they crossed on the 21st of November, for the third time since their departure from Brest. On the 23d they caught two sharks, which supplied the crew with two meals, and on the same day they shot a lean emaciated curlew. As they advanced in the southern hemisphere the noddies and tropic birds, flew more frequently round the ships, which they fondly imagined were the harbingers of some island. In the intervening calms several sharks were captured, which were preferred to salt provision; even the sea-birds, which now frequently became the sailors' prey, though lean and highly impregnated with a fishy smell and taste, were thought as delicious as partridges or woodcocks.

Induced by a western gale, La Perouse attempted to reach the parallel of Bougainville's Navigators Islands, a discovery due to the French, where fresh provision might probably be procured. On the 6th of December, at three in the afternoon, he saw the most easterly island of the Archipelago, and stood on and off during the rest of the evening and night. Meaning to anchor if he met with a proper place, La Perouse passed through the channel between the great and the little islands that Bougainville left to the south: though hardly a league wide, it appeared perfectly free from danger. He saw no canoes till he was in the channel, yet he beheld several habitations on the windward side of the island, and a group of Indians sitting under the shade of cocoa-nut trees, who seemed delighted with the prospect afforded by the frigates*.

At length they made sail, in order to stand away from the coast, and get out of the region of calms. All the canoes came immediately alongside: they sail tolerably well, but row very indifferently; as they frequently overset, they would be useless to those who are not such excellent swimmers as these islanders are. After such a trivial accident, they take the canoe on their shoulders, pour the water out of it, and then get in again, expecting a speedy repetition of the same operation. The general height of these islanders is about five feet, seven or eight inches: their colour resembles that of the Algerines or the other nations of the coast of Barbary: their hair, which is long, is tied up on the top of their heads, and their cast of countenance is unpleasing. La Perouse saw only two of their women, and their features were not more delicately formed. By the sores and ulcers on their legs, it seemed probable that the leprosy was prevalent among them. They approached the navigators without arms, and were apparently as peaceable as the inhabitants of the Society and Friendly Islands.

The French visitors supposed these islanders had entirely taken leave of them, and, from their apparent poverty, did not regret their absence; but in the afternoon the same canoes accompanied by several others, came two leagues into the offing, to have fresh traffic with them. They were now more richly laden than before; having five fowls, a small hog, ten gallinules, several curious articles of dress, and a most beautiful turtle-dove: the body of this charming bird was white, its head purple, its wings green, and its breast chequered with red and black spots like the leaves of the anemony. As it died in our passage, its feathers could only be preserved, and they lost all their splendour. As the Astrolabe was constantly a-head in this day's-run, the canoes began their traffic with M. de Langle, who purchased two dogs, which were thought voluptuous food.

It is remarkable that none of these islanders could be prevailed upon to accept, in exchange, any French hatchets, or other instruments of iron: they preferred a few useless glass beads to all the hardware and other articles that were offered them. Expecting to meet with a more considerable island farther west, the navigators flattered themselves they should soon find a shelter, if not a port, and therefore deferred making more extensive observations, till they arrived at that island, which, according to M. de Bougainville's plan, they now approached. At break of day they were surprised not to see the land to leeward; nor was it to be discovered till six o'clock in the morning, the channel being infinitely wider than is represented on the chart which was delivered to La Perouse as a guide. They found themselves opposite the

* This island, of about two hundred toises elevation, is steep, and covered to the top with large trees, many of which appeared to be of the cocoa-nut kind. The houses extend about half way down the declivity, affording the natives a cooler air than if erected nearer the shore. Several spots of ground appeared to be cultivated; but, upon the whole, the island seemed far from fertile. Two little islands, which form the western side of the channel, through which we passed, have also their inhabitants. Five canoes were observed to set out from them, and join eleven others that came from the eastern island. After having paddled several times round the ships, and displayed strong appearances of distrust, they ventured to approach, and began to negociate; but their articles were of so trivial a nature that the French visitors could only obtain about twenty cocoa-nuts, and two blue gallinules. These islanders, like all those of the South Sea, have no idea of honour or honesty in their dealings; and when they received the price of their cocoa-nuts beforehand, seldom failed to paddle away without performing their part of the agreement. The amount of their thefts, however, were of little importance; a few bead necklaces, and some remnants of red cloth were hardly worth demanding a restoration of. They sounded several times in the channel with a line of a hundred fathoms, but got no ground, though not a mile from the shore.

north-

orth-east point of the island of Maouna at ve in the evening. Being visited by two or ree canoes, which came alongside to exchange gs and fruit for beads, they conceived an alted opinion of the riches of the island.

The next morning they approached the land, d stretched along it at the distance of about lf a league: a number of creeks were observed, hich appeared to be formed by several small rojections of the coast, and might probably be fficiently capacious to admit canoes, barges, d long-boats to enter. A number of villages esented themselves at the bottom of each eek, whence innumerable canoes were conually issuing with hogs and fruit, which were artered for a rateable quantity of glass ware. his prospect of abundance increased the desire anchoring; and having found, at four o'clock, a mile from land, and in thirty fathoms water, bank composed of rotten shells and coral, y let go their anchors; but they were tossed out by a heavy swell that set in shore. They mediately hoisted out their boats; and the me day M. de Langle, and several officers, th three boats manned and armed, landed at village, where they were hospitably received the inhabitants. Night coming on when y reached the shore, the Indians made a large e, to light the place of debarkation, and ought down a quantity of hogs, birds, and coa-nuts. After an hour's stay, the boats rened on board. Every person, however, was der some concern to see the frigates anchored so bad a road, where they rolled as if they e in the open sea. Alarm for the conequences which may probably happen, as they e then situated, embittered the night with disagreeable reflections, especially as a storm was thering to the northward, whence the wind blowing fresh; but happily, the land breeze vailed.

Charmed with the beautiful dawn of the following morning, La Perouse resolved to reconre the country, take a view of the inhabitants at their own homes, fill water, and immediately get under way; prudence warning him against passing a second night at that anchorage, which M. de Langle also thought too dangerous for a longer stay. It was therefore agreed on to sail in the afternoon, after appropriating the morning in exchanging baubles for hogs and fruit. At the dawn of day the islanders had surrounded the two frigates, with two hundred different canoes laden with provision, which they would only exchange for beads: our axes, cloth, and other articles of traffic were treated by them with contempt.

While a part of the crew was occupied in keeping them in order, and dealing with them, the rest were dispatching empty casks on shore to be replenished with water. Two boats of the Boussole, armed, and commanded by Messrs. de Clonard and Colinet, and those of the Astrolabe, commanded by Messrs. de Monti and Bellegarde, set off with that view at five in the morning, for a bay at the distance of about a league. La Perouse followed close after Messrs. Clonard and Monti, in his pinnace, and landed when they did. It unfortunately happened that M. de Langle had formed a resolution to make an excursion in his jolly-beat to another creek, at the distance of about a league from their watering place: from this excursion a dire misfortune ensued. The creek, towards which the long-boats steered, was large and commodious: these, and the other boats, remained afloat at low water, within half a pistol shot of the beach, and excellent water was easily procured. Great order was observed by Messrs. de Clonard and de Monti. A line of soldiers was posted between the beach and the natives, who amounted to about two hundred, including many women and children. They were prevailed on to sit down under cocoa-trees, at a little distance from the boats: each of them had fowls, hogs, pigeons, or fruit, and all of them were anxious to dispose of their articles without delay, which created some confusion*.

While

* The women, many of whom were pretty, were liberal of their favours as well as of their fowls and fruit, to those who were willing to give beads for them; and soon attempted to pass through the line of soldiers, who feebly resisted their endeavours. These fair savages presently succeeded in breaking the ranks; the men then ventured to approach, and confusion was becoming general; when some Indians, whom the navigators supposed to be chiefs, made their appearance, armed with sticks, to restore order. Every one now returned to his post, and traffic began afresh, to the satisfaction of both purchasers and sellers.

In the mean time an act of hostility had occurred in La Perouse's long-boat, which he was desirous of repressing without effusion of blood: an Indian had taken a mallet from the stern of the boat, and aimed several blows at the arms and back of one of the sailors. La Perouse ordered four

While matters were thus passing with perfect tranquillity, and the casks expeditiously filling with water, La Perouse ventured to visit a charming village, situated in the midst of a neighbouring wood, the trees of which were loaded with delicious fruit. The houses formed a circle of about one hundred and fifty toises in diameter, leaving an interior open space, beautifully verdant, and shaded with trees, which rendered the air delightfully cool and refreshing. Women, children, and aged men attended him, and earnestly importuned him to enter their houses: they even spread their finest mats upon a floor, decorated with chosen pebbles, and raised a convenient distance from the ground, to prevent offensive humidity. La Perouse condescended to enter one of the handsomest of these huts, which was probably inhabited by a chief, and was astonished to behold a large cabinet of lattice-work, in which as much taste and elegance were displayed as if it had been produced in the environs of Paris.

This enchanting country, blessed with a fruitful soil without culture, and enjoying a climate which renders cloathing unnecessary, holds out to these fortunate people an abundance of the most estimable food. The trees invite the natives to partake of the bread-fruit, the banana, the cocoa-nut, and the orange; while the swine, fowls, and dogs, which partake of the surplus of these fruits, afford them a rich variety of viands. The inhabitants of this enviable spot, were so rich, and so entirely free from wants, that they looked with disdain on the cloth and iron tendered by the French visitors, and only designed to become customers for beads. Abounding in real blessings, they languished only for superfluities!*.

No disagreeable consequences attended the first visit: there had indeed been slight commotions between individuals, but they had prudently been appeased. Stones had been thrown at M. Rollin, the surgeon-major; and an Indian, pretending to admire M. de Moneron's sabre, had attempted to snatch it from him; but finding the scabbord in his hand, without a sheath, he ran away terrified at the sight of the naked weapon. As it was sufficiently evident that these islanders were turbulent, and little under the subjection of their chiefs, La Perouse congratulated himself on his not having punished with severity the little instances of molestation he had met with. Towards noon he returned to the ship in his barge, being closely followed by the long-boats. He found it difficult to get alongside, the frigates being surrounded by canoes, and the market continuing much crowded†.

The boats of the Boussole now arrived loaded with water, and La Perouse made every preparation to get under way. M. de Langle, at the same instant returned from his excursion, and mentioned his having landed in a noble harbour of boats, at the foot of a delightful village, and near a cascade of transparent water. He spoke of this watering place as infinitely more commodious than any other, and begged La Perouse

four of his sailors to throw him into the sea, and his command was instantly obeyed. The other islanders, disapproving of the conduct of their countryman, manifested no appearance of resentment, and no ill consequences were apprehended. To intimidate these islanders, (who were formidable by their muscular limbs and colossal proportions, their general height being also about five feet ten inches,) La Perouse thought it expedient to give them a specimen of the force of his fire-arms: he therefore purchased three pigeons, which were thrown up into the air, and instantly shot them with the musket, to the great amusement of the whole multitude.

* Thrice happy are these islanders! exclaimed many of their European visitors.—Surrounded by their wives and children, they pass their blissful days in innocence and repose.—But alas! they were deceived—this delightful country was not the abode of innocence!—Though the navigators perceived no arms, the bodies of the Indians, mutilated and distorted with scars, proved them to be a hostile race; and their features announced a ferocity which manifested a delight in turbulence, quarrelling, and inhumanity, among themselves. This ferocity of countenance, however, was much less perceptible in the features of the women.

† When La Perouse went ashore, he had entrusted M. Boutin with the command of the Boussole, with full liberty to establish what police he thought proper during his absence. On his return he found seven or eight Indians on the quarter-deck, the eldest of whom was presented to him as a chief. M. Boutin declared, that he could not have prevented their coming on board by any other means than firing upon them; that on comparing their bodily strength with that of the French visitors, they laughed at their threats, and made a mockery of their sentinels. He added, that since the chief had come among them, they appeared more orderly and docile. Having made several presents to the chief, and shewn him many tokens of kindness and attention; he wished to inspire him with an exalted opinion of their power, and ordered many experiments of the use of French weapons to be performed in his presence. But their effect did not materially excite his curiosity.

o permit him to take the lead of the first party, sasuring him, that in three hours he would re-turn on board with all the boats full of water. Entertaining the highest opinion of M. de Langle's sound judgment and capacity, La Pe-ouse was induced to assent to the measure pro-posed, and promised M. de Langle to stand off nd on all night, and that in the morning he would dispatch two long-boats and two barges, rmed as he thought proper, which should be holly under his command. Thinking it full me to get under way, they found, on heaving p the anchor, one strand of the cable cut by e coral, and in two hours more the whole cable ould be cut through. Not getting under sail ll four in the afternoon, they postponed their eparture till the next day.

At eleven o'clock the following morning, La erouse was about a league distant from the land, when he dispatched his long-boat and arge, commanded by Boutin and Monton, on ard the Astrolabe, to receive M. de Langle's rders: those who had any symptoms of the scurvy ere taken into them, with six armed soldiers, nd the master at arms at their head. The two oats contained twenty-eight men, with twenty mpty casks in order to be filled at the watering-lace. Lamanon and Colinet, though indisposed ere among those who set off from the Bous-le. M. de Langle also set off in his barge, ith M. Vaujuas, a convalescent. La Gobien, midshipman, commanded the long-boat, and e la Martiniere, Lavaux, and father Beeceveur, rmed a part of the thirty-three persons sent by e Astrolabe. Among these sixty-one indivi-als, were the choicest men of both crews. . de Langle's people were armed with muskets d cutlasses, and he ordered six swivels to be ounted upon the long-boats.

Though La Perouse, from the appearance of ings at this time, had no great apprehensions danger, he was averse to sending boats on ore without the greatest necessity, especially ong an immense number of people, unsup-rted and unperceived by the ships. The boats t off from the Astrolabe at half past twelve, and arrived at the watering place soon after one; when to their great astonishment, M. de Langle, and his officers, instead of finding a large commodious bay, saw only a creek full of coral, through which there was no other passage than a winding channel of about twenty-five feet wide. When within, they had no more than five feet water: the long-boats grounded, and the barges must have been in the same situation had they not been hauled to the entrance of the channel at a great distance from the beach. M. de Langle was now convinced that he had examined the bay at high water only, not supposing that the tide at those islands rose five or six feet. Struck with amazement, he instantly resolved to quit the creek, and repair to that where they had before filled water: but the air of tranquillity and apparent good humour of the crowd of Indians, bringing with them an immense quantity of fruit and hogs, chased his first prudent idea from his recollection.

He landed the casks on shore from the four boats without interruption, while his soldiers preserved excellent order on the beach, forming themselves in two lines, the more effectually to answer their purpose. Instead of about two hundred natives, including women and children, which M. de Langle found there at about half after one, they were, at three o'clock increased to the alarming number of twelve hundred*. M. de Langle's situation became every instant more embarrassing; he found means, however, to ship his of water; but the bay was almost dry, and he had not any hopes of getting off the long-boats till four in the afternoon. He and his detachment, however, stepped into them, and took post in the bow with his musket and musketeers, forbidding any one to fire without his command; which he knew would speedily be found necessary. Stones were now violently thrown by the Indians, who were up to their knees in water, and surrounded by the long-boats at the distance of about six feet; the soldiers, who were embarked, making feeble efforts to keep them off†.

At five o'clock the officers and crew of the Boussole

* Among them was a considerable number of women, d very young girls, who offered their favours to us in a st indecent manner. *Narr. of M. de Vaujuas.*

+ M. de Langle, still hoping to check hostilities, without usion of blood, gave no orders, all this time, for firing a volley of musketry and swivels; but, shortly after, a shower of stones, thrown with incredible force, struck almost every one in the long-boat. M. de Langle had only fired two shot, when he was knocked overboard, and massacred with clubs and stones by about two hundred Indians.

Boussole were informed of this disastrous event: they were at that moment surrounded with about a hundred canoes, in which the natives were disposing of their provisions with security, and perfectly innocent of the catastrophe which had happened. But they were the countrymen, the brothers, the children of the infernal assassins, the thoughts of which so transported La Perouse with rage, that he could with difficulty confine himself to the limits of moderation, or hinder the crew from punishing them with death.

Persons massacred by the Savages of the Island of Maouna, December 11, 1787.

THE ASTROLADE

M. de Langle, post-captain, commander,

Yves Humon, John Redelleg, Francis Ferret, Lawrence Robin, and a Chinese, seamen.

Louis David, quarter-gunner.

John Geraud, domestic.

THE BOUSSOLE.

M. de Lamanon, natural philosopher, and naturalist.

Peter Talie, gunner.

Andrew Roth, and Joseph Rayes, quarter-gunners.

SECTION XV.

*Quit the Island of Maouna—The Island of Oyolava described—Make the Island of Poula—New Details respecting the Manners, Customs, &c.—Fall in with Cocoa-nut and Traitor Islands—Departure from Navigators Island—Route towards the Friendly Islands—Fall in with that of Vacao, and several others—Inhabitants of Tongataboo—Norfolk Island, Description of—Arrival at Botany Bay—*DECEMBER, 1787—JANUARY, 1788.

ON the 14th of December La Perouse stood for the island of Oyolava, which had been observed before they had arrived at the anchorage which proved so fatal. This island is separated from that of Maouna, or of the Massacre, by a wide channel, and vies with Otaheite in beauty, extent, fertility, and population. At the distance of about three leagues from the north-east point, he was surrounded by canoes, laden with bread-fruit, bananas, cocoa-nuts,

Indians §. The long boat of the Boussole, commanded by M. de Boutin, was aground near the Astrolabe, leaving between them a channel unoccupied by the Indians. Many saved themselves by swimming: they fortunately got on board the barges, which keeping afloat, forty-nine persons were saved out of the sixty-one of which the party consisted. M. Boutin was knocked down by a stone, but fortunately fell between the two long-boats, on board of which not a man remained in the space of about five minutes. Those who preserved their lives by swimming to the two barges, received several wounds, but those who unhappily fell on the other side were instantly dispatched by the clubs of the remorseless Indians.

The crews of the barges, who had killed many of the islanders with their muskets, now began to make more room by throwing their water-casks overboard. They had also nearly exhausted their ammunition, and their retreat was rendered difficult, a number of wounded persons laying stretched out upon the thwarts, and impeding the working of the oars. To the prudence of M. Vaujuas, and the discipline kept up by M. Mouton, who commanded the Boussole's barge, the public are indebted for the preservation of the forty-nine persons of both crews who escaped. M. Boutin had received five wounds in the head, and one in the breast, and was kept above water by the cockswain of the long-boat, who had himself received a severe wound. M. Colinet was discovered in a state of insensibility upon the grapnel rope of the barge, with two wounds on the head, an arm fractured, and a finger broken. M. Lavaux, surgeon of the Astrolabe, was obliged to suffer the operation of the trepan. M. de Lamanon, and M. de Langle, were cruelly massacred, with Talio, master at arms of the Boussole, and nine other persons belonging to the two crews. M. le Gobien, who commanded the Astrolabe's long-boat, did not desert his post till he was left alone; when, having exhausted his ammunition, he leaped into the channel, and, notwithstanding his wounds, preserved himself on board one of the barges. A little ammunition was afterwards found, and completely exhausted on the infuriated croud; and the boats at length extricated themselves from their lamentable situation.

§ *M. de Langle, was the first victim of the ferocity of these barbarians, who had received nothing but favours at his hand. It is impossible to describe the consternation occasioned by this fatal event on board the two frigates. The death of M. de Langle, who enjoyed the confidence and esteem of his crew, was matter of the deepest regret to every one. The general affliction which prevailed on board, is the best panegyric that can be pronounced on him.* Narr. of M. de Vaujuas.

sugar-

sugar-canes, pigeons, and a few hogs. The inhabitants of this island resemble those of the island of Maouna, whose treachery had been so fatally experienced. Some exchanges were conducted with these islanders with more tranquillity and honesty than at the island of Maouna, as the smallest acts of injustice received immediate chastisement *.

The presence of the women and children, who were among them, seemed to intimate that no hostile intentions were entertained, but the navigators were sensible of the necessity of relying no longer on appearances, and prepared effectually to repel the least menace or appearance of aggression. La Perouse supposed the French were the first who had ever traded with them; they knew nothing about iron, and refused to deal for any article composed of that metal, preferring a single bead to an axe. Rich in the blessings of nature, they wished only for superfluities, and articles of luxury. Among the considerable number of young women two or three were observed with alluring features, and captivating countenances: their hair was decorated with flowers, confined by a negligent foliage of green ribbon, like a bandeau: and curiously variegated with plaited grass and moss. Their figures were elegant, their arms graceful and well proportioned, and their eyes, countenances, and gestures, manifested an amiable gentleness of disposition; while the countenances of the men indicated nothing but surprise and ferocity.

In the evening the author stood on, abreast of the island, all the canoes returning to the shore: the next day a flat calm prevailed, followed by lightning, thunder, and rain. On the 17th, he approached the island of Pola, but not a single canoe came off, perhaps the natives had been intimidated by hearing of the event which had taken place at Maouna. Pola is a smaller island than that of Oyolava, but equally beautiful and is only separated from it by a channel four leagues across. The natives of Maouna informed our visitors, that the navigators islands are ten in number, *viz.* Opoun, the most easterly; Leoné, Fanfoué, Maouna, Oyolava, Calinasse, Pola, Skika, Ossamo, and Ouera. These islands form one of the finest archipelagoes of the South Sea, and are as interesting with respect to arts, productions, and population, as the Society and Friendly Islands, which the English navigators have so satisfactorily described. In favour of their moral characters, little remains to be noticed: gratitude cannot find a residence in their ferocious minds, nothing but fear can restrain them from outrageous and inhuman actions †.

The huts of these islanders are elegantly formed; though they disdain the fabrications of iron, they finish their work with wonderful neatness, with tools formed of a species of basaltes in the form of an adze. For a few glass beads, they bartered large three-legged dishes of wood, so well polished as to have the appearance of being highly varnished. They keep up a wretched kind of police; a few who had the appearance of chiefs, chastised the refractory with their sticks; but their assumed power seemed generally disregarded: any regulations, which they attempted to enforce and to establish, were transgressed almost as soon as they were promulgated. Never were sovereigns so negligently obeyed, never were orders enforced with such feeble shadows of authority ‡.

Their canoes are small, usually for the accommodation

* At four in the afternoon La Perouse brought to abreast of a very large village, supposing to exceed in magnitude any thing of that description in any island of the South Sea, situated on an inclined plain, and covered with houses from the summit of the mountains to the water side. The smoke appeared in clouds in the interior of the village, as issuing from the midst of a large city; while the sea was covered with an immensity of boats endeavouring to approach the frigates: several of these had nothing to sell, being mere idle gazers to enjoy the novel spectacle which the French visitors had afforded them.

† These islanders, are tall, robust, and well made, and their general height from five feet nine, to five feet eleven inches. The bodies of the men are painted or tatowed, which give them the appearance of being clad, though they are almost naked: a girdle of sea-weeds encircles their loins, descending to their knees, like the river Gods in Pagan Mythology. Their hair, which is remarkably long, is often twisted round their heads, and heightens their native ferocity of countenance, always strongly depicting anger or surprise. They are irascible, and soon provoked to give the most tremendous blows with sticks, clubs, or paddles, and seem fearless of the consequences: the multitude of scars, which remain on their bodies, as trophies of victory or vengeance, manifest their propensity to individual quarrels.

‡ Well are these islands denominated the *Navigators' Islands*, for they pass not on foot from one village to another, but perform all their visits and journies in canoes: their villages are situated in creeks on the sea-side, and no paths are seen to penetrate into the interior of the country. The islands are covered to the very summit with fruit-trees, which are inhabited by pigeons, and turtle-doves of various colours; beautiful parroquets, partridges, and a species of blackbird unite in this aerial society.

commodation of five or six persons, though a few of them are sufficiently capacious to contain about fourteen. They are undeservedly celebrated, by some navigators for their swiftness. These Indians are such expert swimmers, that they only consider their canoes as occasional resting places; from which, upon the least false motion, they are obliged to leap into the sea, and taking up their sinking vessels upon their shoulders, pour out the water.

They fish with a hook and line, and sweep-net.

Imagination cannot figure to itself more agreeable situations than those of their villages. All the houses are built under fruit trees, which render them delightfully cool: they are seated on the borders of streams, leading down from the mountains. Though the principal object in their architecture is to protect them from offensive heat, the islanders never abandon the idea of elegance. Their houses are sufficiently spacious to accommodate several families; and they are furnished with blinds, which are drawn up to the windward to prevent the intrusion of the potent rays of the sun. The natives repose upon fine comfortable mats, which are cautiously preserved from all humidity. Nothing can be said, by our travellers, of the religious rites of these natives, as no morai was perceived belonging to them *.

These islands are fertile, and their population is supposed to be considerable. Opun, Leone, and Fanfoue, are small; but Maoune, Oyolava, and Pola, may be classed among the largest and most beautiful in the South Sea. Cocoa Island is lofty, and formed like a sugar loaf; it is nearly a mile in diameter, covered with trees, and is separated from Traitors island by a channel about a league wide. At eight in the morning La Perouse brought to the west-south-west at two miles from a sandy bay in the western part of the Great Island of Traitors, where he expected to find an anchorage sheltered from easterly winds. About twenty canoes instantly quitted the shore, and approached the frigates in order to make exchanges: several of them were loaded with excellent cocoa-nuts, with a few yams and bananas: one of them brought a hog, and three or four fowls. It evidently appeared that these Indians had before some knowledge of Europeans, as they came near without fear, traded with honesty, and never refused, like the natives of the Archipelago of Navigators, to part with their fruit before they were paid for it. They spoke, however, the same language, and the same ferocity appeared in their countenances; their manner of tatowing and the form of their canoes were the same; but they had not, like them, two joints cut off from the little finger of the left hand: two individuals, had, however, suffered that operation.

Every island which was observed, revived some *trait* of Indian perfidy. All these atrocities which had been committed at the Recreation Islands, Traitor's Island, and that of Maouna, appeared in evidence against these savages, and changed the mode of acting with such monsters: the smallest acts of injustice was now repressed, or the most trivial thefts. This conduct had a more salutary effect than moderation; prudence recommends the necessity of compulsion, against the man who would certainly be our assassin were he not restrained by fear †.

The hogs procured at Maouna were but a temporary resource, as they were too small for salting, and proper food was wanting to support them till they were of a proper magnitude for that purpose. La Perouse, therefore, served

* The inhabitants of these islands have an ample supply of hogs, dogs, fish, fowls, and birds: cocoa-nut, guava and banana trees are numerous: another tree, bearing a large fruit that is generally eaten roasted, and much resembles that of a chesnut, is frequent in this cluster. Sugar-canes grow spontaneously on the banks of the rivers, but they are not deemed excellent.

Though danger was to be apprehended from making an excursion into the interior of the island, De la Martiniere and Colignon, yielded to the impuse of zeal, rather than to that of prudence: and, when the landing proved so fatal to many of their countrymen, advanced some distance upon land to make botanical discoveries. The Indians exacted a glass bead for every plant taken from the ground by M. de la Martiniere, and menaced him with a blow when he withheld the stipulated reward. Pursued by a multiplicity of stones at the instant of the massacre, he swam to the barges, with his bag of plants upon his back, and conveyed them safe on board.

† La Perouse, in speaking of the scurvy, pertinently observes, that, "of all the known preservatives against that disease, melasses and spruce beer are, in my opinion, the most efficacious. Our ship's companies continued to drink them in the hot climates; a bottle per day being distributed to each person, with half a pint of wine, and a small glass of brandy, diluted with a great deal of water; which served to render their provision more palatable."

out fresh pork twice a-day to his crew; in consequence of which the swelling of the legs, and all the other symptoms of scurvy disappeared. This new regimen had the same invariable effect upon the health of the people while they continued in port; plainly demonstrating that land-air is not so essential as salubrious aliments.

On the 27th of December, Vavao was perceived, an island which Captain Cook had never visited, but was no stranger to its existence, as one of the archipelago of the Friendly Islands: it is nearly equal in extent to that of Tongataboo, and is particularly fortunate in having no deficiency of fresh water. The two small islands of Hoongatonga, are no more than two large uninhabitable rocks, which are high enough to be seen at the distance of fifteen leagues. Their position is ten leagues north of Tongataboo; but that island being low, it can hardly be seen at half that distance. On the 31st of December, at six in the morning, an appearance like the tops of trees, which seemed to grow in the water, proved the harbinger of Van Diemen's Point. The wind being northerly, La Perouse steered for the south coast of the island, which may, without danger, be approached within three musket-shots. The sea broke furiously over the coast, but the surf was close in shore; and, beyond it, the most delightful orchards rejoiced the eyes of the beholders, and the most vivid verdure displayed itself in the surrounding fields, which appeared to be in the highest state of cultivation. It was then, however, in the rainy season, and though great were the charms which presented themselves, it was probable that, during a considerable part of the year, a drought must be the certain consequence in so low an island. Not the semblance of a hill is to be seen; a calm sea cannot present a more level surface to the eye.

The huts of the natives were scattered irregularly over the fields, and not socially collected into a conversable neighbourhood. Seven or eight canoes were launched from these habitations, and directed their course towards the vessels; but these islanders were aukward seamen, and did not venture to come near, though the water was smooth, and no obstacle impeded their passage. At the distance of about eight or ten feet, they leaped overboard and swam near the frigates, holding in each hand a quantity of cocoa-nuts, which they were glad to exchange for pieces of iron, nails, and hatchets: from the honesty of their dealings a friendly intercourse ensued, between the islanders and the navigators, and they ventured to come on board. A young islanders declared he was the son of Feenou, an assertion which, whether true or false, procured him several presents; on the receipt of which he vociferated a cry of joy; and endeavoured to convince the persons present, by signs, that if they would go and anchor upon the coast, plenty of provision would be at their service, but their canoes were too small to convey them into the ocean. They had, indeed, neither hogs nor poultry with them, their whole cargo consisting of a few bananas and cocoa-nuts.

Though a hundred and fifty islands compose this archipelago, the greater part of them are uninhabited rocks: Ovolava exceeds in population, fertility, and [illegible] strength, all the other islands put together. Norfolk Island, which we had seen on the 13th of January, is very steep, but does not exceed eighty toises above the level of the sea. It is covered with pines, which appear to be of the same species as those of New Caledonia, or New Zealand, Captain Cook having declared that he saw many cabbage trees in this Island, heightened the desire of the navigators to land on it. Perhaps the palm which produces these cabbages, is very small, for not a single tree of that species could be discovered. This island, being uninhabited, is covered with sea-fowl, particularly tropic birds with red feathers: several boobies and gulls were also seen, but not a single man-of-war bird. While the frigates lay at anchor, they caught some red fish upon the bank, which extends three or four leagues to the northward and eastward of the island, of the kind called *capitaine*, or *farde*, which were found very delicious*.

On

* On the 17th the navigators were surrounded by gulls, which induced them to suppose that they were near a rock or an island. They were followed by these birds, till they were within eighty leagues of New Holland. From Norfolk Island till they came within sight of Botany Bay, they sounded every evening, with two hundred fathoms of line, and did not find any bottom till within eight leagues of the coast, in ninety fathoms water. They saw it on the 23d of January, and found it to be of a very moderate elevation, hardly to be seen at more than the distance of twelve

On the 26th, at nine in the morning, La Perouse let go the anchor at a mile from the north coast, in seven fathoms water. An English lieutenant, and a midshipman, were sent on board his ship by Captain Hunter, commander of the Sirius. They offered him, in Captain Hunter's name, all the services in his power; but circumstances would not permit him to supply them with provision, ammunition, or sails. An officer was dispatched from the French to the English captain, returning thanks, and adding that his wants extended only to wood and water, of which he should find plenty in the bay.

The journal of La Perouse proceeds no further. La Perouse, according to his last letters from Botany Bay, was to return to the isle of France in 1778. For two years France in vain impatiently expected his return: perhaps the apprehensions of his countrymen may have been more agonizing than his actual sufferings; perhaps he has been cast away upon one of the islands of the South Sea, whence he stretches out his arms towards his country for protection. We have not now even the consolation to doubt that he has experienced some dreadful calamity: we cannot reasonably hope that his vessels are still ploughing the surface of the seas: it is indeed much to be apprehended that this navigator and his companions are no more; or thrown upon some frightful shore, lost in the immensity of unknown seas, and, confined in the extremities of the world, to struggle against the climate, against wild beasts, against men, and against nature. The information we are in possession of concerning the fate of our navigator, is so imperfect and unsatisfactory, that even the idea of his existence is improbable. As we know the route which he had intended to perform, and as he possessed a number of medals, struck on occasion of his voyage, these medals may, at some future period, point out to us nearly in what spot his misfortune interrupted it.

leagues. The wind became variable, and, like Captain Cook, they were every day drifted by currents fifteen miles to the southward of the reckoning; therefore they passed the whole of the 24th in plying to windward in sight of Botany Bay, without being able to double Point Solander. A new sight now presented itself to their view,—an English fleet at anchor in Botany Bay, the colours and pendants of which they could distinguish.

END OF PEROUSE'S VOYAGE.

A VOYAGE

IN SEARCH OF

LA PEROUSE,

UNDERTAKEN BY ORDER OF THE CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY OF FRANCE,

AND PERFORMED

In the Years, 1791, 1792, and 1793,

IN THE

RECHERCHE AND ESPERANCE, *Ships of War;*

UNDER THE COMMAND OF

REAR-ADMIRAL BRUNI D'ENTRECASTEAUX,

FROM THE FRENCH OF M. LABILLARDIERE,

Correspondent of the ci-divant Academy of Sciences, and One of the Naturalists engaged in the Expedition.

THREE years having elapsed, and no tidings having been received of the *Boussole* and *Astrolabe*, the two ships under the command of La Perouse, the Society of Natural History of Paris, early in the year 1791, awakened the attention of the Constituent Assembly respecting the fate of that navigator, and his companions in misfortune.

The hope of finding, at least, some wreck of an expedition, undertaken for the advancement of the sciences, induced the assembly to send two other ships in the track which the navigators were to have followed, after their departure from Botany Bay. Some of them might possibly have escaped shipwreck, and be sequestered in a desert island, or thrown on coasts inhabited by savages; perhaps they were yet living in those distant climes, and continually directing their eyes towards the sea, hoping their country would at some future period, send them that assistance which they had reason to expect.

A decree to the following effect passed the National Assembly on the 9th of February, 1791. That the king be requested to give orders that all ambassadors, consuls, &c. of the courts of the different powers, that they do, in the name of humanity, and of the arts and sciences, engage the respective sovereigns at whose courts they reside, to charge all navigators and agents whatsoever, who are subject to their control, in whatsoever part of the globe they may be, to make every enquiry in their power, after the French frigates the *Boussole* and *Astrolabe*, under the command of M. de La Perouse, as well as after their crews; and endeavour to obtain every information that may ascertain their existence or their shipwreck; to the end that, in case M. de La Perouse should be found or heard of, all possible assistance may be rendered them; the National Assembly engaging to indemnify and reward whoever shall afford assistance to these navigators. That the king be requested to direct that one or more ships, on board of which may be embarked some men of science, naturalists, and draughtsmen; and that the commanders employed in the expedition, be charged with the double mission of searching after M. de la Perouse, agreeable to the documents, instructions, and orders that may be given them, and, at the same time, independently of the search after M. de la Perouse, or even after having met with him, or procured intelligence of him, to render this expedition useful to navigation, to commerce, and to the arts and sciences.

(Signed) DUPORT, *President.*
LOIRE, BOUSSON. } *Secretaries.*

Admiral

Admiral D'Entrecasteaux being appointed to the command of this expedition, he applied to the government for two store-ships of about five hundred tons burthen. That in which the admiral embarked, was named *La Recherche;* and the other, commanded by Captain Huon Kermandee, was called *Esperance.* The *Recherche* had on board 113 men, at the time of her departure, the *Esperance* had only 106.

SECTION I.

Departure from Brest—Arrival at Santa Cruz—A Sailor almost drowned, and restored—His Clothes are stolen—Two Naturalists prevented by Illness from ascending the Summit of the Peak—English Ships in the Road of Santa Cruz—A new Volcano to the south-west of the Peak.

OUR adventurers arrived at Brest * on the 10th of September, 1791. The finest ships of France, such as the Majesteux, the Etats de Bourgogne, the Amerique, &c. were then in the harbour. The ships' companies were mustered in the harbour on the 21st of September; and, on the 25th, the two chosen ships went into the road. On board the Recherche were six eight pounders, two thirty-six pound carronades, six swivels of demi-kilogram, twelve swivels of double hectogram, forty-five musquets, thirty-five pistols, fifty sabres, three pole-axes, ten musquetoons.

The Esperance had nearly the same articles, which were thought sufficient for protecting themselves against any enterprize on the part of the savages. The two ships were also furnished with a quantity of such essential things as were proper to be distributed among the natives of the South Seas. Iron tools, and stuffs of different colours formed a considerable part of their stock for traffic. Among the stuffs, red was the commanding colour.

Each of the ships carried eighteen months' provisions. They were ready to sail, and waited only for a fair wind, when a tolerably fresh breeze from the eastward permitted them to get under way, about one in the afternoon of the 28th of September. Having been detained by the intrusion of two sailors and a boy, the commodore ordered them to be put on shore; the Esperance continuing her course, had got ahead of the Recherche, but the latter joined her again before night, she being the most rapid sailer.

They took their departure about six in the evening, being then in the latitude of 48° 13′ north, and in the longitude of 70° 15′ west. The course ordered to be steered was west-north-west: and afterwards, about midnight, the ship was kept west. On the 29th, Commodore E'Entrecasteaux was informed by dispatches, which he had been interdicted from opening till he was at sea, that Captain Huon Kermandee, commander of the Esperance, was made post, and that he himself was promoted to the rank of rear-admiral. This intelligence was instantly communicated, by the aid of the speaking trumpet, to the Esperance. The ensigns were also immediately hoisted, with the distinctive emblem of the rank with which the commodore had been recently honoured.

From their departure till the 5th of October, the winds were faint and changeable; they afterwards blew pretty fresh, varying from north-east to north till their arrival at Teneriffe. The Esperance made the signal for land on the 12th, about eight in the morning. About noon they reckoned themselves at the distance of fourteen myriameters from the Peak of Teneriffe, which was beheld to the south-east, by south, majestically rearing its head above the clouds. On the approach of night, they were only at the distance of two myriameters from the north-east point of the island. In the morning between nine and ten on the 13th they cast anchor at Santa Cruz, in ten fathoms water. Citizen Fonspertuis, the French consul, immediately came on board, and offered his services to the admiral for procuring such necessaries as were required by the two ships.

* Brest is more remarkable as being the chief maritime arsenal of France in the north, than for its extent or population, which does not exceed 30,000 souls. *Pinkerton's Modern Geog.* i. 263.

Going

Going on shore in the afternoon, M. Labillardiere, our naturalist, remarked among the plants growing in the environs of Santa Cruz, a woody melissa, known under the name of *melissa fruticosa;* the *saccharum Teneriffe*, &c. The beautiful tree, called the fair poinciana, constituted the ornament of some of the gardens*.

On the 14th at sun-rise, reciprocal salutes were given and received by the vessels and the forts.

Our adventurers having formed the project of undertaking, the next day, a journey to the Peak, and of visiting successively the high mountains of the island, the French consul gave them a letter of recommendation for M. de Cologant, an opulent merchant residing at Orotava.

Early in the morning of the 15th, a party consisting of eight; namely Develle, one of the officers of the admiral's ship, Pirou, Deschamps, Lahave, three servants, and myself repaired to the Mole. One of the servants was sufficiently acquainted with the Spanish language to undertake the task of their interpreter. On the landing place, they saw some of the mules which had been provided for their conveyance; but upwards of an hour elapsed, before their guides thought themselves sufficiently equipped for the journey. M. de Cologant, apprised by the French consul of the object of their journey, invited him to stop at his house at the harbour of Orotava. This town is three myriameters and a half from Santa Cruz, and is one of the best places to halt at in going to the Peak, situated at the foot of the mountain nearest to it.

They were three hours in travelling to Lagouna, a town about a myriameter from Santa Cruz, ascending a very fatiguing hill. The houses are ill built, and thinly inhabited. The convents are very numerous, and the monks are supposed to constitute about half of the population. In their way to Lagouna, they crossed the arid mountain, where they saw a few succulent plants; among which they remarked the Canary leafless *euphorbia*, and the species of Indian fig to which botanists have given the name of *cactus opuntia*. These vegetables, which principally live at the expence of the atmosphere, thrive extremely well on the sterility of those deep declivities.

All the stones they had hitherto met with had undergone the action of fire: in the midst of these volcanic fragments, our adventurers experienced great heat; and their guides were more incommoded by it than themselves†.

As it does not produce a sufficient quantity of corn for the consumption of the inhabitants, part of the produce of the wines, which are sold in foreign countries for Madeira, is employed in the purchase of that article of the first necessity. The olive-tree, which thrives well here, is however little propagated. The papaw-tree, and the date-tree, are cultivated in some of the gardens, as objects of curiosity.

They set out early the next morning on their journey towards the Peak. But it was a festival, and none of the guides would stir without having first been at mass; some of them had heard three;

* This evening Citizen Ely, astonished at the strange garb of some women who were inhabitants of the town, took the liberty of taking a sketch of them. A sentry observing him thus employed, interrupted him, supposing he might be taking a plan of the road. In vain he shewed him that he was only copying an absurd dress; the soldier would not permit him to complete his delineation.

† The inhabitants of this island imbibe strong religious prejudices from their infancy. Children came out of their houses to know if our adventurers were of their religion. These unfortunate beings, whose fanaticism and monastic intolerance are so predominant over every other consideration, were only entitled to their pity. On approaching the harbour of Orotava, they descended by gentle declivities: it was no longer the barren mountains of the environs of Santa Cruz, whose succulent plants announce sterility; but charming hillocks, covered with vines forming the principal wealth of the island. It was five in the afternoon when they arrived at Orotava, where they were respectfully received by M. de Cologant. Two ships were then lying in the road, for the purpose of taking in a cargo of wine. The landing-place is even more inconvenient than that of Santa Cruz: and the roadstead is less frequented.

The cellar of M. de Cologant naturally excited their curiosity. Among the different qualities of wines which this island produces, and which this wealthy merchant deals in, there are two distinct sorts; the dry wine, and that which is denominated malmsey: in the making of the latter, great care is taken to concentrate strongly the saccharine part of the grape. A pipe of the best was then sold for one hundred and twenty piastres; a pipe of the most inferior quality, produced but half that sum. When the fermentation of these wines is well advanced, it is usual to mix brandy with them to make them keep. This island is said to furnish thirty thousand pipes of wine annually.

on their remonstrating about this waste of time, they were informed that they ought to deem it a very particular favour for them to think of travelling on so solemn a day. They were, however, ready to depart about nine in the morning.

Soon after they had quitted the town, they ascended by steep irregular roads, whence they perceived enormous heaps of mountains piled one upon another, rising in the form of an ampitheatre, as far as the base of the peak. The guides were surprised at seeing some of the party perform the journey on foot, as they were acting very differently from most of the travellers who came to visit the peak. For a long time they entreated the party to mount the mules, which had been brought for their accommodation. Having crossed some beautiful plantations of vines, they found themselves in the midst of chesnut-trees, which grow in the most elevated regions.

In the cavities they met with the Virginian polipodium, and several new species of laurel, among which was that known by the name of Indian laurel.

About noon they reached the clouds that diffused a heavy dew on the shrubs, through which they had to pass. The abundance of rain, with which the disposition of the air is impregnated on these heights, might be expected to produce a number of springs; they were, however, extremely scarce*. After passing through these heavy mists, they enjoyed the finest sight which imagination can pourtray. The clouds that had been accumulated beneath them, mingled themselves in the distance with the waters of the sea, concealing from them the view of the island. They beheld the clearest sky; the peak appearing like an island, the base of which appeared to be immerged in an immense ocean.

Hardly had he got out of the clouds, when our admiral saw for a moment a phenomenon which he had several times seen on the high mountains of Kefrouan, in Asia Minor. With additional surprise, he perceived all the colours of his body traced in the beautiful colours of the rainbow, on some clouds that were below him, on the side opposite to the sun.

They passed over prodigious heaps of pumice-stone, among which they remarked some languid vegetables. Brooms were the only shrubs that prospered at such an elevation. In walking over these volcanic fragments, they sunk into them half way up the leg. Some blocks of *puzzolana* were here spread at a considerable distance from each other. At nine in the evening, they took up their quarters for the night in the midst of the lava, some large fragments of which were their only shelter against a strong easterly wind then blowing pretty strong. The cold was very intense at this height, and nature, not consulting the wants of travellers, was very sparing of her wood: all the firing they could possibly enforce, was insufficient to procure a comfortable night.

At length the day began to appear, when our party left some of their guides in the place where they had passed the night, and pursued the road to the peak, the summit of which they were speedily to reach. They walked for an hour over heaps of fragments and greyish lava; among which they saw scattered blocks of *puzzolana*, and large masses of compact glass, resembling black blottle glass. The cavern, on the brinks of which they arrived, is called *La gueva del ama*. It is a meter and a half wide at its mouth: as its depth exceeds two meters, in an almost perpendicular direction, they could descend to it only by means of a rope. They found some water, the surface of which, as they naturally expected at this elevation, was covered with ice about half a decimeter in thickness. It was immediately broken, and they quenched their thirst with very good water. They did not experience any unpleasant sensations in the throat, as has been remarked in the French Alps, when water has been drank from the foot of the Glaciers.

Piron had been indisposed for several days, and found himself too much fatigued to think of proceeding farther. Deschamps did not choose to proceed beyond the cavern; the other members of the party continued to ascend towards the summit of the peak. Having arrived at its base, which forms the cap of the highest mountains, they saw it rise in the form of a cone to a surprizing elevation. Their prospect now soared above all the mountains, which constituted so many flights of steps, which they had been

obliged

* When high mountains are strongly heated by the rays of the sun, they become a kind of focus, above which rises the surrounding air; whence results the abundance of the more distant air. This is, perhaps, the solo cause of the apparent attraction of the clouds by mountains.

obliged to ascend to arrive at this elevated spot. This place, called *La Ramblette*, presented to their curiosity a few apertures in the rock; whence issued a watery vapour, without smell.

They now arrived at the place the most difficult to climb up, for the peak is extremely steep. Having reached about a third of its elevation, though the surface of the ground was not heated, beyond what is commonly experienced at such a height, Labillardiere was induced to dig a hole, about a double decimeter in depth, whence immediately issued, a watery and inodorous smell.

The *spartium supranullum* was the last shrub met with, before our botanist arrived at the foot of the cone; but there is an herbaceous plant, which, with great apparent delicacy, vegetates at a still greater elevation. This is a violet, with elongated leaves, and slightly toothed at the edges. The vapours of the atmosphere, being incapable of rising to this height, the sky displays itself in all its brightness, shining with an azure more brilliant than in the most refulgent days in our climates. A few clouds, scattered far below their feet, did not conceal the prospect of the neighbouring islands *.

The declivity of the mountain favouring their return, they descended much quicker than they had ascended. The day was far advanced when they arrived at the spot where they had passed the preceding night. The total privation of the sun, which they had almost experienced, had cancelled every wish of making it again their resting place. Their guides not choosing to stir before the rise of the moon, by her feeble light descended over the pumice-stones; but, after walking about for four hours, the shrubs, which were very numerous, so incommoded them, that they found it necessary to halt till day-light. They were not destitute of wood, and therefore caused a comfortable fire to be kindled. While they were warming themselves, the conversation naturally turned upon what was next to be done. Many of the party, fatigued by this laborious exertion, expressed a desire to proceed to Santa Cruz by the shortest road; but, after stating a diversity of opinions, it was at length agreed that the naturalist and the gardener should persevere in their researches, and all the others might return on board. Their guides wished earnestly to be taken among the latter; which was admitted, after one of them had been prevailed on to accompany the exploring party. Among the plants which bedecked the declivity of the rocks, the beautiful campanula, with gold-coloured flowers presented itself.

Water being very scarce on these heights, the adventurers directed their steps towards a small dwelling, near which they supposed some rivulet might flow. There they fortunately discovered a delicious limpid spring, which lost itself in the bosom of the earth, after having appeared an instant on its surface. Apple-trees, laden with fruit, adorned and enriched the gardens of these peaceable inhabitants. At the approach of night, they were far from any habitation: near the hour of nine in the evening, they arrived at a village, the inhabitants of which were not signalized by their hospitality; it was with much difficulty that they could obtain the indulgence of shelter. As they were unacquainted with the Spanish language, they could only express their wants by signs. Passing from door to door, hoping to procure a place to sleep in, they began to be hopeless of success, when, knocking at a friendly door, the two worthy occupiers kindly afforded them an asylum †.

The next day Labillardiere, the naturalist, went on board, fraught with volcanic productions, and some curious plants. The birds called Canaries are numerous in the lower regions of these mountains; their plumage is a

* The summit is terminated by a brow, the greatest elevation of which is towards the north-west. Close to its point are seen several apertures, whence issues a very hot vapour. In the advanced season of the year, when the snow whitens the summit of the peak, that which comes near these apertures cannot long withstand such a degree of heat. Beautiful crystals of sulphur, of various forms, adorn the brinks of these funnels. The decomposition of the sulphur, and of the volcanic productions, produces here an alluminous salt, like very fine needles, which covers the surface of the earth.

† A frugal repast was instantly set before them, illuminated with Alpine torches, manufactured of resinous fur stuck in the wall, affording an equal quantity of light and smoke, the worthy hosts were assiduously employed, in furnishing successive bits of wood, as fast as they were consumed. Preferring rest to food, sleep was received with welcome, and was rendered the more delightful by their being no longer disturbed by the severity of the frigid mountains.

mixture

mixture of brown, and several other colours, but they are less beautiful than those in a domestic state *.

Citizen Riche and Blavier undertook a journey to the peak, but they found themselves incapable of ascending to the summit; at a considerable distance from it, they found their lungs could not endure so rarefied an atmosphere; a spitting of blood compelled them to renounce their enterprize.

The country, in the environs of Santa Cruz, is in general very steril, and the population of the town is thin, though its roadstead is the most frequented of the island. The governor-general of the Canaries makes Santa Cruz his usual residence. There are several convents for men and women; also a parish church, with a profusion of false taste in the gilding, and ornamented with a very indifferent choice of pictures.

The square contains a handsome fountain, to which water was conveyed from a considerable distance across the mountains, by wooden pipes. The streets are ill paved, and most of the windows are destitute of glass: though the latter are closed with Venetian blinds, the women frequently draw them up, when urged by curiosity, or some other motive, to let themselves be seen.

The women of the superior class are dressed in the French taste; the others cover their shoulders with a sort of coarse woollen cloak, which seems a very improper cloathing under a warm sky: a broad-brimmed felt hat shelters them from the rays of the sun; their skin is sullied by a mixture with the natives of the island; and their features in general, are not very alluring. The multiplicity of religious customs among them, did not hinder them from making overtures to many of the sailors; several of whom had too much reason to remember the seducive influence of their charms.

Water, which is very good at Santa Cruz, is easily procured when the swell is not too heavy. This is indeed an excellent refreshing-place, as all the vegetables of Europe are easily obtained here, with the exception of cabbages, which are very small, though very dear. All the fruits of Europe may also be purchased here.

No volcanic eruption had happened on the island of Teneriffe for ninety-two years, till such an event occurred in June, 1798, a new volcano breaking out on the south-west side of the peak. The following account is given of it by Citizen Le Gros, Consul of the French Republic.—"On the 21st Prairal, 6th year, (June 9th, 1798,) the inhabitants of Santa Cruz heard some hollow and repeated noises, which resembled the report of cannon fired at a great distance; in the night there was a slight earthquake; and it was known the next day that a volcano had broken out on the south-west side of the peak. At the beginning of the eruption they reckoned fifteen craters; these were soon reduced to twelve, and at the end of a month there was to be seen only two, whence continually issued large rocks, which vomitted forth with the lava, and followed their projectile motion, frequently for fifteen seconds, before they again fell to the ground.

* A fresh breeze having increased the sea, it threw upon the beach the boat belonging to the Esperance, by which accident a sailor received so much injury, that he apparently seemed dead; but, by employing the means usually recurred to on those occasions, he was restored to life. The people of the garrison, however, were so earnest in reanimating the poor fellow, that they forgot to return the clothes which they had taken from him, under the pretence of hanging them up to dry.

SECTION

SECTION II.

Leave Teneriffe to proceed to the Cape of Good Hope—Observations—Shining Phenomenon in the Sea—An Experiment—Four of the Teneriffe Sheep thrown overboard, and the Cause—Faint Degree of Heat close to the Line—Method of sweetening fresh Water, when beginning to putrify—A thick Fog occasions an Elevation of the Mercury in the Barometer—A lunar Rainbow—Arrival at the Cape of Good Hope—Continue at the Cape of Good Hope—Depositions of the Two French Captains, that some Natives of the Admiralty Islands appeared dressed in the Uniform of the French Navy—Captain Bligh sent from England to procure the Bread-fruit Tree at the Society Islands—Violence of the South-east Winds—A Slave Ship—Various Excursions to the Mountains in the Vicinity of the Town—Impudence of the Fiscal,

BEING retarded in shipping their supplies, the adventurers were not ready to sail till the 23d of October. They crossed the tropic of Cancer about one o'clock in the afternoon, in the longitude of 20° west. The first fish that came and bit at the hook of one of the fishermen, was a very fine dolphin. Nothing more was necessary to set the whole ship's company in motion; but the fisherman, hauling with too much impetuosity, had the mortification to find only a part of the jaw on the end of his hook. A common swallow, lately arrived from Europe, followed them for some time, without venturing to alight on their ship: it soon directed its course towards the coast of Africa, where it was certain of finding the insects on which its subsists.

Little wind being then experienced, considerable numbers were seen, on the surface of the water, of the medusa, known to naturalists by the name of *medusa caravella*. This species should be handled with caution; for, like many other sea-nettles, it occasions blisters, preceded by a painful pricking *.

They had the mortification to find, that the vegetables and fruits purchased at Teneriffe, did not keep; the heats and humidity, experienced in this region of calms, rapidly promoted their decomposition.

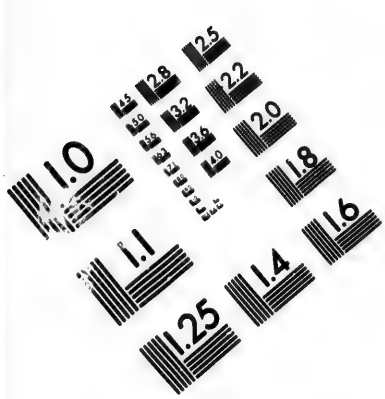
A small shark not exceeding a meter in length, became a victim to its voracity. Nothing is refused by this animal when pressed with hunger. When it was hauled upon deck, it was presently cut up into pieces, and every man was entitled to his bit. The shark, however, is not good eating; and, without adverting to the repugnance which its fondness for human flesh naturally inspires, it is difficult of digestion; but as there is not much choice of food at sea, fresh provisions of almost any sort is preferred to that which has been salted. The mouth of the shark being situated beneath an elongated rostrum, subjects it to the necessity of turning almost on its back, to snap at the object which it perceives above it: its whitish belly, which is then apparent, even at a great depth, on account of the transparency of the sea-water, informs the fisherman when he ought to draw in the line, in order to make sure of this rapacious

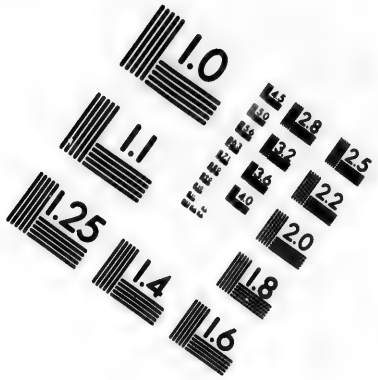
* A fish, known by the name of remora, or suck-fish, usually follow the shark, to which it attaches itself, from finding the means of subsistence in the excrements of that voracious animal. It is not, however, wholly occupied in his attendance on the shark; for it follows other large fishes, and even ships; to the bottom of which he adheres securely, when tired of swimming.

In the course of the night, they fell in with an assemblage of dolphins, which followed their vessel: as they made a more rapid progress than our adventurers, they several times took a circuit round the ship, swimming with great velocity. It was easy to pursue them with the eye, though the night was extremely dark, for they left behind them a luminous trace. This phosphoric light, produced by the agitated sea-water, became more brilliant as the darkness increased, and as the fish advanced with increased velocity.

On the 30th they were in the seas inhabited by the ravenous fishes; as the bonito, the tunny, and others of the same genus, which there find an abundant subsistence in pursuing the flying fish, and many others. The bonitoes suffered themselves to be taken with a bait thrown out by the fishermen, consisting only of a few feathers, but so ingeniously disposed, that they exhibited to the eyes of this animal the appearance of a flying fish, and at the same time concealing the hook.

A vast quantity of bonitoes continued to follow them day and night; which excited great astonishment among the crews, at their being so long able to follow them without a resting-place. On-board the Esperance, the fishermen were very successful; but the fish seemed to disregard the lines thrown out by the Recherche. The *motteux* of Buffon *(motacilli œnanthe)* a well-known bird of passage, fatigued with having crossed the seas, came and submitted itself to be caught, without resistance.





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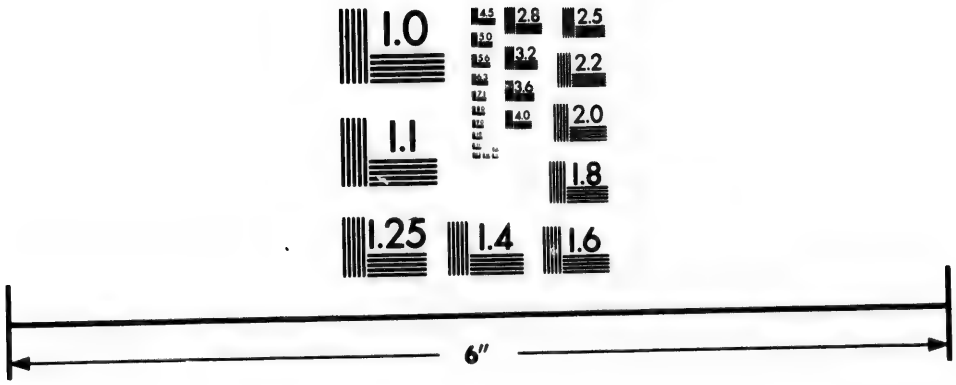

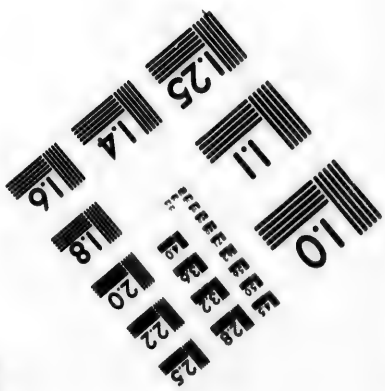

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animal. Nature has taken especial care that this creature should not let its prey escape; for, besides several rows of teeth, curiously arranged, and fit for cutting the hardest substances, the inside of its mouth is furnished with asperities, that counteract the retreat of the bodies which it has previously seized.

On the 12th they were surrounded by grampuses, which were followed, in their slow progress, by sharks. One of the latter, preceded by some fishes known by the name of pilot-fish, came near the vessel and was caught: several remoras, or suck-fish, supposing themselves in safety by being fastened to the body of this animal, continued sticking to it for some time after it had been hauled in*.

The heat had been oppressive during the day. They were abreast of the opening of the immense gulf, which forms the bight of the countries of Upper Guinea, the coast of which extends about three hundred myriameters to the eastward. The sea is more phosphoric in the vicinity of the coasts lying under the tropic than in any other part, nature having there distributed more profusely the animalcules on which its phosphorescence depends.

A faint breeze from the south-east, induced them to hope that they were getting out of those calms, which are here more prevalent than in any other part of the sea: in going to India the contrarieties of winds and calms are the greatest; they appear to depend on the vicinity of the coast, which navigators approach much nearer in going to the Cape of Good Hope, than in the route from the Cape to Europe; consequently the passages from the Cape to Europe, are generally much shorter than those from Europe to the Cape†.

The calms met with to the northward of the equator are owing to the configuration of the coast of Africa, which to the north, a few degrees from the line, projects, about three hundred myriameters towards the west; while the great distance at which the ship is from this land when to the southward of the equator, prevents the general winds of these seas from undergoing thence any change‡.

Winds from the south-south-east, which began to blow on the 21st of November, at length carried them out of the calms, which at this season of the year so generally prevail some degrees more to the south, before the ships get into the general winds.

The man-of-war bird became an object of attention: two of the winged animals, known by that appellation, were perceived hovering at a prodigious height, watching attentively for their prey, and waiting till it appeared on the surface of the water. It is astonishing that they can perceive, from such a distance, the diminutive fishes on which they most commonly feed; but so penetrating a sight depends more upon the disposition of the humours of the eye, than on the great sensibility of the retina. Though nature has given to flying fishes, the faculty of living in the water, and coming out of it at pleasure, they have many difficulties to encounter: if they escape the voracity of the bonitoes, tunnies, and dolphins, by rising out of the water, the man-of-war bird waits for them in the air:

* It being now extremely hot, and the water perfectly smooth, the desire of bathing got the better of every other consideration; Piron and Saint Aguan jumped overboard a few hours after, not being intimidated by the sharks which were known to be attendant on the vessels.

Almost the whole of the day it continued calm; but about eight o'clock in the evening, the sky was loaded with thick clouds in the east, menacing a very violent storm. The night was extremely dark, when a luminous column of great extent issued from beneath the clouds; and, in its descent, alighted on the surface of the water: the sparkling sea continued to be shaded with many dark intervals, when suddenly it appeared like a sheet of fire, extending towards our adventurers: compelled by a strong wind it furrowed the waves; they saw themselves surrounded by a sea of fire, and enjoyed the sight of the most brilliant phenomena of nature. It did not continue long in this state; but, during the rest of the night, the sea was uncommonly luminous in all the places where it was agitated, particularly in the wake of the ship, and towards the upper part of the waves.

† It has been observed, by many skilful seamen, that, in going to the Cape of Good Hope, there is an advantage in crossing the equator farther to the westward than is usually done.

‡ The naturalists had preserved a few bottles of water, taken up the evening before during its phosphorescence, to inspect the little luminous bodies which are the cause of this phenomenon. This water, poured in a glass, was set in motion in the dark. He instantly saw some luminous globules, resembling those which he had remarked when the sea was agitated. From a variety of experiments, he was convinced that the animalcules was the most ordinary cause of the phosphorescence of sea-water: but they alone have not the property of rendering the sea luminous; several species of crabs, some very large molecules, &c. often quit the bottom of the waters to come and illuminate their surface.

during

during a conflict of this kind, some of the contending parties leaped into the ship *.

On the 17th of December they passed the tropic of Capricorn, in the longitude of 28° west. On board the Esperance, upwards of a hundred bonitoes were taken daily; whilst all the most expert fishermen in the Recherche, never caught more than ten in a day, and generally a much smaller number.

On the 3d of January 1792, our adventurers enjoyed the sight of a rainbow, produced by the rays of the moon: this planet was, about ten at night, surrounded by two concentric circles; they exhibited all the colours of the rainbow, in an order opposed to each other. As this phenomenon, produced by the decomposition of the light of the moon, appeared between her and them, the colours of the iris must consequently present themselves in the reverse order of those which the sun display.

On the 9th of January, the crews of both the ships began the exercise of firing with ball. A prize of small value was the stipulated reward of those who hit the mark, which was fixed at the end of one of the fore-top mast studding sail booms: it was not a matter of indifference, on such an expedition, in which they might sometimes find it necessary to defend themselves against the savages, that each should learn how to use the arms that were on board.

The captain of the Esperance, having made fast to a buoy half a very fine tunny, which he intended for the admiral, the line was too far for them to reach it: a sailor, however, jumped overboard to swim after it, though a shark had been caught that very morning, on board the Esperance; and the little wind which then blew must have increased the apprehension of meeting with another.

The well-known sea-nettle, named *medusa velella*, took advantage of the calms to appear and float, in great numbers, on the surface of the sea. This species differed, in no respect, from what our botanist had frequently met with in the Mediterranean.

The albatrosses of the Cape of Good Hope, which appeared in large numbers, announced to our adventurers the vicinity of the southern extremity of Africa. They saw land on the 16th of January, about eight in the morning; being then at the distance of four myriameters from Table Bay. The proximity of the land had also been signified to them, by a change in the colour of the waters of the sea, occasioned by the elevated bottom on which they repose †.

Our adventurers had not a sick man on board, though the length of their passage had reduced them to a very slender allowance of water; but they had exerted themselves to compensate for this privation by a liberal use of various kinds of antiscorbutics; a sort of punch, equally wholesome and pleasant, composed of brandy, vinegar, sugar, and water, had been daily served out to the ships' companies towards the conclusion of the passage. The ship had also been regularly fumigated twice a-day; and strict injunctions were given to the sailors to change their clothes, whenever they got wet. It was satisfactory, at length, to discover, that such salutary precautions had not been employed in vain.

Two officers of health came from Cape Town to visit the ships, to satisfy themselves that no contagious disorders attended them: it is the small-pox that they principally dread; for that malady, which is not endemical in this country, makes dreadful ravages here, and throughout all India, when introduced from abroad.

A captain of a merchant ship who arrived from Bourdeaux a few days before them, came also to inform them, that the Commander of the naval forces in the Isle of France, after having received information respecting the fate of La Perouse, had dispatched a frigate to the Cape, to bring the particulars of it to the commander of the expedition, sent in search of that un-

* The south-east and south winds blow with so much obstinacy, that our adventurers were unable to cross the equator till the 28th. Seamen are accustomed to christening in their mode, the persons who cross the line for the first time, by a singular ceremony of ducking: but the Admiral, fearing that every one would not equally relish the farcical operation, prohibited the usual ceremony.

† Some seals, of the species which Buffon has denominated *petit phoque*, approached their ship, to seek their subsistence in the great heaps of sea-weed which were seen floating on the surface of the sea: these animals frequently fled, after having raised themselves by sudden springs above the water; then, drawing their two hind feet together, in the form of fins, they were supported in the water; the surface of which was to them what a vast plain is to an active quadruped. About seven in the evening they were a myriameter and a half from the mountain of Hout Bay.

fortunate

fortunate navigator. The frigate had sailed a few days before to proceed to the Isle of France.

Admiral D'Entrecasteaux instantly sent an officer to the Governor of the Cape, in order to settle the salute. This officer received from the French *Charge d'Affaires*, the dispatches which Citizen Saint Felix, commander of the French naval forces in the Indian seas, had sent to Admiral D'Entrecasteaux by the Atlantic frigate, Captain Bolle, who had almost instantly sailed again to return to the Isle of France.

The following is the letter addressed to the Admiral, with the depositions of the two Captains of the merchant vessels, who were at Batavia while Commodore Hunter continued there, on his return from Botany Bay in a Dutch ship, after having been cast away on Norfolk Island *.

As

* *Substance of a Letter from Saint Felix, Commander on the India Station, to Admiral D'Entrecasteux.*

Private letters inform me, that you do not mean to touch at the Isle of France, till you return from the important expedition you are on the point of undertaking. Deprived of the hope of seeing you, I hasten to transmit to you at the Cape of Good Hope, two accounts relative to the object of your mission, delivered to me by the captains of two French ships that arrived from Batavia. You will there see by what accident a Dutch ship, having on board Commodore Hunter, commander of the English frigate Syrius, as well as his crew, had seen, near the Admiralty Islands in the South Seas, men covered with European clothes, and particularly some clothes which he supposed to be French uniforms. You will also perceive that the Commodore had no doubt of their being the remains of the wreck of M. de la Perouse, whom he had seen at Botany Bay.

Thinking the knowledge of these reports would be interesting to you, and judging them sufficiently important to be communicated to you, I now send a frigate to the Cape solely for that purpose. Captain Bolle, who commands her, will, if he does not find you there, leave any dispatch with the French *Charge d'Affaires*, that it may be delivered to you on your arrival. Though no official accounts of your expedition authorize me to send a frigate on this service, I am certain his Majesty will approve of the step which I have taken in this respect. It was reserved for you to acquire claims to the gratitude of the whole nation, by accepting the command of an expedition, which does equal honour to the sovereign who orders it, and the officer by whom it is executed. Whatever route you may take, you will be followed by my wishes for your success, and by the inviolable and perfect attachment, with which I am, &c.

Isle of France, Nov. 9, 1791. SAINT FELIX.

Account given to the Chief de Division Saint Felix, Commander on the Indian Station, by Captain Preaudet, commanding the Ship Jason, arrived from Batavia.

The English frigate Syrius, commanded by Commodore Hunter, bound for New Holland, was lost in Norfolk Island, in the South Sea, towards the end of 1790. The crew were taken up by the sloop of war which was following in her mission, and has returned to Botany Bay, where Commodore Phillip freighted a small Dutch vessel to convey to England the shipwrecked crew, with their commander, commodore Hunter.

Having left Botany Bay in this vessel, and wishing to touch at Batavia, Commodore Hunter was thwarted by the winds and currents, and carried to the eastward as far as

thr 167th° of longitude from the meridian of Greenwich. Wishing to pass through St. George's Strait, he got sight of the Admiralty Islands, situated in the 147th° of longitude from the meridian of Greenwich, and in 3° 25′ south latitude. Near that lying most to the eastward, he saw several boats filled with men covered with European stuffs, and pieces of cloth; he could even distinguish the uniform of the French navy. These people made signals with white flags for the ship to approach. For this Commodore Hunter had the strongest desire; but it was impossible to effect it, on account of the contrariety of the currents and winds, and the danger of numerous shoals.

Commodore Hunter had seen La Perouse at Botany Bay, and was particularly intimate with him. He had learnt from him that it was his intention, on leaving Botany Bay, to pass through St. George's Strait, in order to get to the northward. He had no doubt that it was on these islands that the Astrolabe and Boussole were lost, in consequence of the calms and violent currents which prevail in that quarter. He told me that he himself was carried to the eastward six hundred miles in ten days by the strength of them, as was proved by repeated observations of the longitude, by time-keepers, and the sight of land. In a word, Commodore Hunter, who was at Batavia, and whom I saw in the voyage I have recently made, appears to me to be fully persuaded, that the European clothes, which he observed in the boats that came from the Admiralty Islands, are the remains of the shipwreck of the vessels under the command of La Perouse.

Commodore Hunter is now on his passage to return to England, whence France will probably receive from him more circumstantial details on this subject.

After what the English commander has experienced on approaching the Admiralty Islands, he thinks, that a vessel wished to go thither, ought to take the precaution to get into their latitude in good time, in order to prevent her from being carried away by the currents, which set to the eastward with wonderful rapidity. Done at the Isle of France, 6th of November, 1791.

Signed PREAUDET.
Captain of the Ship Jason.

Account from Piere Magon Lepinay, Captain of the Ship Marie Helene, arrived from Batavia, to the Chef de Division Saint Felix, Commander on the Indian Station.

The commander and officers of the English frigate Syrius, after that ship was wrecked on Norfolk Island, were conveyed to Botany Bay, whence they sailed in a small Dutch vessel, which brought them to Batavia at the end of September in that year, after a passage of six months.

On

As Commodore Hunter, returning from Batavia, with his officers, to proceed to England, was at the Cape when our adventurers arrived there, they naturally expected to receive all possible information respecting what had been seen at the Admiralty Islands. They were not, however, a little surprised to hear that the commodore set sail for Table Bay, two hours after they had dropped anchor. He probably knew the object of their mission, for they were expected at the Cape, and the admiral's flag might inform him that these ships were dispatched in search of La Perouse. It appeared extremely extraordinary that he was not anxious to communicate to them that information which the Captains Préaudet and Magon Lépinay had collected from him and his officers at Batavia. Nothing really indicated that the details left at the Cape by Captain Bolle, came from Commodore Hunter himself.

Captain Bligh, commander of the Providence, an English sloop of war, sent to procure the bread-fruit tree from the Society Islands, anchored at Table Bay a short time after the departure of the Atlante. This gentleman had received no information from Hunter relative to the depositions of the two French Captains, but he assured Colonel Gordon that he should make enquiries in these seas, where it was asserted that La Perouse had been lost, and endeavour to save some remains of his unfortunate expedition.

This was the second time of Captain Bligh's visiting the Society Islands, in quest of the bread-fruit tree; for during the first voyage to procure this valuable tree for the English colonies in the West-Indies, he had been turned out of his ship, in consequence of a mutiny breaking out on board, a narrative of which he published on his return to England.

Our adventurers were informed that the Pandora, commanded by Captain Edwards, had since been at the Society Islands, and took into custody fourteen of the mutineers. She lost four of them on running aground on the reefs of Norfolk Island. Christian*, the master of Captain Bligh's ship, and the ring-leader of the mutineers, had, accompanied with nine sailors, taken refuge in another island, having been joined by several of the natives. An officer of the Pandora declared, at the Cape, that Bligh had behaved very improperly to Christian, and that an abuse of his authority drew on him his misfortunes. If this is a true representation, Bligh could not be sincere in asserting that he had always behaved to him with the greatest kindness.

At sun-rise our adventurers saluted the citadel with thirteen guns; this salute was instantly returned with an equal number.

The commodore of the expedition went on shore at nine o'clock; on which occasion a salute with thirteen guns was given and received. The governor had sent a band of musicians, to wait for Admiral D' Entrecasteaux, at the landing-place, whence, accompanied by martial sounds, he repaired to the government mansion, attended by some officers. He was received by the council, in full assembly, who expeditiously returned the visit at the house of the French *Charge d'Affaires*, where he had alighted.

Table mountain was now enveloped in thick clouds, which covered its summit; and though they appeared stationary on the summit of that mountain, even when the wind blew with

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One or two days after having weathered St. George's Channel, early in the morning they got sight of both the Admiralty Islands, to which they were very near; they had also sounded without finding bottom.

They saw come out from the islands two large canoes, containing about a dozen men, who would not come on board the vessel, though they approached pretty near her. It was then very moderate weather. The vessel had against her rather a strong current, which drove her off the island; besides, the Dutch captain was not very fond of going near the land. It was remarked, that two of the men who were in the canoes had sashes, similar to those worn by officers in Europe; they made signs as if they wished to be shaved; several of them had on their clothes pieces of red and blue cloth, which proved that they had some communication with Europeans. As Captain Hunter, commander of the Syrius, had, before his departure from Botany Bay, learned from La Perouse himself, that his plan was to pass through St. George's channel, the officers of that frigate are all persuaded, that he had unexpectedly fallen in with these islands, and been there lost.

I, the underwritten, do certify, that this account is conformable to what I have gathered from different conversations with the officers of the Syrius frigate, who, after that frigate was wrecked, arrived at Batavia, in a small Dutch vessel that was there in the month of October.

(Signed) MACON LEPINAY.

Isle of France, October 31st, 1791.

* This is clearly a mistake; Christian was only master's mate.

violence, they were incessantly shifting: the impulse, however, which they received on quitting that height, rendered them so dissoluble that they dispersed in the air. Soon after, the south-east wind began to come down from the heights of this mountain towards Cape Town with such impetuosity, that it was almost impossible to walk against the blast; for it drove before it, to the height of a man, small stones upwards of a centimeter in thickness, with such extreme violence, that the people were obliged to repair for shelter to their houses.

The Biscayan* of the Esperance, which the force of the wind had broke adrift during the night, from the stern of the ship, was lost; to replace which, a whale-boat was purchased from an American vessel. Though the south-east wind continued to blow with impetuosity, our commander went into the environs of the town. The pretty shrub, known to naturalists by the name of *brunia paleacea*, adorned the first hills by which the ascent commences. It will readily be believed, that with such a wind, as they had experienced, the insects had entirely disappeared.

Labillardiere visited the Company's garden, which had been spoken of with rapture by many travellers: it is, however, nothing more than a vast enclosure, where some avenues of tolerably fine oaks are to be seen. Some of the beds are encompassed with myrtles, in the midst of which are cultivated different sorts of vegetables, and a few exotic flowers. There have been some European fruit-trees planted here. A plantain-tree was also introduced here; but its leaves were unable to resist the violence of the wind, which had cut them into shreds†.

A slave-ship had lately arrived here from Mozambique, from which its cargo, consisting of four hundred negroes, were landed. It was a melancholy sight to behold most of these miserable creatures greatly afflicted with the scurvy, after a very short passage, crowded together in three small apartments, whence they were to be conveyed on board, to go and support, by the sweat of their brow, the luxury of some rich West-Indian.

On the 22d, our naturalist visited Lion Mountain. This eminence, which acquired its name from the figure which it exhibits at the distance of a few myriameters at sea, affords a soil little favourable to vegetation. On the following day he visited the Devil's Mountain. The impetuous south-east winds, the force of which is greater at the declivity of this mountain than any where else, has justly entitled it to that appellation. The delightful valley, which separates it from Lion Mountain, is decorated with the beautiful species of *protea*, with silvery leaves: these leaves are covered with a down, which are the thicker as they are exposed to the action of the air. The same observation applies to most of the plants buffeted by the winds; whence it seems apparent that this down secures them from the injury they might thence receive.

The sterility of Lion Mountain had no appearance here; vegetable productions presented themselves in great abundance. The tulip of the Cape embellished the gradual slopes, and a great variety of species of *cricæ* issued from the rocks. Being required to pass much of his time, in the preservation of the plants he had collected the day before, he could not undertake a long excursion on the 24th; he therefore amused himself in strolling about the environs of the town. The bastard aloe, known under the denomination of *agave vivipara*, was still in flower. He admired the lightness with which the titmouse called the saccharine juice exuding from the glands at the bottom of the corollas. It was not without regret that he killed some of these charming birds that he might preserve their skins.

He employed the 25th in visiting Table Mountain, so named from the horizontal plane, which its summit presents when beheld at a distance. Having reached the middle of the mountain, he found the *thesium strictum*. He clambered up acclivities formed of a very hard free-stone, above which were blocks of quartz of a beautiful white‡.

Having reached the top of Table Mountain, they

* A *Biscayan* is a long narrow boat, sharp at each end, calculated for going through a swell. It acquired this appellation from the province of Biscay, on the coast of which it is much used, and is there usually called *barca longa*.

† The managerie, at the end of the garden, contains a small number of scarce animals: the ostrich, the zebra, the porcupine, and a few birds.

‡ Fire-wood is very scarce at the Cape of Good Hope. The mildness of the climate, indeed, requires no artificial heat to protect the inhabitants against the inclemency of the weather; but fire is necessary for dressing their aliments. Slaves are dispatched to procure what little wood they have occasion for at a considerable distance beyond Table Mountain. Our adventurers met several negroes, carrying branches

they began to make an attack upon their provisions, when some of the people belonging to the Esperance, advanced towards them, who had made an excursion thither without furnishing themselves with food; with them they had the pleasure of sharing in a frugal repast. False Bay was very perceptible from the top of this mountain, every part of which our naturalist successively visited. He returned with an abundant collection of vegetables, by the track in which he had ascended.

Beyond the head of the bay a vast plain of sand presents itself, on which he was astonished to behold a great quantity of vegetables. He crossed several rivulets, the waters of which descended from the neighbouring mountains, and are partly lost in the sands before they arrive at the sea. In such moist spots grows the beautiful lilaceous plant known by the name of *gethyllis spiralis*. Holes made in the sand are resorted to by snakes, which are often found asleep on their edges, but glide into them on the approach of human visitors.

He had hitherto found only a small number of insects, as they delight not in places so much exposed to the wind.

He had already collected most of the vegetable productions to be found at this season, in the neighbourhood of the Cape. He could not promise himself a more abundant harvest, without going to a distance. Some mountains mentioned by the Dutch under the name of Frenche Hoec, situated to the eastward, at a greater distance than its appearance seemed to indicate. Expecting to find there a great variety of specimens, he was resolved to visit them. He set out on the 9th of February, taking with him the gardener belonging to the expedition: a Hottentot led a horse, that carried their baggage; and a young negroe, who hardly a knew a word of French, was chosen interpreter.

A passport, with which they were obliged to be provided, was obligingly sent to Labilladiere by Mr. Berg; and Colonel Gordon, the commander of the troops at the Cape, had given him letters of introduction to several of the inhabitants. Colonel Gordon is the celebrated traveller who first furnished Buffon with just ideas respecting the giraffe, or camelopard, an animal little known till then. To make discoveries in natural history, this gentleman penetrated into the interior of Africa, as far as the 21st degree of south latitude.

They met several waggons, drawn by three or four oxen: they were returning empty, each conducted by a Hottentot, who, standing in the middle of the carriage, with a long whip in his hand, directed his cattle with infinite skill. The Hottentot amused himself occasionally with smoking his pipe, and cramming himself with Hottentot's figs, *mesembryanthemum edule*, which grow on the road-side, in the midst of sands, without paying any attention to the load of their horse, which he had made follow him. Their baggage fell off several times, and would certainly have remained on the road had not the smoker been vigilantly watched. It was sometimes found necessary to terrify him by threats, to rouse him from his apathy, and render him more attentive.

Having arrived at places somewhat more elevated, they saw a few antelopes, but they were at too great a distance to be fired at.

About two hours after dark they arrived at Bottelary, the house of M. Bosman. The letter of recommendation to him, from Mr. Gordon to his worthy cultivator, procured them a very friendly reception. On the 10th, when the day began to dawn, they rambled over the environs of this delightful habitation. When the sun appeared in the horizon, M. Bosman's young daughters, seeing them employed in picking up insects, wished to contribute towards enriching their collection. They ran about the garden with great spirit and agility, and frequently brought them a very good choice among the species, the colours of which were the most brilliant.

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branches of various shrubs to town, among which they remarked the *cumonia capensis*, and many fine species of *protea*: after admiring the beauty of these plants, they had the mortification to be informed that they had been cut only to burn.

The mountains in the neighbourhood of the town, serve as an asylum for the run-away slaves, who have been impelled to desert from barbarous treatment. Under cover of the night, the pressure of hunger obliges them to approach the habitations, to procure by stealth, and at the risk of life, some casual relief. It would be dangerous to go alone, and unarmed, near the caverns in which these wretchess driven by despair, conceal themselves from the light of day, in order to escape slavery. Some salutary drops of water, which in these heights ooze between the strata of a micacious schistus, afford the traveller the means of moderating his thirst.

Being

Being shortly to sail from the Cape, they had little time left to visit the mountains of Franche-Hoec; they were therefore under the necessity of quitting their amiable entertainers. Arriving at Stellenbosch, they stopped at the house of M. Hoffman. The manner in which they were received at Stellenbosch, was very different from that which they experienced at Bottelary: they were in a very pleasant village, but they saw none of that frank urbanity which so much characterises the cultivators of the Cape. After a deliberate perusal of their passport, M. Hoffman coolly asked them to stop at his house. There are no inns at Stellenbosch, any more than at Cape town; but the Dutch supply the wants of travellers, for a price which prevents the host from being out of pocket. At M. Hoffman's house, our adventurers were nearly on the same footing*.

After it was dark they got to Franche-Hoec, and were civilly received at the house of M. Gabriel Deprat, to whom our naturalist had a letter of introduction. He being absent, one of his neighbours, named Jacob de Villiers, invited them to take up their quarters at his house.

From the names of these colonists, they expected to find persons capable of conversing with them in their own language; but, though of French extraction, as they were obliged to speak Dutch, they retained no more of their mother tongue, than the names of their progenitors. The only person, who then understood French, was a woman of fourscore†.

These mountains, in a great degree, consist of granite, and a very hard free-stone: the vegetable mould, which covers them, goes to fertilize the vallies, where the inhabitants reside; thence they must traverse the sands, with which they are environed, in order to convey to the town the produce of their culture: this situation is common to all the settlements at a distance from the Cape. Negro slaves, though employed in the hardest labours, are, in general, kindly treated. It is remarkable that the Spaniards always endeavour to make proselytes of them; but the Dutch permit the slaves to remain in the most perfect ignorance of their religion.

Our adventurers saw, several times, snakes upon the trees, at which the country people seemed greatly terrified: they were watching the birds, which often became their prey.

The zebra is common in these heights, but runs off with great rapidity at the sight of a man. The monkey, called *magot* by Buffon, sometimes approached the habitation where our adventurers now sojourned. These animals seem very severe in the punishment of their young: a large monkey was seen followed by a very young one; the former, supposing himself unseen, seized the little one with one of his fore paws, and, holding it up from the ground, struck it several times with his other paw. If monkies are just in proportioning guilt to punishment, the little ape's crime must have been very atrocious, for it was unmercifully chastised.

The near approach of the period of their departure from the Cape, obliged them to hasten from Franche-Hoec. They took leave of the worthy Jacob de Villiers on the 14th, at ten at night, and set out on their return. All the houses in Cape Town are built with flat roofs, which gives them a tolerably handsome appearance.

The ‡ Cape of Good Hope is a part of the globe

* They set out on the 12th, with an intention of reaching Franche-Hoec in the evening. This place, the name of which indicates the abode of some Frenchman, is an asylum to a few protestant families, who, having been persecuted in Europe for their religious opinions, crossed the seas in 1675, to fix their abode in this part of Africa, where they were well received by Simon Vander Stel, the governor, who enabled them to establish in Agriculture.

† This is a pleasant valley, where the rays of the sun, being concentrated by the surrounding mountains quickly ripen the grape, which forms the principal wealth of the inhabitants. Wheat is also cultivated here.

‡ This territory, upon the recent English conquest, was found to be of more considerable extent than was supposed, being 550 English miles in length, and 233 in breadth, comprehending an area of 121,150 square miles. The white inhabitants, exclusive of Cape Town, do not exceed 15,000; and the whole may be about 20,000. *Barrow's Travels*, 1801, *4to*. *Pinkerton's Mod. Geog.* ii. 753.

For a more minute account of this interesting colony, the only European settlement in Africa that deserves that name, the reader is referred to Barrow's Travels, a most excellent performance, which forms a striking contrast with the gasconades of *Le Vaillant*. Mr. Barrow's account terminates with part of the country of the little Nemakas, included in the colony: beyond which are the Copper Mountains and Sandy Deserts; and he ridiculed Vaillant's supposed excursions in this quarter, while he never passed the orange river. The preposterous vanity of Vaillant greatly injures the credibility of his narrative, and his map of the colonial possessions cannot be compared with the actual survey by *Mr. Barrow*.

globe which ought to be attended to by a commercial people. From its situation it forms a necessary refreshing place for ships bound to the East Indies. The provision which it furnishes are abundant; but the prohibitory regulations daily diminish the number of ships; many endeavour to arrive at their place of destination, without touching at this road-stead. Others go to St. Helena, where they can be victualled on more moderate terms.

SECTION III.

Departure from the Cape of Good Hope—Death of the Carpenter of the Recherche—Make the Island of St. Paul—Its Forests on Fire—Vast Quantity of Insects issuing from the Biscuits—The Admiral is much hurt—Luminous Sparks at the Extremity of the Conductors—Large Phosphoric Molecules—Diminution of the Phosphorescence of the Sea-Water—Direction of the Currents—Warmth required in the Place where the Time-keepers are deposited—Anchor in Port D'Entrecasteaux.

OUR adventurers were waiting for a fair wind to quit the Cape, when, on the 16th of February, at ten in the morning, a favourable breeze sprang up, and induced them to weigh anchor. Hardly were they under sail before a squall came down from the mountains, and blew with such violence, that they were in danger of running foul of several vessels then lying at the anchorages; but they quickly passed them all, and gained an offing.

On the 18th in the morning, they lost their carpenter, Louis Gorgan: he died in consequence of the excesses to which he had abandoned himself during his continuance at the Cape. This loss was the more to be regretted, as a skilful carpenter is one of the most useful men *.

At this season of the year, it is uncommon to pass across the Straits of Mozambique, at a little distance from land, without meeting with violent storms. A gale now blew with almost incredible fury; the electric matter, with which the clouds were charged, was so abundant, that the lightning fell several times at the distance of a few meters from the ship. On the 1st of March the wind had raised so heavy a sea, that their consort was concealed by the height of the waves. On the 3d, they were convinced, that they had passed the Straits of Mozambique; for though the wind blew nearly with equal force, the sea was hardly ruffled, as they were now sheltered by the land of Madagascar. About five in the afternoon, they were surrounded by whales, which approached them within the distance of a hectometer. The Americans frequently visit these seas to procure these enormous fishes; the oil which they extract from them being thought an ample compensation for their labour and expence.

On the 7th, about nine in the evening, the wind brought our adventurers a strong smell from the sea. In seas less known, the vicinity of land might have been apprehended: it is not

There are few places whose natural history has been so ably explored, as the territory of the Dutch colony at the Cape of Good Hope, and the country adjacent; nor does any seem to have better repaid the labour of research. The botany of Southern Africa is more rich and peculiar than that of any other country, and most of the singular and beautiful inhabitants of our stoves and green-houses have been hence procured. The class of bulbous-rooted plants alone might be selected as peculiarly characteristic of the Cape; for no where else are they found so abundant, so various, or so splendid; nor is it only at one season of the year that this splendid scene is exhibited, every month has its peculiar beauties.

* Two persons, who had concealed themselves on board the time of their departure from the Cape, did not appear on deck till it was too late to send them on shore; in consequence of which they were permitted to go with the expedition. One of them was a soldier, who had deserted from the garrison of the Cape; the other a German, who had exercised his trade, as a mathematical instrument maker, nine years in England. The English, he said, were conveying him to Botany Bay, with a number of other persons, transported under the denomination of convicts. He declared he was banished there for debt, but seizing an opportunity of escaping from the ship in which he was confined, he had taken refuge in the mountains. He there passed the day in a cavern, and in the evening went into Cape Town to procure subsistence, waiting for the departure of the other persons under sentence of transportation.

impossible that this odour proceeded from a heap of sea-weed, detached from the coast of Madagascar, and conveyed to a great distance by the currents *.

It was not till the 28th of March that the wind began to blow strong at north-north-west. A great number of various species of mews and boobies announced to our adventurers the proximity of land; as these birds are never seen far distant from it. At about half after one in the afternoon, they saw it in the south-east: it was the island of St. Paul, from which they were now distant about four myriameters. It was discovered by Captain Valming in 1696, and named the island of Amsterdam; and that which is more to the southward, received the name of the island of St. Paul. Captain Cook, who surveyed it in his last voyage, has adopted a contrary denomination, by calling the island of Amsterdam that which is the southernmost, and the island of St. Paul that which is the northernmost †.

On the 14th the mercury in the barometer having fallen from 28 inches 3 lines, to 27 inches 7 lines, announced tempestuous winds: they blew from south and south-west, raising a dreadful sea, which often broke on board: there came one, about five o'clock, which struck the ship's quarter with such violence, that many of the seamen thought they had touched upon a rock.

A violent shake threw the admiral against one of the angles of a bird-organ, intended as a present for some chief among the savages. At first, the surgeon supposed the short ribs had been fractured; the pain was so acute, that the admiral, in sneezing, fainted away; but soon after recovered.

Towards morning a heavy sea broke over the gangway, and filled the vessel between decks. The commander was awaked suddenly by the water with which his cabin was overflowed, and, for a moment, imagined the ship was sinking down. It required some time to get rid of so large a body of water: three or four such waves, would probably have sent them to the bottom. They might not have incurred this danger, had the hatchways been properly secured.

On the 19th it was announced to the Esperance, that, in case of separation, the rendezvous would be Cape Diemen, in Adventure Bay. At half after nine, on the 20th, they observed a very pointed rock, known by the name of the *Mew Stone:* some other rocks and lands were discerned in the eastern quarter. They soon after arrived at the entrance of a bay open to the south-east. The admiral intended to go and anchor in Adventure Bay. His accident would not yet permit him to leave his cabin: he could direct the course only by the bearings that were given him as soon as they were taken. An incorrect bearing, communicated by Citizen Willaumez, occasioned him to give orders for manœuvring so as to enter the bay on their larboard hand. They looked for Penguin Island, thinking they were in Adventure Bay, but they were actually in Storm Bay; so named by Tasman in November 1742, from his having experienced a storm there in which great danger was imminent.

Being already high up in this bay, they were perfectly sheltered from the westerly wind; the depth of water being from fifteen to twenty fathoms, over a bottom of broken shells. The admiral was on the point of leaving it, to pass the night in the offing; he determined, however, to dispatch two boats in search of a place of shelter. One of the boats returned with intelligence that a cove had been found where their ships could enter, the bottom being good

* On the 19th, one of the sailors, in the height of intoxication, jumped overboard; it being calm, he was fortunately picked up. This immersion, however, served only to increase his inebriation; for, in his delirium, he would have jumped overboard a second time, had he not been prevented.

† The island of St. Paul appeared, in the distance, covered with clouds, above which soared the summits of the mountains: flames were soon observed in different points, and the forests were in a blaze. They observed a thin smoke issue in puffs from a small subterraneous aperture, at a little distance from the shore: they knew not whether these forests had been set in flames by the subterraneous fire, or by the hand of man. If they could have rendered any assistance, they saw nothing to apprise them that this island was inhabited; besides, it would have been impossible for them to put in there, for they could seek a shelter only to the leeward of this land, where they would be in danger of suffocation from the intolerable smoke; the smell of which plainly indicated that vegetables only were on fire. They were at a small distance from the island, when night came on. At that time the land appeared perfectly in a blaze, except where the smoke seemed to imbibe its brightness, when it communicated a copper-coloured tint, as at the approach of a storm. The island of St. Paul is about two myriameters in circumference holding

holding ground: and that wood and water might easily be procured there. The boats crew observed remains of some huts, close to which were remnants of shell-fish that had been broiled by the natives.

As it was too late to reach this anchorage before it was dark, and, as the weather was fine, it was decided, about five o'clock, to let go the anchor in Storm Bay, in ten fathoms water. The night continued to be fine, though the air was charged with great humidity. They were sheltered from the wind, except some light squalls from the south-west, a small portion of which they experienced. They caught, with a hook and line, a great many fishes, and of very diversified species; among which the most numerous was a species of *gadus**.

An officer having been sent on shore, in the morning, to sound towards the head of the harbour, found a few huts, and near them some remains of broiled fish, which had evidently formed a repast for some of the natives.

It being almost calm, they weighed anchor before day-light on the 23d, in order to warp a-head. The calm continuing, it was thought expedient to tow the ship, and the boats soon brought them into the harbour. They let go the anchor about eight o'clock, after having proceeded about three quarters of a kilometer up the harbour, which was denominated *Port D'Entrecasteaux*. The nearest shore to the eastward of them, was at the distance of a demi-kilometer. In this solitary haven, situated at the extremity of the globe, they found a secure shelter, after having been so long buffeted with impetuous winds.

The same boats were occupied in towing the Esperance; and about one o'clock in the afternoon, she anchored to the southward of the Recherche, at about three hectometers distance. An attempt was made to approach the shore, without having taken exact soundings; but they soon got aground on the mud, and were obliged to heave quickly at the capstern to bring the ship off again.

SECTION IV.

Continuance at Port D'Entrecasteaux—Indications of its being visited by Savages—Excursions to the Interior—Trees of an extraordinary Height—Excellence of the Soil—Black Swans—Large Trunks of Trees, excavated by Fire—A Retreat for the Natives—Tracts of wild Beasts at Cape Diemen—Sheds and Huts—A violent Squall—Get aground on the Mud—Meet with a young Savage—Signs of wild Beasts at Cape Diemen—Huts appearing to have been recently inhabited—Broiled Human Bones found—The Sail-maker of the Recherche loses himself in the Woods—Utensils of the Savages—Leave Port D'Entrecasteaux—Several Fires—Natives seen on the Beach—Excursion to the neighbouring Country—Natives surprised close by the little Fires, preparing their Food—Various meetings with the Savages.

PORT D'Entrecasteaux, situated at the head of Storm Bay, is almost an oval basin, extending a demi-myriameter towards the north-north-east; the greatest breadth of which is about a hilometer and a half, the large forests which surrounded them, and the neighbouring mountains which sheltered more than half of the circumference of this harbour, added greatly to the security of the anchorage. The most tempestuous weather did not deter the seamen from crossing it. A muddy, bottom of three fathoms and a half, exempts a vessel from in-

* A boat which had been sent a fishing had, at the single cast of a net, brought back fish enough to supply every one with a portion, which was immediately served out. They were not a little surprised to see, among those caught with hook and line, some sharks of about two meters long; they were of the species denominated *squalus cinereus*. This shark, which seldom quits the bottom of the sea, is not supposed to be dangerous to man; the sailors often bathed, and never found them offensive. This fish finds such an abundance of food to satiate his voracity, that he does not attack men. Some mountains, the perpendicular height of which seemed to be about a hilometer, were seen to the north. Their summits were covered with large trees, whose verdure added beauty to the grand prospect which they afforded.

jury

jury if she should happen to get aground. A hundred ships of the line might anchor here in safety, and find as much wood and water as they required.

Some sheds, hastily built of the bark of trees, indicated to our adventurers that they were frequented by the natives. A fire lighted towards the south, at the distance of a myriameter, also convinced them that there were resident savages not far from them; though they never had seen any of them *.

But the trees of this forest were not so huddled together, as to prevent the adventurers from entering it. In some places, where the waters had been occasionally obstructed in their course, they formed marshes. On visiting their banks, they found rivulets of good water. An excellent vegetable mould, of about four decimeters in depth, was almost general. Sometimes they met with clayey, or argillaceous earth, which imbibed the water with such facility as to form quagmires. Besides, this clay, conducted by the waters that filtrate through the lands, has left cavities and small pools, the surface of which being covered with plants, conceals the danger. A moment's inadvertence would occasion a person to fall in. A circumstance of this kind really happened to the surgeon of the Esperance. Taking the diversion of shooting, he supposed he was setting his foot on solid ground, when he instantly sunk into a very deep pond; he disappeared in an instant, but fortunately he could swim †.

One of the party shot, on the lake, a bird of singular plumage: it was a new species of the swan somewhat larger than the common sort. It had the same elegant shape; but its colour was a shining black: it had but six white feathers in each wing; a character which our naturalists constantly remarked in several others that were killed afterwards. The bill of the upper mandible is red, with a transversal whitish stripe towards the extremity. A swelling, forming two protuberances, is observed on the base of the male's bill, which is hardly perceptible in that of the female. The lower mandible is red on the edges, and whitish underneath. The feet are of a dark grey.

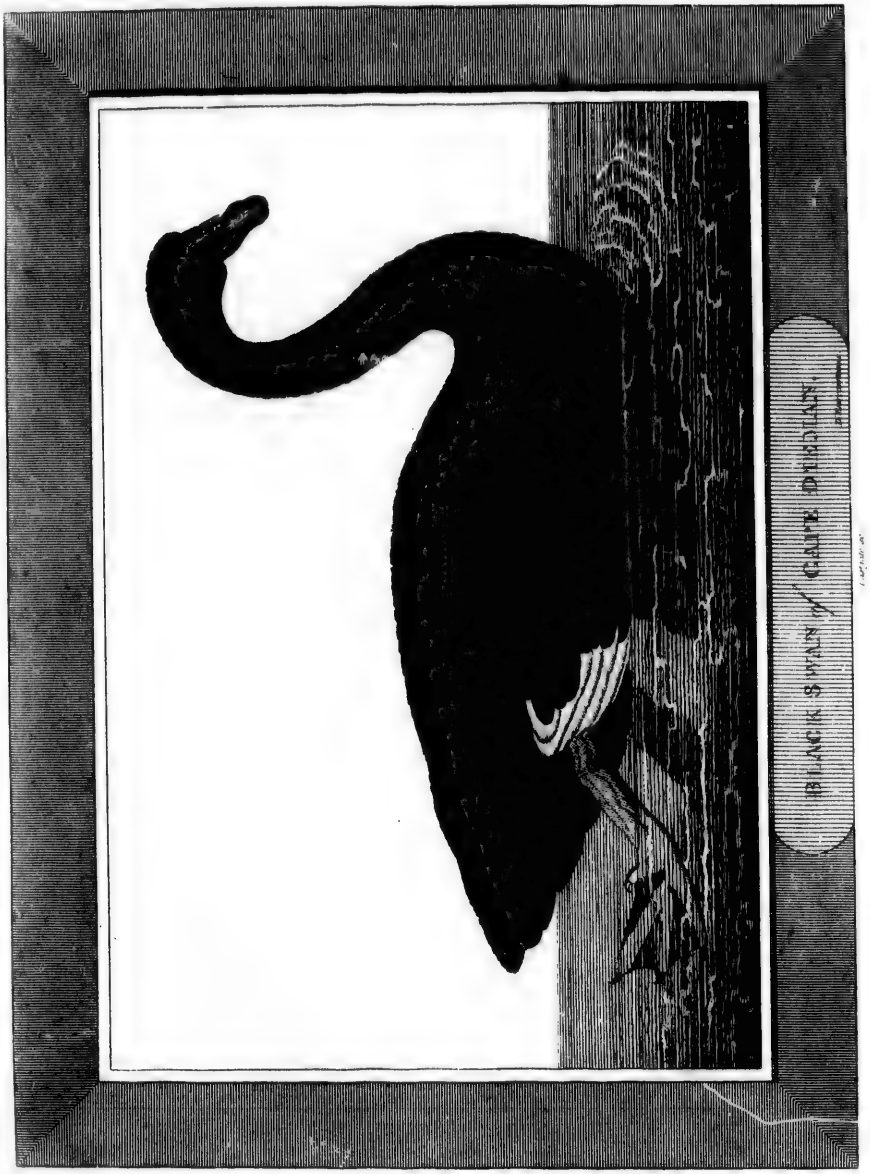
On the 24th, at ten in the morning, our naturalist went to visit the country, situated to the eastward of their anchorage. After having several times gone a little way into the woods, he was obliged to return towards the beach, they were so difficult to penetrate. Not only the underwood obstructed the passage, but it was also greatly impeded by large trees fallen to the ground. The direction, which they have generally taken in their fall, proves that they had been blown down by the violent south-east winds. The roots of these trees being nearly horizontal, they take little hold of the soil. The finest trees in this country are species of *eucalipta*; they are frequently eight meters and a half in circumference.

Many of the large trees near the sea, have been excavated by fire towards their root. These apertures, which are generally to the north-east, form a shelter against the south-west wind, which is the most prevailing and impetuous. These excavations are doubtless the work of man; for had the trees been set on fire by accident, as by the combustion of shrubs growing in the shade of these forests, the tree would probably have suffered in every part of its circumference. These excavations in trees afford shelter to the inhabitants, who came hither to make their meals: not only the fragments of their food was found here; but the ashes of small fires, which had been kindled for dressing their provisions. Some of the thickest trees, excavated by fire through-

* The naturalist went on shore, in the afternoon, with the gardener, and two others, to penetrate towards the north-east. They were struck with admiration at the sight of these ancient forests, which the hatchet had not before mutilated. The eye was astonished at the immense height of the trees; some of the family of the *myrti* were upwards of one hundred and fifty feet high: their bushy tops were crowned with a foliage of perpetual verdure; several of them, bending from age, were supported by their neighbours, and gradually fell to the ground in the last stages of their decay. The most vigorous vegetation here forms an admirable contrast with this state of decline; and here is beheld, in all its grandeur, the exact picture of nature, who, when left to herself, destroys only to renovate.

† Not far from the shore they met Citizen Riche's servant, highly pleased with having killed a few birds, which he was carrying to his master. This servant had for some time been under the care of the surgeon of the Esperance, who thought he was entitled to the game killed by his patient; but neither the threats of purgation, nor even those of being put upon a low diet, could procure him a single bird. The doctor put his menaces in practice: he obliged him to submit to a regimen, and to swallow a powerful purgative. The poor fellow was taught, by sad experience, the danger of resisting the surgeon of a ship.

out


BALEARIC CRESTED CRANE

out their whole length, formed a kind of chimney; but even in that state they continued to vegetate.

After having followed the sea shore, which extends to the south-east, he killed some birds of the *molacilli* genus, and several parrots; among which he remarked the new Caledonian parrot, described by Latham *.

After having crossed a tongue of land, they proceeded with difficulty in the midst of the moving sands of a vast beach, the skirts of which the sea had lately overflowed. On their return, by a more direct path, they observed some skeletons of cabins. It appeared, however, that the human species here is very scarce or very shy; though many persons belonging to the two ships had sauntered about, and visited several quarters, they had not met with a single inhabitant.

On the 27th, at day-break our adventurers set out with a view of proceeding as far as they could. They landed to the south-east, pursued a path along the shore, frequented by the natives, and crossed the forest that lay to the south. Though the wind was faint, the sea broke with violence, and overflowed a considerable extent of beach. On a little hillock, projecting towards the sea, a pretty species of banksia was procured, which Gærtner designates under the name of *banksia gibosa* †.

The hope of meeting with some of the savages, induced them to determine to advance farther into the woods, and to pass the night in exploring them. They walked about an hour towards the east, opening to themselves a very difficult road, till they arrived at a large plain extending to the sea-shore. Here they saw a fine species of *mimosa*, with long single leaves of an oval form. This tree bears semicircular pods, and its height is from eight to ten meters.

Night obliging them to seek a shelter, they had recourse to a pole-axe, which one of them had the precaution to provide himself with. Some branches, cut on the spot, enabled them to erect a hut on a piece of ground, the hardness of which was moderated by a bed of fern. Being on the skirts of the shore their view was extensive, but they could perceive nothing that indicated the presence of any natives. The cold being intense, they kindled a fire.

As they had taken with them only one day's provisions on their leaving the ship, their stock began to be much impaired, but they were not much alarmed on that account, knowing it was customary for sailors never to travel without a portion of biscuit; and consequently that they could produce a quantity among them: but, with this supply, they were greatly distressed for want of water, which could not possibly be had but at two kilometers distance. It therefore required a good appetite to be satisfied with such a supper.

As they were seven persons in the party, they had not much to fear from the natives; but they so arranged their business, that each of them should keep watch in his turn, to attend to their motions if they should be inclined to pay them a visit. Urged by extreme cold they quitted the hut that they might indulge themselves by the fire.

On the 28th, at the appearance of day, a party of them employed themselves in shooting, hoping to procure a breakfast by their skill as marksmen: a crow and an oyster-catcher were the only birds which fortune had thrown in their way. These victims of their hunger were immediately broiled and eaten, with as much glee as if they had been the most voluptuous of food.

It had been thought necessary, the preceding evening, to limit themselves to a very moderate allowance, that something might be reserved for the next day; but, on examination, it unfortunately appeared that our provisions had

* One of the officers found a young kangaroo on the shore: after this animal had run about a hundred meters on the sand, it leaped into the water, and was killed. As it comes out of its burrow more by night than by day, nature has given it a membrane, known to zoologists under the denomination of *membrana nicitans*, situated at the interior angle of the eye, and capable of extending over the whole ball. These animals, perhaps, find some food on the sea-shore, as the marks of their feet are frequently to be seen on the sands.

† Proceeding across the forest, not far from the sea, one of the party saw a young native, who ran away much terrified at the report of a musquet, which had been fired at a bird. This circumstance having been mentioned to the rest of the company, they ran towards the spot to which he had fled, hoping they should obtain an interview with some of the inhabitants of this country; but their endeavours were ineffectual; the young savage had disappeared, darting precipitately into the closest thickets, at the risk of tearing his skin, which was his only covering. They found, at the place from which he ran, a shed to keep off the sea breeze; and near it, a spring of clear water.

been confided to unsafe hands: only four of the biscuits now remained, though the stock would have consisted of six, if integrity had not been abandoned. A greater breach of confidence would have obliged them immediately to return on board, and they would have been deprived of the advantages of extending their researches farther. They were not long in reaching the banks of a large lake, which communicates with the sea; but their endeavours to ford it were vain; the depth towards the middle being too profound.

Among the number of plants which grew in the neighbouring woods, they found the *schefflera repens*, and several species of a new genus of the family of the *pedicularcs*, and nearly allied to the *polygala*. Among the shrubs, not far from the sea, they remarked a fine species of the single-leaved *mimosa*, the legume of which was shaped in the form of an S.

They saw a numerous quantity of black swans which swam away from them. They remarked, towards the shore, opposite to a lake, some islots covered with shrubs: they shot various species of snipes, when they advanced to the south-east, in order to reach the extremity of the lake the farthest from the sea. This lake is strewed with a prodigious quantity of shells, which have been partly destroyed by time. They saw on its banks the *crithmum marinum*, and near it a new species of parsley, that our botanist denominated *apium prostratum*, from the disposition of its stem, which is always prostrate on the ground. Supposing this a salutary article of food, they carried on board an ample stock of it, where it was received with joy by the navigators; who saw the necessity of counteracting, by the use of vegetables, the ill effects of salt provisions, on which they had lived in their passage from the Cape of Good Hope to Cape Diemen. In a limpid rivulet, to the westward of the lake, they soaked the little biscuit they had now remaining.

It was difficult, after so long a walk, to return to their ships, passing through forests which till then they had never visited. The sun, proceeding in its course, served to direct them: very thick underwood then impeded their progress. The inequalities of the ground, having obstructed the passage of the waters, they were often obliged to cross the marshes; but the numerous plants which they contained induced them to forget the difficulties that occurred in the road. Among those which they collected, were two new species of the *rosa solis*; one of which is remarkable for the singular form of its leaves: they consist of two long points, situated at the extremity of each petal, which proceeds from the root of the plant.

After two days' hard travelling, they arrived at the northern extremity of the harbour where their ships were lying, and saw them at a considerable distance. The difficulty of the road had deprived them of every hope of getting so far that evening, but opportunely a boat presented itself, and they were conveyed on board.

Crétiu, one of the officers of the ship, had been sent by the admiral into the launch, accompanied by a geographical engineer, to reconnoitre Storm Bay. On their return, they related that, after having proceeded several myriameters into a channel, which our adventurers had left on the starboard hand, when they entered the bay, every thing concurred in justifying the opinion that this was a strait. Our naturalist did not go out of the ship the two following days, having been employed in describing and preparing the abundant collection which he had made in his last excursion *.

Some mountains of gradual declivity, situated to the westward, formed a beautiful valley. They followed a difficult road, intending to repair to the place where water is procured for the ships: the night overtook them half way; and, to complete their misfortunes, a heavy fall of rain obliged them, like the savages of New Holland, to seek a shelter in excavated trunks of trees. Imagining the weather would render useless the signals they were to make for a boat to be taken to them, they were preparing to pass a disagreeable night in the midst of these forests, when they were agreeably disappointed. Hearing the voice of some sailors, who had been sent

* Their people went out regularly with the seine every evening, and brought back a considerable quantity of fish. On the first of May, they went to the westward, on the other side of the harbour: the shallowness of the water kept the boat at so great a distance from the beach, that they were obliged to step into the sea to reach the shore. They followed their course to the northward, keeping along the skirts of the beach; some hollows, formed in the sand like a funnel, concealed each a small globular crab, which had fabricated this hole; and when the water had retired it regained its habitual abode; these holes might also serve them as snares to entrap their prey.

in

in search of them, they joyfully attended to their summons to go on board *.

On the 3d of May, they traversed a glade situated to the north-east, which conducted them towards the great lake. In a preceding excursion they had seen the south part of it, and they thought it necessary to visit its northern side. Its banks were often steep, and of difficult access, and various species of single-leaved mimosa were growing under the shade of the large trees. It appeared to our adventurers, that the natives occasionally take up their abode on the banks of this lake, the shell-fish of which afforded them a supply of food. Advancing a little further, they perceived a hut, constructed a few yards from the water-side; it almost exhibited the form of a demi-oval, fifteen meters in height, by sixteen in breadth at its base. Stakes were driven into the ground at each end, bent into a semi-circle, which supported each other in such a manner as to form a tolerably compact frame, which was covered with bark. About ten o'clock they found no difficulty in getting on board †.

This tree, which is one of the most lofty in nature, some of them being a demi-hectometer in height, bears flowers only near its summit. They were obliged to cut down one of these trees to procure its flowers. This very beautiful tree, of the family of the *myrti*, is covered with a smoothish bark; the branches are a little angulated as they rise; towards their extremity they are adorned with alternate leaves, slightly bowed, about two decimeters long, by a demi-decimeter broad. The flowers are solitary, and grow from the axilla of the leaves. The bark, the leaves, and the fruit, are aromatics, which might be had recourse to in lieu of those which the Moluccas have for a time exclusively supplied mankind.

The day was far spent when they arrived on the banks of a rivulet, where they took up their quarters for the night. They observed, at this southern extremity of New Holland, several species of *ancistrum*, analogous to those of the southern extremity of America. They were surrounded by delightful groves, principally formed by a species of the narrow-leaved *thesium* ‡.

The next day, after a few hours walk to the north-west, they found, under the shade of some very large trees, two huts of the same rude architecture which they had already seen. They were in perfect repair, and seemed to have been recently inhabited. A beautiful plant was gathered, which forms a new genus; it is one of the *irides* with two stamina.

Our adventurers were crossing a small coppice, when a large kangaroo quitted his burrow: at first, our naturalist followed, for the space of thirty yards, one of the little paths which these quadrupeds make through the bushes: he could not avoid using his fore-feet in these narrow passages. When he had reached the extremity of them, he sprang forward by leaps, passing over the shrubs with so much velocity that he was presently out of sight.

A sheet of water, into which a charming rivulet directed its course, was covered with an assemblage of wild ducks, which took wing as they approached them; not being prepared for so charming a prospect, they were unable to kill one of them. A breeze got up before night, which seemed to threaten them with rain. No shelter being near them, they were compelled to sleep in the open air: a hedge, which they had themselves constructed with branches and boughs, was their only protection from the weather; and under this shed they produced a magnificent fire.

A very large kangaroo came out within four yards of the naturalist, from the middle of a thicket: his gun flashed in the pan, and the animal moved off slowly, taking one of the paths made through the groves. The numerous tracks of these quadrupeds pronounce them very numerous. It is observable too, that these little

paths,

* Two boats had been dispatched, a second time, to reconnoitre the north-east part of Storm Bay, as far as Tasman's Head: at the end of four days they returned, and the result of their discoveries appeared to be, that Tasman's Head, and Adventure Bay, made a part of an island separated from Van Diemen's Land.

† At low water they found, on the sea-shore, a great variety of *neritæ* and whelks: and here they procured some very excellent oysters.

The naturalist had not yet been able to procure the flowers of a new species of eucalyptus, remarkable for its fruit, which has some resemblance of a coat-button.

‡ The cold had obliged them to kindle a large fire, and they were preparing for repose, when the howl of a wild beast, seemingly only a few yards distant, exceedingly alarmed them. The howling resembled that of a leopard; whence it was concluded, that their fire had contributed, much more than they could have supposed, to prevent this animal from making them a nearer visit.

paths generally terminate at some rivulet. The provisions of our adventurers being exhausted, they thought proper to return on board *.

A constant humidity prevailed in the middle of these thick forests, into which our naturalist penetrated towards the south-west. In this spot grew many mosses and ferns, and here they killed the beautiful species of *merops*, indicated by White under the denomination of *wattled bee-eater*. This bird is remarkable for two large appendages, or wattles, on each side of the head †.

A heavy shower of rain, about the middle of the day, forced our adventurers to stop in the large trunk of a hollow tree, which served them as a shelter: this tree exceeded eight meters in circumference. Endeavouring to light a fire in it, after the manner of the New Hollanders, they were so incommoded with the smoke, that they were driven from their retreat. On the approach of night, they found themselves on the banks of a small lake, which, though it had a communication with the sea, was destitute of fish: the people of the Esperance had often hauled the seine in it, but never caught any thing ‡.

During their stay at Cape Diemen, they saw no natives but at a considerable distance: all of whom ran off with precipitation, as soon as they were observed: some had left behind them their domestic utensils, which conveyed no very exalted idea of their industry; these were baskets clumsily manufactured of a species of sea-rush. They had also frequently left their water-vessels. No arms were ever found in the places they had recently quitted; they were either taken away or carefully concealed, that they might not be used to their prejudice.

A few straggling huts indicated a scanty population: the shells of fish, collected in heaps near the beach, was though good circumstantial evidence, that the sea-shores furnished principally the food of these savages. The multiplicity of paths, in which the tracts of different quadrupeds were discovered, demonstrate that they are here very numerous. Whilst day-light exists, they probably remain in the inaccessible haunts of these thick forests. Hooks and lines, and the seine procured our adventurers fish in abundance: east, and south-east winds brought myriads of them into the bay.

Van Diemen's Land was discovered by Tasman, in November, 1642. When Captain Cook anchored there in 1777, four years after Furneaux, he thought he was the third of the European navigators who had landed on this coast: he was then ignorant of Captain Marinon's having continued there some time, and that he left it on the 10th of March, 1772.

This harbour on account of its smooth water, is extremely convenient for refitting ships; and the vast forests near it afford a wood which the carpenters of the ship pronounced excellent for ship building.

A small island to the south-west had been called *l'Isle au Perdrix*, Partridge Island, by some of the seamen who had discovered it. Our naturalist accompanied Citizen Riche to that spot on the 20th, to spend the day: and, instead of partridges they found a great quantity of quails. This island is about two kilometers in length: the new species of parsley named *apium prostratum*, grew in abundance on its shores. They gathered a quantity of it, which they took on board. This islot produced no fresh water, though several forsaken huts attested that it had been inhabited by savages.

Two of the officers had set off at six in the morning to reconnoitre the coast which lay to the eastward of them. They remarked several coves, which formed so many harbours: a strong

breeze

* Citizen Riche discovered some human bones, in the ashes of a fire kindled by the savages. By their shape, he pronounced them to be the *ossa innominata* of a young girl; they were partly covered with pieces of broiled flesh. Not supposing that these people were cannibals, he supposed it was their practice to burn the dead. These were, however, the only human bones that were seen during their continuance at this anchorage.

† A quadruped of the size of a large dog, about this time, came out of a bush quite close to one of the shipmates. It was white, spotted with black, and had the appearance of a wild beast. These countries will probably, on a future day, add several species to the catalogue of the zoologist.

‡ Their sail-maker having ventured alone on a shooting excursion, the preceding day, had lost himself in the woods where he was obliged to pass the night. Several guns having been fired from the ship to signify to him where she lay, he returned on board in the afternoon, exhausted with hunger and fatigue. Having taken no provisions with him, he had been a day and a half without food. He asserted that, during the night, different quadrupeds approached him, and smelt him at a few centimeters distance. Many people believed this relation; but those who had passed several nights in the thickest part of the woods, without meeting with any such familiar animals, seemed a little sceptical.

breeze impeded their progress, and prevented them from advancing very far into them. Perceiving several fires at a little distance, they came to a determination to land; and hardly had they entered the woods, when they met with four natives employed in keeping up three small fires. These savages immediately fled, notwithstanding the significant tokens of amity which were manifested by our adventurers. In their hasty departure, they left behind them the lobsters, and other shell-fish, which they were broiling on the coals. As many cabins, as they had seen fires, were observed at a little distance.

One of the savages who was a tall muscular man, had inadvertently left a small basket behind him, and was not afraid to return and look for it. He advanced quite close to Lieutenant Cretin, with an air of consequence which his strength seemed to warrant. These savages are not of a deep black, but they have woolly hair, and suffer their beards to grow. Some of them were perfectly naked, others had a kangaroo's skin thrown over their shoulders. The household utensils which they abandoned, consisted of about thirty rush baskets, some of which were full of crabs, and other shell fish. These baskets are generally about a meter in depth, though many of them are shallower, but nearly of the same shape. The method taken by these savages to procure fire, is to strike two pieces of silex one against the other: in this they differ much from the other inhabitants of the South Sea, and even from the other savages of the east part of New Holland. A circumstance which seems to assign to them a different origin. These people also left behind them several kangaroo skins, and some vessels for preserving water.

The two officers would not permit the sailors to touch any of the effects of these natives; but they took for the admiral a large and small basket, a kangaroo's skin, and a vessel made of sea-weed, which would hold five quarts of water. The savages had no cause to lament the loss of these articles, for the officers left on the spot some knives, handkerchiefs, biscuits, cheese, and an earthen jug*.

It appears that those natives which had been seen the preceding day, had no dislike to the bread and water that had been deposited for them, but the smell of the cheese, it was supposed, prevented their tasting it; for it was found in the state in which it had been left. In the same place were also found one of the knives, and the handkerchief which had been left with their effects the day before. A few shots having been fired at some birds, accelerated the departure of these savages, as a boat from the ship went to the same spot two days after; and none of them were to be met with †.

After having run a demi-myriameter along this channel, they entered a second bay, about a myriameter in extent. On the 26th they weighed anchor early in the morning, and at noon found themselves in a third bay: the depth of water in the middle of which was not less than eleven fathoms; and, at the distance of two hectometers from the shore, they had not less than six fathoms ‡.

Our adventurers landed on the beach, from which they had so hastily fled, where they found a great number of stones of a very beautiful granite, extremely hard, and rounded by attrition. Four catamarans lay on the beach; and a sort of skiffs calculated only for smooth

* Two persons had been sent, in a boat from the Esperance to visit a cove, about a myriameter distant to the westward. Those who were on this service met with a native, who, notwithstanding every sign of friendship was displayed and expressed, would not suffer himself to be approached within the distance of two hectometers.

† On the banks of a rivulet which contained very good water, grew various species of *casuarina*, one of which was remarkable for its club-shaped fruit. Several paths, in the direction towards the rivulet, had been beaten by the kangaroos, for their accommodation in passing to the river to allay their thirst.

The persons who had been sent to survey the whole extent of the strait, returned after an absence of four days: they reported that it was about four myriameters and a half long, from south-west to north-east; not less than six fathoms and a half water had been found in it, with a bottom of mud, or fine sand. Adventure Bay is separated from it by a tongue of land, the breadth of which is about four hectometers. The natives kindled upwards of twenty fires on the south shore: several families had probably been attracted towards the coast by the intelligence they had received respecting their new visitors.

‡ They got under way on the 27th, at seven in the morning; soon after which they beheld a fire near the shore, which announced that some of the natives were not far distant: one of them were seen a few minutes after, walking by the sea side. Two boats were observed, intended for the conveyance of passengers, and some savages were seen paddling along in a catamaran, who landed on the sea-coast. With that timidity which their neighbours had before shown, they precipitately made for the shore, and darted into the woods, leaving behind them a few darts of a very clumsy fabrication.

water, as a rough sea would soon dash them to pieces. As these savages are capable of hollowing out the trunks of trees by means of fire, it appears strange that they should not observe the same method in forming their canoes, but they are as ignorant of navigation as of the other arts.

An officer belonging to the Recherche, in passing through the woods, made choice of the path which had been made by the savages. He met six of them, who were entirely naked, walking slowly towards the south, armed with darts of the length of five or six meters. The surprise occasioned by this meeting was strongly depicted in their features; but their number soon banished their alarms, and they ventured to approach on the invitations of this solitary European, who immediately put on their head a cravat and a handkerchief, which he gave them: but they seemed terrified at the sight of a knife, the use of which he explained to them. Their terror was further heightened, when he shewed them the method of sharpening it; and their fears were not totally dispelled, till he made them a present of it. He pressed them to approach the place where the vessels lay at anchor, but his entreaties were unavailing; they persevered in the paths which led them farther from the ships *.

Like the other savages, this woman wore over her shoulders the skin of a kangaroo; she had another, performing the office of an apron by covering her nakedness. Our Europeans were of opinion that this garment was chosen more on account of the severity of the weather, than from a sentiment of shame; for among the natives, seen by Captain Cook at Adventure Bay, at a few kilometers from this place, the women were all naked.

In the night of the 28th, the north wind blew in such squalls that the Esperance drove, though she was riding by a very heavy bower anchor. They had spent more time than they intended in exploring D'Entrecasteaux's strait; and, in order to get out of it they had to go about the distance of a demi-myriameter. The wind was against them, but the tide was in their favour, and they weighed anchor between nine and ten o'clock. In working out, they often stood within three hectometers of the coast, where their soundings were from twelve to thirteen fathoms. To the northward they discerned a vast bay, or rather gulf, intersected by islots, and terminated by the main land, which was seen in the distance; various bends in it seemed to promise very excellent anchorage.

SECTION V.

Importance of D'Entrecasteaux Strait—Passage from Cape Diemen to New Caledonia—Dangerous Situation of the Recherche—See t Natives by the Sea-Side—Small Archipelago near New Caledonia—Survey the West Part of Bougainville's Island—The Recherche in Danger on the Shoals—Interview with the Savages of Bouka Island—Fondness of the Savages for Music—Their Dishonesty—Anchor in Carteret's Harbour—Various Excursions into the surrounding Country.

IN D'Entrecasteaux's strait, a vessel may come to an anchor in any part, with a certainty of finding a good bottom, with a depth of water from six and a half to seven fathoms. Not a shoal is there to be met with. An an equal distance from its two extremities, where the coarse sand predominates, the ground is not so good, and there is less water. No danger is to be apprehended in approaching the land within the distance of two hectometers. The windings of

* A boat had landed on the other shore near a fire, where eight of the natives were observed, each of whom had his shoulders covered with a kangaroo's skin. These savages fled as soon as they knew they had been seen. An old woman, laden with provisions, which she was not willing to be deprived of, was speedily overtaken by some of the sailors: she had just been highly delighted with the receipt of a handkerchief, but when they exhibited a knife to her, which they also intended to make her a present of, she was so exceedingly shocked, that she threw herself from the top of a very steep declivity, fled over the rocks, and immediately disappeared.

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the channel present a very diversified prospect, and situations perfectly picturesque. In the strait they enjoyed the calmest weather. They were astonished to find such uncommon safety so very near Storm Bay.

The fishes which delight in unruffled water, abound in this channel; hence the fishermen were almost universally successful. They had hardly proceeded three kilometers beyond the outlet of the strait, when they could no longer distinguish its opening. The soundings increased as they advanced into the sea. They soon doubled Cape Pillar, and then shaped their course north-east, to go and explore the south-west coast of New Caledonia.

Having on the 1st of June reached the latitude of 37° 17′ south, and the longitude of 154° 5′ east, they saw a quantity of white and black spotted petrels, and a number of albatrosses, with the extremity of their wings of a deep fawn colour. On the 2d a number of flying fishes, by throwing themselves headlong on board, announced that they had got into the latitudes frequented by bonitoes *.

Some pintadoes, and other birds, which they saw on the 6th of June, induced them to believe that they were in the neighbourhood of some island, though none was yet descried. About noon on the 11th, they thought they had discovered land to the eastward; but after steering in that direction for an hour, the phantom disappeared, and they immediately resumed their course. A man-of-war bird appeared, hovering over the ship, and was killed by a musquet-shot. This bird had, in its bill, the species of cuttle-fish called *sepia loligo*.

On the 16th, about five in the morning, our navigators entered the torrid zone, in the longitude of 165° east. About eight they got sight of the Island of Pines, at no considerable distance from the south point of New Caledonia; it appeared like a peak of tolerable height, and they soon perceived that it was surrounded by low lands. Large trees are distinguishable towards the south-east part of the island. At five in the afternoon they discovered the shores of New Caledonia to the north-west at the distance of about four myriameters, and they stood in to approach them; but they were obliged to heave to at sun-set to wait for the Esperance, whose sailing was never equal to theirs. The Esperance, however, joined them in the evening, about eight, and the night was to have been passed in standing off and on; but it falling calm, the ship would not answer her helm. The south-west winds had brought them to New Caledonia, though they had expected to meet with the general winds some days before they perceived this land.

During the night of the 17th, they saw a fire on the island of Pines, and as soon as day appeared, they perceived a reef of rock, which, from the coast of New Caledonia, took a direction towards the south. A calm detained them the whole morning, between these dangerous rocks and the Isle of Pines; but a fortunate breeze sprang up, in the afternoon, and carried them clear of the breakers. In the course of the night the currents had carried them nearer to the reefs, which they thought they had weathered. Day-light, however, shewed them all the danger of their situation: surrounded by shoals, little room was left for them to ply in. The south-east wind freshened, and increased the sea, which set them towards the breakers: they were in the middle of them, when the Esperance made the signal for them; lieutenant Rossel having then the charge of the deck. The ship was instantly brought close to the wind on the starboard tack, with the intention of tacking to get out of this dangerous situation.

All hands were called upon deck, in order to work the ship so as to make her surer in stays. Rossel endeavoured several times to tack, but every attempt brought them nearer to the reef. The ship was now drifting on the rocks, where the sea, ready to swallow them up, rose to a prodigious height. There was not a possibility of letting go the anchor, as they could get no bottom with a line of fifty fathoms, though they

* Since the departure of our Adventurers from New Holland, they were reduced to a very small quantity of water, and the heat, which on the 5th, began to be very oppressive, heightened the inconvenience of this privation. A bottle a-day only, was allowed to each individual; though their thirst was augmented in proportion as they advanced towards the torrid zone; the wine could not be substituted for this beverage; the brandy, which several preferred to wine, made them require an additional quantity of water; the salt meat which they generally fed on, added to that thirst, which they had no means of allaying; and the extreme acrimony introduced into their blood by saline food, greatly added to the distress.

were

were close to the reef. Every one was now casting his eye on the objects that might present themselves in order to avoid an almost inevitable death. Destruction stared them in the face, when, by an unexpected piece of good fortune, another attempt to tack succeeded; and, with inexpressible joy, they saw their ship standing away from this dangerous coast: a few islets appeared between the land and the chain of reefs, which was not more than a myriameter from shore.

When they tacked on the approach of night, the topman had omitted to rig in the main topmast studding sail boom, and the mizen topmast studding sail boom: they were both carried away at the instant they were preparing to make another board; the main topmast studding-sail boom fell into the water; but the mizen topmast studding-sail boom, by its fall, wounded three persons, among whom was Admiral D'Entrecasteaux himself.

A column of smoke, near the foot of a hill, a little distant from the sea-side, convinced our adventurers that this part of the island was inhabited. They had a view of some mountains, covered with trees to their very summit: six fires were perceived in the vicinity of the coast, which announced a great concourse of savages, who had probably been attracted by the sight of the ships, which contrary winds kept almost stationary.

On the 23d at three in the afternoon, they were about six myriameters from the land, when they perceived near the beach a group of twelve New Caledonians, who gazed with astonishment at the ships so near their island. Three natives formed another group, near two fires which they had just kindled. A good glass informed them that they were entirely naked: they appeared to have no inclination to approach them.

In the direction of the lands of New Caledonia, they perceived several islands, surrounded by reefs, and connected to each other by shoals, and sand-banks. During the night of the 29th, the winds set them so far to leeward, that they had lost sight of the northern extremity of New Caledonia. This island presents a chain of mountains, which occupy an extent of about forty-eight myriameters, from south-east to north-west. When Captain Cook discovered it in 1772, he saw only its north-east side. This coast is extremely dangerous at all times, but is rendered still more so with the south-east winds. The small number of fires which were seen on this land, with its apparent sterility, seemed to indicate that it was thinly inhabited.

After having observed several islets, they saw a few more, which seemed to terminate this Archipelago. Their height gradually diminished, in proportion to their distance from New Caledonia. The admiral informed the captain of the Esperance, that if the two ships should happen to separate, the rendezvous would be at Port Praslin, or Carteret's Harbour. Our adventurers were congratulating each other on having terminated this dangerous and fatiguing navigation, in order to enter into an open sea, when the men looking out at the mast-head, gave notice of shoals and a chain of reefs, stretching to the north-north-west: it being too late to stand towards them, they kept to windward during the whole night *.

About two in the afternoon, on the 1st of July one of the ship's company, named Moulin, discovered to the northward, a small low island covered with bushy trees, which was named *L'Isle de Moulin*, Moulin's Island, from the name of the person who had discovered it. This island is about a demi-myriameter in circumference. At four they got sight of two other small islands; as it was impossible for our adventurers to pass these islands before night, they directed their course to the south-south-east, and soon after brought to, till the next morning. During the night they were surrounded by birds which inhabited these low islands †.

Our navigators were now reduced to a very scanty allowance of water, which was a very distressing circumstance so near the line. At ten in the morning on the 9th, they got sight of

* At sun-set a booby of the species called *pelecanus varius*, permitted itself to be caught on board. This bird ventured, without fear, to settle in the main top, by the side of one of the sailors: those of this class frequently alight on the arm that is held out to them. Their smell cannot be very acute, the whole opening of the nostrils consisting of only two trifling slits in the upper mandible of the bill. This mandible is moveable like that of parrots.

† On the 7th, between nine and ten at night, they had, in the west, the sight of a lunar rain-bow; it differed from the solar rainbow only by its colours being less brilliant. This phenomenon is less frequent than might naturally be expected.

Arsacides, and stood directly in for Cape Nepean. These islands, discovered by Surville, were afterwards seen by Lieutenant Shortland, who, supposing he had made a new discovery, gave them the appellation of New Georgia. The shores of the *Arsacides*, to the north-west, are steep, and covered with large trees. Several fires, lighted on the mountains, announced them to be inhabited.

Early on the 10th they discovered the Treasury Islands, four myriameters distant to the north-west by north. Five or six of these islands are so close to each other, that, at a distance they are frequently supposed to be but one. Bougainville was of that opinion, when he discovered them to the westward in passing through the channel to which he has given his own name. The Esperance saw no more than three of these, though the Recherche could distinctly enumerate five. The mountains which form these islands are of a moderate height, nearly covered with large trees.

Having sailed round Bougainville's Island, they stood to the north north-east, to go and reconnoitre the west part of it. At five, when they were at a distance from its southern extremity, they saw a cluster formed by ten islots: they remarked that between them, and quite close to the southern side, there are some breakers which render the approach to them extremely dangerous. Two canoes, in which were perceived a great many natives, were under sail and seemed to direct their course to our adventurers; but they passed behind the islot that was nearest to the ship, and rapidly disappeared. On the shore of the island they perceived a group of ten natives, and near them a canoe on the sand; but they seemed to have no inclination for launching her in order to pay them a visit. Night approaching, they were obliged to tack, in order to gain an offing.

On the 13th, between ten and eleven in the morning, when they were about a myriameter and a half from the coast, they thought they were in the most perfect safety, when they found themselves towards a shoal, which those on the look-out had not perceived: the water was so very shallow, that they could readily distinguish the fishes at the bottom, and they were every moment in expectation of hearing the ship strike upon a rock. Several trunks of trees floated alongside: on one of these which the boats brought on board, a notch of ancient date was noticed, which demonstrated that the inhabitants of the neighbouring island have some very sharp instruments. Some of the hatchets, given them by Bougainville, may perhaps be still in use among them.

About three in the morning of the 14th, the Esperance made several signals, which created much alarm. They were thought to indicate some danger, but they were merely to apprize them that they had just got soundings in forty-one fathoms. The part of Bougainville's Island which they now perceived, seemed more populous than that which they had hitherto seen: fine plantations of cocoa-palms tended to confirm our adventurers in this opinion.

During the night of the 14th, the currents had carried them twenty miles towards the north; at ten in the morning they were a myriameter to the northward of Bouka Island, the appearance of which strongly indicated a numerous population*.

At length, however, they succeeded in attracting the natives close to the ship, by throwing some handkerchiefs, pieces of red cloth, and empty bottles. These people so perfectly understood traffic, that they took care to signify to our Europeans their full estimate of the value of their articles of exchange. A handsome bow was transmitted to them for some handkerchiefs; and they also received some arrows. As they had not seen this kind of weapon among our navigators they endeavoured to convince them of its value, by teaching them the manner of using it †.

Being

* A canoe, with nine savages, put off from the coast, and directed her course towards our navigators. They thought to, in order to wait for them; but they stopped when they were about a hundred meters distance, regardless of their pressing invitations to induce them to come on board. They put a plank in the water, freighted with knives and nails; and fastened a piece of scarlet cloth to the end of a small stick, to give it the appearance of a flag, hoping to prevail upon the savages to come closer: but they would not take possession of these favours, till the Europeans cut the line which held them at a small distance from the ship, they could not with this bait be prevailed on to approach. The sight of the scarlet cloth gave them infinite delight, and when they became possessed of it, they petitioned for more with great earnestness.

† One of the gunners produced a violin, on which he performed

Being passionately fond of music, they are much pleased with noisy and lively tunes. One of the officers, who was a tolerable performer on the violin, struck up a tune in very quick time, stopping double. At first they listened with the greatest attention; astonishment was depicted in all their visages, and at length their joy became excessive, when the motions of the arms, and the agitation of the whole body, were unequivocal marks of the most lively feeling.

Not willing to forget that the Admiral had expressed a wish of having a bow; a native promised one in exchange for a hat: but no sooner had he got that article, than he refused to part with the bow. During this time four canoes were communicating with the Esperance, one of which contained forty natives: sixteen of these were employed in conducting her; the others were all warriors. This canoe, it was afterwards understood, had kept for a long time at a distance, and did not approach till after the natives, in the smaller canoes, had shewn their countrymen several articles which they had received.

The regularity by which the savages on board this canoe were actuated, seemed to indicate that they had a sort of naval tactics. Between two paddlers placed on the sides, a warrior stood erect, with a bow and arrows in his hand; some intermediate ranks had two other warriors, and sometimes three, with their faces turned towards the stern of the canoe; to enable them to observe all the movements on that side, and to be ready for hostility when retreating. These warriors seemed to enjoy the flavour of the brandy and wine which had been given them, but were not much gratified in eating salt pork.

The savages who visited the ship had very excellent teeth, as they ate, with the greatest ease, the hardest biscuit that could be offered them. From their partiality in favour of nails, and other articles of hard ware, it seemed clear that they were acquainted with the use of iron.

These savages are of the middle size, and the colour of their skin is a light black. They have no covering, and their muscles proclaim them extremely strong: their countenance is unpleasant, but has great expression. They have a large head, a broad flat forehead and face; a chin thick and prominent, high cheeks bones, a broat flat nose, thin lips, and a very wide mouth. The betel-root, with which they tinge their extensive mouth, renders a horrid face more horrible.

Their ears were ornamented with heavy rings made of shells, the weight of which seemed to have contributed to their great size. Some of them had white and red stripes traced upon their body: bracelets woven of the fibres of the husk of the cocoa-nut, ornamented the wrists of some of them; and one of them was remarked, whose hair and nose were powdered with a reddish earth.

These savages are very dexterous in the use of the bow: one of them brought a booby, which he had just killed with an arrow, on board the Esperance. These islanders exercise great industry and skill in the formation of their weapons. Their canoes, formed of several planks, ingeniously joined together, are of an elegant form, and extremely well calculated to pass expeditiously through the water.

At day-break on the 17th, our adventurers directed their course for Carteret's Harbour, where they intended to cast anchor. They bore up between Cocoa-nut Island and New Ireland, where they anchored about one in the afternoon, in thirty-one fathoms water; about four hundred meters from Cocoa-nut Island. Only one hundred meters nearer to the last-mentioned island, they would have lain as snug as in the best-sheltered harbour. A ship may here anchor within a little distance of the land; for at twenty meters from the shore there are five fathoms; and farther off the depth suddenly increases. They landed at Cocoa-nut Island, in order to pass the remainder of the day. It was covered

performed several tunes; the Europeans perceived, with pleasure, that they were not insensible to music: they offered many articles in exchange, wishing to obtain this instrument. Their solicitations, notwithstanding, were unavailing; this was the only fiddle they had to set the ship's company a capering, and they did not choose to part with an implement which promoted an exercise so conducive to the health of seamen.

A too liberal distribution of favours to these savages at length corrupted their principles, and they frequently had recourse to artifice and dishonesty to procure them. The admiral, wishing to procure a bow, agreed to give some handkerchiefs striped with red, for that article. The price was positively agreed on, and these articles were delivered to them in advance, relying on their probity. But when they had got the handkerchiefs in their possession, they would not part with the bow, basely offering only some arrows, which were contemptuously refused.

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with large ever-green trees: their roots, buried between the calcareous stones, found very little vegetable earth; but they grew with great vigour on account of the great moisture of those spots. It was charming to behold the beautiful tree known by the name of *barringtonia speciosa*, attracted by the humidity, horizontally spreading its branches far out above the waters of the sea. Various species of fruit-trees also grew on this island *.

Among the large trees which grew on Cocoa-nut Island, a new species of *areca* was seen, whose trunk was thirty-six meters in height, and only two-thirds of a decimeter in thickness. It seemed extraordinary that so weak a tree could support itself at such an elevation; but they were no longer astonished, when they caused one to be felled, for they found the wood of it so extremely hard, that it resisted reiterated strokes of the axe. A quantity of a mucilaginous substance, under the form of pith, occupied its centre: this pith being removed, the trunk exhibited a cylinder, the wood of which did not exceed a centimeter in thickness. It is of a beautiful black, and the fruit is of a red colour. Mosses and ferns were very numerous, and grew with extreme vigour in these moist spots †.

The continual rains at Carteret's Harbour, have rendered some species of spiders extremely industrious. Several had made themselves excellent retreats in the middle of their web; which is of a very close texture, in the form of a sugar-loaf, having the point raised, and a little inclined towards the south-east, that the prevailing winds may not incommode their little habitation. The rain runs off this sort of cone, before it can penetrate it. The spider, perfectly sheltered in this mansion, only comes out occasionally, to seize upon the poor insects which happen to get entangled in his ingenious nets. Nature has been bountiful to some other species of spiders, covered with a thin skin; which is not only tough, but so glossy, that they seem to have been decorated with the finest varnish. These last are not in the least affected with the heavy rains, to which they are continually exposed; and they wait patiently in the middle of their web, till some insect is betrayed into it. Among these spiders were discovered some whose body was terminated in a point, the *aranea, acultea*, and the *aranea spinosa*.

Leigh's island is much smaller than Cocoa-nut island, affording few different productions. The steep mountains of New Ireland, which surround Carteret's Harbour, are three times the height of those of Cocoa-nut Island. Carteret's Harbour forms a sort of bason, where the clouds charged with water, after having cleared the high mountains of New Ireland, experience a calm which prevents the air from supporting them; thence result abundant rains, which are sufficient to deter navigators from anchoring there. The greatest activity had been exerted in procuring a supply of wood and water, and on the morning of the 24th, they made every preparation for sailing. It is impossible to form an idea of the vast quantity of rain that fell. It was, indeed, a torrent, pouring down almost incessantly. The harbour afforded no refreshments.

* Night overtook them in the middle of the woods, when they enjoyed the pleasing view of a vast quantity of glow-worms, that in their flight, diffused a tremulous gleam. It was now about the hour at which the species of crab, called *cancer ruricola*, issued from the holes that it had dug. They trod on many of these creatures, in returning to the boat which was waiting for them. Several of the party apprehended they might be venomous animals, till they were convinced to the contrary.

Two men, who belonged to the ship, saw an alligator quite close to the beach, on the south extremity of Cocoa-nut Island. Animals of this kind were not, however, thought to be common here; for, during their stay at this anchorage, no accident happened, though many persons frequently bathed.

† Some savage had probably perished in the midst of these rocks, as a human skeleton, almost entire, was observed by our Europeans.

SECTION

SECTION VI.

Quit Carteret's Harbour—The Esperance loses an Anchor—Passage through St. George's Channel—See the Portland Island—Several Interviews with the Inhabitants of the Admiralty Islands—Despotism of the Chiefs—The Rapidity of their Sailing—The Hermits' Islands—Their Inhabitants—A Water-Spout—New Guinea—Pass through Pitt's Strait—Ravages of the Scurvy—Anchor at Amboyna.

ON the 24th of July, about eleven in the morning, they availed themselves of a light breeze from the south-east, to sail between Cocoa-nut Island and New Ireland. The currents carried them to the west north-west, and at noon they were a myriameter to the west south-west of their anchoring place. The Esperance did not weigh her anchor soon enough to take advantage of the breeze: it fell calm almost at the instant she had loosed her sails: she was therefore soon obliged to drop an anchor, and wait for a wind to extricate herself from her disagreeable situation. At four o'clock, however, she came up with the Recherche, and her Captain informed them that they had like to have been lost at the mouth of the harbour they had just quitted. Compelled by the currents to anchor on a bottom of coral, the cable had been cut by the rocks, when there sprang up from the south east, the light breeze which carried them clear of the reefs.

The Recherche lay to during the night, and the currents carried her into St. George's channel, with so much rapidity as to occasion her to drift at the rate of upwards of a demi-myriameter an hour. About two in the morning of the 25th, the Isle of Man bore west south-west at the distance of a demi-myriameter. At four in the afternoon they brought to, to reconnoitre Sandwich Island the next day, but they were so drifted by the currents during the night, that at day-break on the 26th, they were astonished to find themselves within four hundred meters of this island *.

On the 28th they continued their course towards the Admiralty Islands, where Commodore Hunter, according to the information of the two French Captains, supposed he had perceived some vestiges of La Perouse's unfortunate expedition; and they stood to the southernmost island of this little Archipelago. Like many of the islands in the South Sea, this is guarded by reefs at no considerable distance from the shore. They saw to the south-east, a few canoes going along between the reefs, but no attempts were made to come to them. They saw also several groups of savages, standing on the prominent points of the coast, to take a survey of the ships.

The Admiral dispatched an officer on board the Esperance, to consult with her Captain respecting the measures necessary to be pursued at the Admiralty Islands, in consequence of the information that had been transmitted to them at the Cape of Good Hope. On the 29th, in the morning, Captain Huon waited on the Admiral, when it was decided that they should repair to the island that was in sight, to the north-east of that which they had just coasted. In fact, one of the depositions which had been transmitted to the commander, stated that it was at the eastern-most island that the savages, clothed in the uniform of the French navy, had been seen. About noon they were at the distance of a myriameter from this island, when they perceived some natives advancing towards the sea-shore. A few huts were distinguished at a distance among the cocoa-nut trees; and other islanders made their appearance on the south-east point. The number gradually increased as they advanced towards them. Several canoes were hauled up on the sands, and our adventurers were in expectation of seeing them launch into the water to come off to them; but the natives seemed not to shew the least disposition for approaching. As

* Sandwich Island is of a middling height, and is clothed with trees. New Ireland, which is opposite to Sandwich Island, presents to the view no lands of considerable elevation. A few huts, under the shade of the forest of cocoa-palms, induced the Europeans to suppose that they should have an interview with some of the inhabitants of Sandwich Island: but it was probably too early in the morning for these savages to visit them, as not one of them appeared. On the morning of the 27th, they saw the Portland Islands, among which they ranged very close. They form a group of seven islets, which occupy a space of a myriameter and a half in extent: they are flat, covered with large trees.

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the admiral was inclined to have an interview with them, they stood on, and brought to under the lee of the island, where they found but indifferent shelter, as it is of small extent. The savages had assembled in crowds: some of them running along the beach, while others, looking earnestly at the ships, invited them by signs to come on shore: their shouts appeared to be expressive of joy. A few of them launched a canoe, and seemed to hesitate for some time whether they should advance towards their ship; but the Esperance being more to the windward, they steered towards her. The small canoe had an outrigger, and carried seven natives, who returned on shore immediately.

At half past one they brought to, and a boat was dispatched from each ship with a number of articles, which were to be distributed among the inhabitants of this small island. They observed that this was cultivated to its very summit. Different plots of ground, enclosed by palisades, convinced the Europeans that the right of landed property is not unknown to the inhabitants. The whole of the island presents a roundish mountain, the foot of which is adorned with plantations of cocoa-palms, whilst the elevated spots seemed appropriated to the culture of edible roots.

The boats having gone within a hundred meters of the coast, found no bottom with thirty-three fathoms of line; the reefs which guarded it, prevented them from approaching any nearer. Crowds of the natives advanced on that side: upwards of one hundred and fifty of them were employing their utmost efforts to induce them to land on their island; but the reefs presented an obstacle which they could not overcome. These savages having thrown a few cocoa-nuts to our adventurers, were exceedingly delighted to behold with what facility they opened them by means of a hatchet*.

* A native, distinguished from the rest by a double row of small shells upon his forehead, seemed invested with great authority. He ordered a savage to jump into the water, and take our adventurers some cocoa-nuts. The fear of swimming unarmed to persons with whom he was unacquainted, made the poor fellow hesitate a little; but the chief, unaccustomed to meet with any resistance to his will, did not allow him time to reflect, he enforced his orders by several blows on the belly of the man, who was obliged instantly to obey. To console the poor creature, a few bits of red cloth, some nails, and a knife, were given him by the Europeans, which he received with the most extravagant joy, as soon as he had landed, curiosity assembled all the others round him; and every one demanded a share of the presents: some canoes were immediately launched, a great many other natives swam off to their boats, and, in a short time, a vast concourse surrounded them. It seemed astonishing that neither the violence of the surf nor that of the sea dashing against the breakers, had not prevented them from leaving the island. Another chief, emblazoned with the same badges of distinction, was also distinguished by the blows which he dealt liberally out with his stick, to several of those which he honoured with his commands.

These islanders, who were charmed beyond measure with the sight of the European nails and hatchets, were not equally enamoured with the knives. At first they would not receive them till they were shut; but their fears gradually subsided, and they were willing to receive them either shut or open. These people often repeated the word *capelle*, in asking for the articles of traffic. This was supposed to be the name given by them to iron, which they preferred to any thing that could be offered to them.

One of their canoes was driven by the sea, against the barge belonging to the Europeans, and received some damage; but instantly a man belonging to the latter held the canoe, that she might not receive a second stroke. One of the chiefs, mistaking his intentions, cautioned the paddlers to be on their guard, and most of them instantly abandoned her; jumping overboard to swim on shore to the island. The mistake, however, was by this time perfectly explained, and confidence was re-established between the parties. The women kept at a little distance, under the cocoa-nut trees; their whole cloathing consisted of a piece of mat round the waist.

The men were eager to approach the boats of the Europeans, but it soon appeared that curiosity was not their only motive, as they exerted all their ingenuity to get possession of the property of these visitors. Impunity increased their audacity, and when they missed their aim they were not discouraged, though they were disappointed; but took the earliest opportunity of making a fresh attempt on some other article. One of the thieves, who had taken a knife, was detected in the fact, and prevented from carrying it off: his want of success did not induce him to renounce his enterprise; nor was he a loser by having been dilatory. A flag, in which red was the predominant colour, attracted his attention, and he soon became master of it: the last act of

thieving was not discovered till he had got to a considerable distance from the boat, and near landing on the island *.

The natives of this island have not a very black skin; their countenance is agreeable, and not very dissimilar to that of the Europeans. Born in a fertile island, and under a clement sky, satisfaction seems exhibited in their features. The boats being ordered to return at four o'clock greatly affected the natives, who earnestly entreated leave to stay on their island. The women assembled on the beach, and were as importunate in their invitations as the men had been: but orders were given, and the boats could not defer their departure. With regret the Europeans quitted the savages, when they were launching into the water several canoes loaded with cocoa-nuts, which they were bringing to them. The delicious juice of these fruits would have been highly useful in arresting the progress of the scurvy, which was beginning to make ravages on board of the two ships.

At first these people seemed to manifest some symptoms of honesty, but they were not long before they displayed a very opposite inclination; for, whenever they thought they could commit theft with impunity, they never let an opportunity escape them. They grew the more expert in these practices as they grew in years, the oldest among them being the most daring and incorrigible thieves. This island, which is nearly of a circular form, is about a demi-myriameter in length, and seems well peopled: near three hundred inhabitants were seen by our Europeans.

On the 30th they stood to the northward of the Admiralty Islands: there they saw a mountainous island occupying the centre of this group, the outlines of which are formed by several flat islots, which seem to have recently emerged from the bosom of the deep. They are, in some degree, linked to each other by reefs and sand-banks. A great many cocoa palms were perceived on most of the islots: a vast assembly of the natives presented themselves on the shore, and some of them advanced as far as the adjacent reefs. The islots where no cocoa-nut trees were observed, seemed to be uninhabited.

Several canoes were launched, and six which had just set their sails, directed their course towards the Europeans. They immediately brought to, in order to wait for them: some of them were conducted by seven, and others by nine men. When they were within six hundred meters of the ship, the savages took in their sail, and employed their paddles to get nearer. Each canoe was under the direction of a chief, who stood on a platform to pronounce his orders. When these canoes had advanced about three hundred meters by paddling, they stopped, and with an exalted voice, addressed a long speech to the Europeans. His eloquence was entirely lost, but the signs he made evidently demonstrated that he was inviting them to come on shore.

Our adventurers endeavoured to prevail on them to come nearer the ships. They could not resist the sight of some pieces of red cloth, and, after a little consultation among them, they ventured to advance a little. Some nails and knives fastened to a plank, and lowered down to them, diffused great joy among them, when the savage, who untied them, held them up to the rest.

These savages now presumed to come nearer to the ship, but without consenting to come on board. By degrees the number of their canoes increased, and traffic was carried on with integrity: several of the natives, who had been pushed from the ship by the canoes, before they had time to pay for the article they had purchased, made every effort to bring back its equivalent. They sedulously sought for the person to whom they were indebted, and when he was found, delivered to him the value of the goods they had received †.

The greater part of these savages had their ears

* A looking-glass having been given to one of these savages, he viewed himself in it with astonishment, and shortly after broke it; imagining perhaps that it had the effect of magic.

† The great number of canoes which surrounded the Europeans prevented several from coming near the ship; but many of the paddlers jumped overboard, and swam to them with the articles of traffic. The disposition of these inhabitants is remarkably mild, if a judgment may be formed of it by their conduct towards the Europeans; and an air of good nature was depicted in their features. How very different are these, from the savages of a little island they had visited a few days before! It is surprising to find so much difference in the manners of savages at so short a distance from each other, and who are equally bordering on a state of nature! But it should be remembered that the former had only to deal with boats, while the latter trafficked with ships, which perhaps kept them in awe.

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ars pierced, and different shells fastened to them; t is the interior lobe of the ear, which, after aving been bored, they distend so extremely, hat it hangs down lower than the shoulder. Their hair is black and curly; but they some-imes redden it with an ochre mixed with oil. Their skin is of a light black: it is sometimes ainted with red in different parts of the body, nd especially the face.

Neither bows nor clubs were seen among them; ut they have darts, from a meter and a half to wo meters long. The volcanic stone, with which these were armed, was sharp on each edge, nd its whole length was three fourths of a de-imeter: this agate was fixed at one of the ends f the dart, where it was fastened with a cord overed with a species of mastic. This must be dangerous weapon among naked people.

Several of the natives had a hole bored in the eptum of the nose, through which they had passed a string: at the extremities of which long ye-teeth were suspended. An order issued by he admiral had very much impeded the traffic, ut the savages had still many articles which they were desirous of parting with,

Their canoes are formed of the trunk of a ree, hollowed out, and its sides raised with planks: they are about two thirds of a meter in readth, and ten meters in length. They have n outrigger of about four meters long, which lso extends laterally almost the same distance. On the opposite side is another outrigger, which does not dip into the water, serving only to steady he sail. The chief sometimes sits on it. The ail is made of matting, and is square, the sides of which are four meters in length: two cylin-drical spars, of the same dimensions, supply the place of a yard. Their paddles are broad in the blade, and have a handle about two meters long: a savage placed near the stern, steers with his paddle. Close to a fishing place, our adven-turers saw seventeen canoes, which immediately began to paddle towards them. They brought to, in order to wait for them; but, disregarding their invitations, they kept at the distance of a kilometer from the ship: they therefore made sail again, steering west by south.

In the evening two canoes put off from the coast, and directed their course towards the Europeans. It was dark when they got within hail. One of the chiefs very audibly addressed them: as it was almost calm, the adventurers endeavoured to attract them to their ship; but they would not venture near enough to receive their presents. Some of the officers imagined, that a sky-rocket would afford them pleasure, but it was found to have a contrary effect; for the sight of it only terrified them, and caused them to make off with precipitation.

At break of day on the first of August, our adventurers perceived the Hermits' Islands, discovered in 1781 by Don Francisco Antonio Maurelli, in the Spanish ship of war, *La Princessa*. Their high lands seemed, at a distance, to leave between them sufficient intervals to afford a passage for ships; but they afterwards discovered low coasts stretching out into the sea; and they distinguished the reefs by which they were connected. This little Archipelago is composed of thirteen islets, in the midst of which lies a principal island, whose extent is about three myriameters. The group of the Hermits' Islands, including the reefs, is about seven myriameters in circumference.

At five in the afternoon of the 8th, they were under the equator, when they saw at the distance of one third of a myriameter, a considerable water-spout forming to the south-west. Though the air was perfectly still around them, the sea was frothy, and much agitated at the spot where the water-spout originated. A small cloud was stationary at a few decimeters above the place whence it rose. The water-spout had the form of two very elongated cones, united at their summit; the base of one resting on the sea, that of the other was lost in a sombre cloud *.

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The chief of each canoe usually made the paddlers resign he articles they had received from the navigators. Some-mes they employed force to oblige them to deliver the resents they had received to them. One of the paddlers ad just accepted of a piece of red serge, which he would ot part with to one of the chiefs, till the latter had com-elled him to do so, by giving him a very severe drubbing.

* The clouds appeared to be agitated by a whirlwind, which, collecting a vast quantity of water, was pouring down in torrents. If, as some natural philosophers assert, a water-spout sucked up the waters of the sea in a great volume, this water ought to be salt at its fall, which by no means accords with experience: a person of credit, who saw two fall on board a ship, assured the Admiral, that they had constantly discharged fresh water. In the contrary supposition, this phenomenon may be easily explained

During a great part of the night of the 18th the wind had roared over the lands of New Guinea, and driven a vast quantity towards this quarter. The sky seemed to announce a tempest; but it may be necessary to remark, that the storms near the quator display a more menacing aspect than is usually realized: it was not long before very fine weather succeeded.

Our adventurers saw, stretching from east to west, a fine chain of mountains, the most elevated of which was about fifteen hundred meters in perpendicular height: the lofty trees which covered them, added much to the grandeur of the landscape. On the 19th, at two kilometers from New Guinea, they sounded with a line of a hundred fathoms, without striking ground. Two fires, announced by the rising of the smoke at the foot of the large trees, were the first indications that this country was inhabited.

They were now at no considerable distance from the Cape of Good Hope of New Guinea, which they doubled at the distance of two kilometers. On the 23d, they ran very close along the shores of New Guinea, intending to enter among the Moluccas, by Watson's Strait. At nine in the evening, they heard, towards the western shore, the voice of some savages, seemingly addressed to them: a fire appeared at the same time. On the 24th, at day-break, they were close to Passage Island, and perceived on the Batanta coast, a small village; the inhabitants of which seemed to view them with indifference. Pitt's Strait is about five myriameters in length, and one myriameter in width. When they tried for soundings, they could not strike ground with a line of one hundred and twenty-five fathoms. They put about to avoid some shoals; several persons, however, were of opinion, that there was a sufficient depth of water for the ships to go over them.

On the 27th the ship was surrounded by twenty-seven whales, which were six or seven meters in length. On the 1st of September, being a clear day, our adventurers enjoyed the grand prospect of several chains of mountains, parallel in their direction from east to west. They saw several fires lighted on the island of Ceram, and a fire on one of the mountains, which proves that their summits are frequented by the natives. On the approach of night, they were two kilometers from the coast of Ceram. They also saw pretty close to the shore, several fires, which appeared to be kindled above the water by fishermen, in order to attract the fish.

A sea-breeze which sprung up about ten in the morning of the 4th, favoured their progress to the southward, and they soon perceived the west coast of Amboyna to the south-south-east. The situation of their scorbutic people, was daily becoming more alarming; and the number of them increased with such rapidity, that they wished earnestly for favourable winds: the continual rains at Carteret's Harbour, had greatly augmented their disorder, most of them suffering acute pains in the loins *.

They made some stretches, which brought them sufficiently near to the west extremity of Amboyna †, to enable them to enter the roadstead during the night. Admiral D'Entrecasteaux dispatched his second lieutenant to the Governor

ed. The transparency of the sea-water was changed during the whole day of the 9th by a *fucus*, consisting of very short, and very stringy filaments.

Sharks are numerous in these seas: several were taken of the species most widely diffused *(squalus carcharias.)* One of these, of a middling size, astonished our navigators with its voracity. Though pricked by four successive hooks in less that half an hour, it persevered in following them till it suffered itself to be caught.

The surface of the sea was violently agitated on the 12th, throughout a great space: Captain Huon, imagining this might proceed from breakers, put about: but the illusion presently disappeared. This notion was produced by a considerable shoal of fishes, which were rising to the surface of the water: they were followed by a vast number of birds.

* It is remarkable that though salt meat is one of the principal causes of the scurvy among seamen, two of the persons on board, who were violently attacked with it, had not eaten any. One of these worked in the hold, and the noxious air which he there inhaled, added to the great humidity of that part of the ship, greatly accelerated this disorder.

† The islands of Amboyna and Banda were taken, without resistance, in February and March, 1796, by the English admiral B[illegible]ler. When the English seized these islands in 1796, the annual produce was about 163,000 pounds of nutmegs, and 46,000 pounds of mace.

The nutmeg-tree grows to the size of a pear tree, the leaves resembling those of a laurel, and bears fruit from the age of ten to one hundred years. The nutmeg, when ripe on the tree, has both a very curious and beautiful appearance: it is about the size of an apricot, and nearly of a similar colour, with the same kind of hollow mark all round it; in shape it is somewhat like a pear: when perfectly ripe, the rind over the mark opens, and discovers the mace, of a deep red, growing over, and covering in part, the thin shell of the nutmeg which is black." *Asiatic Register*, 1800. *p.* 216.

of Amboyna, to ask permission to put into the island. The governor, assembled his council, and permitted them to anchor. They found, in this little island, the means of supplying their ships, far beyond their expectations, with every thing that was necessary for continuing their voyage.

A captain, in the Dutch East-India Company's service, was sent by the Governor to point out the place where our navigators were to anchor. After having made several boards, they came to at half past one in the afternoon, in twenty-seven fathoms water, the bottom muddy sand. There was then here a Company's ship, taking in her cargo of cloves. The Esperance anchored half an hour after to the north-east of the Recherche. In the road were eighteen vessels, all under Dutch colours. One of these only was a three-masted ship; the others were chiefly brigs and sloops.

SECTION VII.

Stay at Amboyna—A Boy drowned from the Recherche—A Visit to the Governor—Excursions into the Interior of the Island—One of the Naturalists becomes indisposed—His Disorder—Excellent Juice of the Sago Palm—Uses and Virtues of that Tree—Account of the Flying Lizard—A Dutch Sailor conceals himself in the Woods, to avoid going to Batavia—Habitations of the Natives of Amboyna—Their Dress, &c.—Culture of the Nutmeg-Tree—Culture of the Clove-Tree—Fishing Places of the Inhabitants—Sago Palm—Extraction of its Pith—Observations on the Island and its Inhabitants.

AT half an hour after three, they saluted the fort with nine guns; and the fort saluted them with the same number. The admiral had invited all the officers to accompany him, at five in the afternoon, to pay a visit to the governor; but our naturalist, knowing nothing of this arrangement, strolled about the town. He found it surrounded by gardens, where the principal culture is that of trees, which highly favour the indolence of man under a burning sky, by yielding him a profusion of delicious fruits, requiring little more trouble than to gather them.

Different varieties of plantain trees, and many species of orange-trees, were growing in these delightful gardens: the guava, the custard-apple, and different species of *annona* here yield their exquisite fruits. A few trees of the henné were also remarked, which rose to the height of four meters. The Arabian jasmin, rising among these charming trees, blended their sweet odour with so many delicious perfumes.

On returning to the town, a minister of the protestant religion invited them to his house. He brought them several sorts of spirituous liquors; but water, perfectly limpid, just taken from the spring, was the most agreeable beverage, especially to persons who had been long reduced to a brackish element, and fed only upon salt provision. This worthy ecclesiastic was astonished at having entertained them at so cheap a rate. He informed them that earthquakes were frequent at Amboyna, and that one of unusual violence had been felt within a few years: that it had been accompanied by a hurricane, which continued three days; and, during all this time, the sea had exceeded its limits, and inundated the country where the town is situated*.

It was very necessary for our navigators to remain on shore, in order to recover their strength; the Governor therefore consented to their taking lodgings in the town. When they were introduced to this exalted character, he received them in the most gracious manner; but they were concerned at his having, on their account, encumbered himself with his full dress: he was almost suffocated with heat under a very heavy black velvet coat: such a dress is extremely inconvenient near the line; but the Dutch go-

* Gabriel Abalen, a boy belonging to the ship, who was appointed to attend on the warrant officers, disappeared in the evening of the 7th: he had been seen on board the whole day; but, in the evening, they called him several times in vain. This youth, though of a mild and temperate disposition, had drank enough in the course of the day, to create the greatest inquietude respecting his fate. He might have fallen overboard, and it was well known that he could not swim.

vernors wear it because it is a prerogative of their office *.

The Dutch in Amboyna are in the habit of bathing every three or four days, and at those times they carefully avoid exposing themselves to the great heat, which is experienced from eleven in the morning till three in the afternoon. Our navigators made several attempts to penetrate into the middle of the large plantations of sago-palms; but the waters, which wash the foot of these palms, often obliged them to return as they went: this tree, which is so conducive to the nourishment of man, forms a considerable part of the riches of the island.

On the beach, at low water, our adventurers saw a great number of crabs, of the species called *cancer vocans*. This singular species of animal, one of whose claws is sometimes larger than the body, often becomes the prey of the birds. A little excursion to the south of the town, procured them a sight of the tomb of Rumphius. The simplicity of this monument reminded them of the simplicity of the manners of this accurate observer of nature. His tomb was surrounded by the shrub known by the name of *pana fruticosum*. In the morning of the 15th they went to the westward; but the heat was so oppressive about noon, that they found it necessary to return to their lodging.

Having for some time followed the banks of a small river, which discharges itself in the roadstead not far from the town, they were returning loaded with fine plants, when, on the approach of night, they met with some natives who had been successful in fishing, and were preparing to dress their fish. They saw them kindle a fire by means of two pieces of bamboo, rubbed one against the other †.

On the 25th Citizen Riche, and another, went up the river called Batou Ganton, which discharges its waters into the roadstead of the town. They proposed to ascend this river as high as possible, and to follow its banks as closely as they could; but their steepness induced them to cross the water, which seldom exceeded a demi-meter in depth. They had not proceeded many yards, when they met a Dutch sailor, who had deserted from a large ship laden with cloves, which was destined to sail for Batavia. The fear of falling a victim to the contagious disorder, so fatal to Europeans, operated so powerfully on this poor man, that he resolved to conceal himself in the woods till the ship had sailed. They sincerely pitied his lot, little supposing that the

* Some refreshments were served up: the admiral wished for some good water, and poured out some which appeared to him the clearest: but he found it saline and unpleasant. It was Seltzer water, much valued by the Dutch as an agreeable liquor; and costs them as much as the best Rhenish wine: but it might well have been supposed, that under a burning sky, after a long privation of fresh meat, our adventurers could not have much inclination to drink salt water.

The admiral next proposed to introduce the party to the members of the council: they approved of his proposal, and were all respectfully received. The fears of our navigators, respecting the lad who had disappeared three days before, were but two well founded; at half past two in the afternoon of the 10th, he was discovered beginning to float near the ship. This young man was much regretted by all the ship's company; and several exclaimed against the inattention of those who, having brought him up in his infancy, had not caused him to learn to swim. It is devoutly to be wished that this event may serve as an example to others. "I have seen with astonishment," says the narrator of this voyage, "that many seamen could not swim."

The west end of the town where our navigators resided, is the quarter principally inhabited by the Chinese: very few of the natives of the island live in it, and only one Dutchman. The other Dutchmen are situated about the centre of the town, or towards the east side of it. The company's garden contains nothing remarkable but a very convenient bath, where the Governor went regularly every three or four days; another bath near it, is appropriated to the use of the women.

† Among the number of lizards, engaged in the pursuit of insects, the activity of that which is called the flying lizard, is admirable. During the greatest heat of the day, this pretty animal was seen darting with rapidity from branch to branch, extending two membranes, like wings, by means of which it occasionally supports itself in the air. As nature has not furnished it with muscles necessary for flapping such wings, it can only counteract them by moderating the rapidity of its fall.

Wishing to cut some branches of different plants, cultivated in a garden belonging to one of the natives of the island, our naturalist was dissuaded from it by one of the party, by representing that he would expose himself to danger; he pointed to a small shed, and several times repeated, with an air of respect mingled with fear, the word *matai;* when their interpreter informed them that by this term, which signifies a dead body, they meant to convey an idea of the former possessor of this garden, who had been buried under the shed that they beheld. These inhabitants believe that the soul of the deceased wanders round these places, to protect the produce of them for the present proprietor; and that any other person who should possess himself of it, would die within the year. This opinion is so generally diffused and acknowledged, that one native seldom ventures to touch the property of another: the *matai* is therefore a bugbear which generally secures the crop to the legal possessor.

abode

abode which he so much dreaded, was reserved for the termination of their expedition.

Having expeditiously exhausted all their provisions, they entertained hopes of purchasing from the natives, a sufficient supply for the remainder of the day. It was three o'clock in the afternoon when they took the liberty of calling at a small house near the bank of the river; but the mistress of this habitation assured them that she had not what they wanted. They protested they would pay her liberally for whatever she would furnish. After a little conversation between the parties, it appeared in the sequel, that these peaceable natives are not always satisfied with the proceedings of the Europeans, who are their masters in the island; and had frequently been deceived by relying on their promises. At length, some glasses of arrack, and a few articles of hardware, procured them her confidence.

They were invited to sit down under the shed, formed by a continuation of the roof of the house. Some cray-fishes, caught in the stream already mentioned, were set before them in profusion. Sweet potatoes and yams were roasted for them, and their beverage was a slightly fermented wine of the sago-palm. The young damsel, who had the trouble of preparing this repast, had a captivating face, and an engaging person: an ingenious air added to the interest she had inspired. Having brought them some fruit, she retreated, and sat down behind her mother, occasionally casting some glances at the new guests, to satisfy her curiosity.

They found the purest gratification in this little repast: the construction of their houses is adapted to the fineness of the climate, and their lightness requires no digging below the rocks for a foundation. As they never experience a severe season, the walls are so constructed as to leave a free passage for the air: they consist of palisades, usually formed of the stems of bamboo, almost adjoining to each other.

It appeared extraordinary that these inhabitants, who are so fond of ease, lie on a sort of lattice of sticks, placed at the distance of a demi-decimeter from each other. This bed was very hard, though it was covered with mats; but those who reposed on them enjoyed the freshness of the air, which circulated freely through the interstices. It was raised a demi-meter above the ground; and under it were deposited a part of the household utensils; consisting of three earthen pots, intended for dressing their food; a few bottles, which they had purchased from Europeans; and some spoons, formed from the large shells that are common in Amboyna. Under this bed was also deposited a pick-axe, and a large knife, partaking of the shape of a butcher's cleaver *.

The presents which our adventurers liberally bestowed excited the gratitude of these people: the young girl, after a short absence, returned to offer them some fragrant flowers. A thread was necessary to tie them into nosegays, which was procured from the bastard aloe, called *agave vivipara*. The master of the house went immediately and cut a branch of this plant, and, after scraping off its pulp, he obtained from it a fascicle of threads as long as the leaf, and as strong as those of the best hemp.

On their return they met a slave, whose decrepitude excited their curiosity. They could get no satisfactory information from him respecting his age: he was totally ignorant of the matter. How strange it appeared that a man should not remember the number of years he had passed in slavery!

On the 27th one of our adventurers went up the roadstead in a canoe, with a double outrigger. Some of the sportsmen, proceeding quickly to the eastward of the town, joined the party. They followed the right hand shore of the road, at a small distance from the coast: the water was so limpid that they could see at the depth of three or four fathoms, a white bottom composed of *madreporæ*, on which they distinguished a species of ray, remarkable for large circular spots of a light azure blue, and several other fishes of very brilliant colours. Among other paddlers, they had a New Guinea man, who had the dexterity to strike several.

Having got about three kilometers from the town, they admired the charming situation of a country-house belonging to the governor, at the foot of the mountains, the chain of which terminates at no great distance from the roadstead.

* From the mildness of the climate, the inhabitants require little cloathing: a pair of drawers, descending no lower than the middle of the thigh, or a piece of blue cloth fastened round the loins, is the only cloathing of the men employed in agriculture. The dress of the women is more expensive: the wear a sort of chemise of the same kind of cloth, reaching to the middle of the leg, which is fastened by a girdle round their waist.

A small house, inhabited by natives, and surrounded by clove and plantain trees, added beauty to the landscape. After having passed some fishing places, they landed about a myriameter from the town, near a house, the master of which gave them as many cocoa-nuts as they desired. They had with them some seamen, who, finding this liquor too sweet, mixed a sufficient quantity of brandy with it, and they had the pleasure to observe that the host did not disapprove of this beverage *.

Curiosity induced one of our adventurers to visit a house situated near the sea-shore. He there found an old man, who, contrary to the custom of these islanders, wore a long beard: he was employed in cooking some whelks, which he had just picked up at low water, at the foot of the mangroves near his habitation. This venerable personage, instead of being surprised at his visit, invited him to partake of his repast. The consort of this aged native joined him soon after; whose youth would have astonished him, had he not been aware that these islanders place their happiness in marrying very young girls. Their countenance assumes great animation, when they speak of a young female, and make horrible grimaces, and distortions of face, when they talk of an old woman.

Almost the whole of the 28th was employed in preparing and describing the specimens collected before. Our naturalist found in an excursion the pretty lizard called *lacerta amboynensis*; he observed that it changed its colour like the cameleon; its most usual colour was green, and it frequently turned to a dark brown. Though this lizard moves rapidly, it was caught without difficulty; as it suffered itself to be approached so near as to expose the extremity of its long tail to the eagerness of its pursuers.

One of our navigators walked to the sea-side, in the evening, to examine the marine productions there to be met with; and he prosecuted these researches till dark. He observed some fishermen, in their canoes not far from the shore, who were availing themselves of the darkness of the night to attract the fish, by means of fires lighted near the surface of the water. One of the fishermen was employed in keeping the fire in a flourishing condition, while the others were occupied in accumulating the fish in their nets, attracted from a great distance by this dazzling light: these islanders, upon this occasion, proved themselves very dexterous fishermen †.

One of the naturalists found in the gardens cultivated by the natives, a few nutmeg-trees, the largest of which did not exceed seven meters in height, nor two thirds of a decimeter in thickness. Plenty of fruit were then observed on them. The nutmeg delights in the shade of the large trees: these were sheltered by the *canarium commune*. They are sheltered by the same tree in the island of Banda, which is principally appropriated to their culture by the Dutch.

The council of the Dutch East India Company, which resides at Batavia, finding the produce of the nutmeg-trees of Banda sufficient for exportation, ordered, a few years previous to the arrival of our adventurers at Amboyna, all the nutmeg-trees that grew there to be destroyed. This order was so completely executed, that very few escaped. A hurricane, in the very same year, effected at Banda, what the council had just caused to be executed at Amboyna. Orders were then given by the council to endeavour to repair the mischief which they had done at Amboyna. The culture of the nutmeg-tree was re-established; in consequence of which, those which were now met with on the shores of the roadstead, were still very young.

They saw the beautiful laurel called *laura*

* The manner in which the natives of this country procure fire, is well entitled to notice: it is not so commodious as a good flint and steel, but they can find, almost every where, the substance which produces it; for a bit of bamboo is all that is required. They split into two equal parts, a piece of bamboo a demi-meter long: in one of these parts they make a longitudinal slit, and shape the other to a sharp edge, leaving it four centimeters in width. They put some of the scrapings of the same wood in the hollow, and underneath the slit of the largest piece, which they place in a horizontal position, which the convex part uppermost; they then introduce the other piece into the middle of the slit, having made a notch to receive it, and pressing it strongly they cause it to make the motion of a saw, when in the space of less than a minute, the scrapings take fire.

† At Karuka, a small island to the westward of Amboyna two springs present themselves, the heat of which is so considerable, that several Europeans have affirmed they will boil an egg hard in the space of five minutes. The burning vapour issuing from these waters is not prejudicial to the trees which are continually laved by it; on the contrary, they display a vigorous vegetation. In the island of Banda, also to the eastward of Amboyna, there is an open volcano. The island of Karuka is chiefly devoted to the culture of the clove tree.

curilaban,

curilaban, which yields by distillation, an aromatic oil much esteemed. The largest clove-trees that were seen in this excursion were about seven meters in height. The natives carefully avoid exposing them to the rays of the sun, which would take away part of the essential oil of this excellent aromatic.

On the first of October they employed a few hours in visiting the Governor's cabinet of natural history, in which were found a numerous collection of beautiful butterflies in perfect preservation. Among them were a great many double ones, extremely uncommon: a large box was entirely filled with the beautiful species called *papilio agamemnon*. In this cabinet were also observed an excellent choice of shells, among which were upwards of twenty screw shells. Captain Huon obtained a number of very rare shells from the secretary of the Council; among others, one of the rarest and most valuable, the glassy *nautilus*, which that officer has bequeathed to the Museum of Natural History at Paris*.

Citizen Riche, the naturalist, made the paddlers dive, when they often brought up some valuable marine productions. A beautiful shrub, known under the name of *abronea augusta*, was much admired. The nutmeg-trees here attract pigeons of the species called *columba alba*. Those which our adventurers had shot, had their craw filled with nutmegs.

The excessive perspiration, encouraged by this burning climate, frequently produces cutaneous disorders. Five of the islanders, at whose habitations our adventurers stopped, had their bodies covered with *morphæa*, the scales of which, when they fell off, were immediately replaced with others. This disease sometimes spreads over every part of the body. Children were also seen afflicted with a cutaneous disease, which was not attended with any degree of pain; though a considerable part was covered with large warts, within a third of a decimeter from each other.

In the evening of the 9th the Governor gave an entertainment, to celebrate the birth-day of one of his sons, who was then in Europe for the completion of his education. The coolness of the atmosphere at that time permitted dancing; the ball was already begun, and several cotillions had been formed in the grand saloon, in which his Excellency had received them, and the Admiral D'Entrecasteaux, at the first visit they paid him. The orchestra consisted of four black slaves who played the violin, and of another who played the bass. The ball was followed by a splendid entertainment, which was exhibited on the same scene.

From the number of guests assembled about nine o'clock, the supper party was expected to be numerous; but the majority of the company were indifferent about dancing, and did not make their appearance till towards ten. Cheerfulness presided at this repast, and the ball was not concluded till sun-rise.

Our navigators were surprised, at this entertainment, not to find M. Stramfer, a minister of the Protestant religion, from whom they had received the greatest civility and attention: but they soon obtained information that he had lately incurred the displeasure of the governor; because, after having for several years assiduously attended the education of his children, this poor clergyman had thought proper to solicit payment for his services. His Excellency more than intimated that the honour of educating the Governor's children, was an ample compensation; and, if he expected more, he would find himself mistaken.

The island of Amboyna, named *Ambon* by the natives, was then the first of the Dutch governments in India, after the general government of Batavia. The road of Amboyna forms a channel about two myriameters long, and two thirds of a myriameter in breadth. In many places, its shores afford good anchorage: in some, however, there is a bottom of coral. Towards the middle, the depth of water is too deep for anchoring.

The island of Amboyna is divided into several districts, which in many places forms so many villages, called *negres*, the command of each

* They remarked, in a bend of the land, on the skirts of a sandy beach, some places for entrapping fish, formed by an inclosure of bamboos, so closely fixed as to prevent them from escaping. This reservoir presented a vast quantity of these aquatic inhabitants for their pursuers. Not only the human race attended them, but herons and kingfishers were frequent visitors. The presence of our adventurers occasioned a few of them to fly away; but several others remained with their long claws deeply buried in the water, patiently waiting for a favourable opportunity of seizing on them. Perched on the bamboo which constitutes the inclosure, many of these birds were seen darting, from time to time, on the unwary finny prey, and selecting them for a repast.

nygree is given to a native, and with it the title of *Orankaye*. This man, to whom the police of this small canton is confided, is responsible to the Dutch government; to which he applies in cases of importance. The Dutch East India Company, on investing a person with this authority, presents him with a silver hilted sword. The chiefs are clothed in the European manner; and all in black. They wear a cocked hat, sharply pointed at the corners, which are very low: shoes are added to this official dress, which are only worn when they are obliged to appear in public, or in the presence of the Dutch chiefs.

Orankaye is formed of two Malay words, *oran kaya*, which, translated literally, signify *rich man*. The inhabitants of Amboyna speak the Malay language: it is very soft, and has some analogy with the language of the inhabitants of the South Sea. The use of betel has been established from time immemorial among these people: they take some young leaves of the pepper tree, and having covered them with a little pure lime, made of shells, and newly slacked, they chew them with the cashew-nut. These islanders, however, do not content themselves with chewing betel; they procure from Molucca an extract of bitter plants, known by the name of *gamber*, which they also employ in mastication.

The marshy places here are devoted to the culture of the sago-tree, which furnishes the inhabitants with a very salutary food.

This government, attentive only to its own interest, stifles among these people all the energy of industry, almost forcing them to abandon every other species of culture for that of clove and nutmeg-trees. The Dutch limit the cultivation of spices, that it may not too much exceed the ordinary consumption. Plenty of farinaceous roots, and a great number of trees, furnish them almost without culture, an abundant subsistence; nature seeming inclined to compensate man for the indolence to which she seems to have condemned him under so burning a sky *.

The frequency of earthquakes and hurricanes here, occasions a preference to be given to wooden houses. Hardly any but the public buildings are constructed of stone. In tempestuous times, the inhabitants are obliged to quit their dwellings, and retreat to little huts slightly erected, where they are in greater safety than the massy houses, which provoke an overthrow by the obstinacy of their resistance †.

Though these people are accustomed to give up almost every thing they possess to the Europeans, there is one, which they are very little disposed to resign. Jealousy reigns so triumphantly among them, that it would be extremely dangerous to attempt to hold any improper conversation with their women: no fear of punishment would deter them from pursuing the most violent emotions of revenge.

Among the Dutch the men have European clothes for their dress of ceremony. Those who wear a wig, deliver it into the hands of one of their servants, and then put on a large cap of very fine white linen. The European women wear a petticoat, which almost touches the ground, and a gown like a chemise, open in front, which falls no lower than the petticoat, and is drawn in by a sash; their hair is rolled spirally behind the head. and confined by two large pins which cross each other. The women among the natives, who reside in the town, wear dresses of the same form, but generally black. The women in the country, give a preference to blue. The female slave, instead of a gown wear a sort of shift, which is open in front like

* The Chinese are almost the only foreigners whom the Dutch permit to reside in Amboyna; but they are obliged to get naturalized, which deprives them of the privilege of returning again to China. They are permitted to navigate in the Moluccas; and they can procure, at Macassar and Batavia, where the ships from Chinaare admitted, the merchandize which these vessels bring from that country. They are all engaged in trade; some of them having purchased at an extravagant price, the exclusive privilege of vending particular articles; and they much more than indemnify themselves, by manifesting no scruples of conscience in the price they demand for such articles. They employ every art to get money, without considering how much their reputation suffers by such proceedings: in this respect they have lost every spark of sensibility. Some Jews, who have obtained a grant from the Dutch East India Company remain in the island, enter into competition with them trade; but they are not successful rivals; the Chinese ha many advantages over them, from their number and th connections.

† The Chinese, as may reasonably be supposed, have pagoda. A few natives of the island, who have preser the religion introduced by the Arabs and the Moors, ha a mosque. The Dutch have been more successful in maki proselytes to their religion, in the environs of the princi establishment. The rod of iron, with which they gov these miserable people, so assimilates them to slaves, th is not astonishing to find among them many of the vi which proceed from this state of degradation of man.

that of the free women. The free men wear their hair turned up with a comb. The slaves tie a handkerchief round their head.

The only spirituous liquor they could procure was arrack, of which they purchased several casks. Some navigators are too liberal in their commendations of this liquor: it is even inferior to brandy of a middling quality.

SECTION VIII.

Departure from Amboyna—Behold different Islands—Navigation along the Coast of New Holland —Death of the Smith of the Recherche—Anchor in Legrand's Bay—The Esperance loses Two Iron Tillers—Various Excursions in the neighbouring Country—Riche loses himself Two Days in the Woods—Sail from Legrand's Bay to range along the Shore—Want of Water obliges them to quit the Coast—Arrival at Cape Diemen.

WHILST they were waiting for a fair wind to sail from Amboyna, a light breeze sprang up early in the morning of the 14th of October, from the south-east: they weighed anchor immediately, and by eleven o'clock they were at the outlet of the roadstead. The Admiral had granted permission to the ships' companies to take on board for themselves, hogs and poultry; in consequence of which every part of the ships was encumbered with them. Most of them were placed between the decks; and they were the more offensive, as the noxious odour which they diffused was greatly augmented by the heat of the climate.

Our adventurers were again witnesses of a phenomenon which never fails to terrify navigators, as in the night it creates an idea of breakers. Early in the morning of the 19th, when the air was hardly agitated, they perceived the sea foaming at a distance; some waves, impelled with force, succeeded each other, and reached them in a short time: a strong rippling, occasioned by the sea having received an impulse, different to that given it by the wind which had blown during the night, succeeded to this motion of the waters. The cause seemed to depend on the tides which run between the lands, where the currents acquire a rapidity, in proportion to the confinement which the waves of the sea there experience.

They got sight of Kisser Island at nine in the morning, bearing from south to east by south. A cloudy sky did not permit them, till four in the afternoon, to discover the northern coast of Timor, from which they were only at the distance of a myriameter: some lofty mountains reared their heads above the clouds, on which fires were kindled at night, at different heights. To our adventurers, these fires answered the purposes of so many light-houses, serving to direct them along the coast.

At seven in the morning of the 23d, they were a demi-myriameter from a settlement belonging to the Portuguese, on the coast of Timor, which is called Laphao. A canoe, with a double outrigger, immediately came and reconnoitered the ships, to which she approached very near, but returned towards the west without having spoken to them. Calms being frequent along the coast of Timor, they hauled off from it on the 25th, and directed their course to the westward *.

It was not quite half past two o'clock in the morning of the 6th, when they stood on to the east-south-east: and, as soon as day-light appeared, the Esperance made the signal for land in the north-east quarter, at the distance of three myriameters; it was the western extremity of the south-west coast of New Holland, discovered by Leuwin in the year 1662 †.

About

* A number of whales repeatedly surrounded their ships, spouting out water on their very decks. Between four and five in the morning of the 26th, they perceived by the light of the stars, the island of Savu; and were only two kilometers from the coast. The island of Savu presents an enchanting prospect, being intersected with several very fine hills; the gentle declivities of which must afford the natives a favourable soil.

On the 5th of December, the sight of several gulls, and other birds, which seldom quit the shore, indicated the proximity of land. The wind blew too strong at west-south-west, to permit them to stand directly in for it.

† In the morning the smith of the Recherche was found dead in his bed. The day before he had been present at an entertainment, which had formerly been celebrated by the French gunners with scrupulous exactness; they had long been

About noon on the 8th, they observed inland to the northward, a very lofty mountain, insulated in the midst of a vast plain of sand, producing a picturesque effect, about five myriameters distant from the coast. Its rugged points were distinguished throughout the whole extent of the mountain, which seemed to stretch a myriameter and a half from east to west. As they had not any indication of inhabitants, since they had coasted these barren shores, they apprehended that some spring of clear water might attract them towards the foot of this mountain. The smoke of two large fires that instant convinced them of the propriety of this suggestion. At half past four, after they had doubled a cape, terminated by some rocks near the coast, they found themselves opposite to a wide bay: it was skirted by lands in general very low; but, towards its eastern side, they remarked a few hills detached from each other. A good shelter against winds is afforded from the west and south-west, but not from those which blow from the south-east. Some red-shafted tropic birds, and albatrosses of darker hue than usual, amused themselves by flying round our adventurers.

At four in the morning of the 9th, they stood on the north-east by north, in order to draw in with the coast, and they perceived it almost immediately. About nine they discovered an islot to the eastward, which was connected to the main by a chain of reefs. Three fires lighted successively on the point of land which the reefs spit off, informed them that there were savages on this spot. From other similar fires, kindled along the coast, thick columns of smoke ascended, the inhabitants perhaps wishing to announce their presence in that quarter.

At six in the morning of the 12th, they stood on before the wind in the middle of some islots, lying about a myriameter from the coast, though they were uncertain of finding a passage among them. About ten they had made considerable progress, and perceived that they were linked together by reefs. The weather had a threatening appearance, and the wind blew from the west south-west with the greatest impetuosity. They had long sought, between these shoals, some break that might permit them to gain the open sea, but without success; for as they had no other outlet, than the passage by which they had run in, they tacked, in order to stand towards it: in vain they lay up several times for the opening; they were always obliged to run in again to the middle of the shoals, and thus continue plying to windward, in a space strewn with rocks, concealed under water, on which they were in constant expectation of seeing the ship strike; as it required a very experienced eye to distinguish them in so rough a sea. Citizen Raoul, assistant pilot, and a very intelligent man, had gone up to the main topmast head, and thence he directed the course of the ship. They saw themselves frequently driven close to shoals hidden by the waves, and he carried them clear of them all, though it was extremely difficult to discern them even at a short distance.

The Esperance, which did not hold so good a wind as the Recherche, was now close to the coast, having no other resource than to run ashore if she could find a shelter where she might anchor. At one in the afternoon they perceived her at a great distance: she had just clued up her sails, and the commander of the Recherche was uneasy, thinking she had struck; but the position of her masts soon dispelled his fears, by convincing him that she was come to an anchor: but her distance, and the violence of the wind, prevented our adventurers from understanding the signal she was making to them.

The admiral did not hesitate to seek the same shelter: he immediately gave orders for bearing up north by east under the foresail, and they presently ran to within a little distance of the Esperance, and found her, in a slight degree protected from the sea by an islot. Signals were made from that ship, to warn them to keep close to the land. In coasting the little island, they beheld the frightful prospect of a boisterous sea, which, having cleared the south point, opened in its fall a gulf, exposing to view part of the base of this rock. The fear of approaching too near the land, induced them to cast anchor about five o'clock, to windward of the Esperance, but not sufficiently within the anchorage to avoid

been collecting for this repast a quantity of provisions. The unfortunate smith, enfeebled by a limited degree of abstinence, to which the whole crew were condemned since their departure from Amboyna, had indulged his appetite too freely, and an apoplectic fit terminated his existence. Fortunately, a very intelligent workman of the same profession, had been taken on board at the Cape of Good Hope, who succeeded him, or his loss would have been irreparable.

falling

falling on board of her, if their ship dragged her anchor. The danger was the greater, as their first anchor came home: axes were in readiness for cutting away the masts, to give less hold to the wind, but a second anchor brought them up.

Being violently tossed about by the sea, they were exposed to almost the whole impetuosity of the wind; continually afraid of seeing their cables part; as they would, in that case, have fallen on some rocks, where the sea was breaking in a tremendous manner. Towards night, they let go a third anchor under foot, to be more certain of withstanding such violent efforts.

The mercury in the barometer, which had fallen to twenty-seven inches, eight and a half lines, perceptibly rose at day-light on the 11th, and announced that the storm was at end.

The sea having fallen considerably, Captain Huon sent his boat to inform the commander of the Recherche, that, on the preceding day, the Esperance had been carried so rapidly towards the land, that she was on the point of running ashore, when Citizen Legrand, a meritorious officer, had in the height of the gale gone to the mast-head, and rapturously exclaimed, on coming down, that the ship was clear of danger. He described the situation of the anchorage which he had discovered, and strenuously affirmed that a vessel might ride there in safety. The salvation of the two ships depended upon the discovery; for, had the Recherche been obliged to stay during the night, in the midst of these shoals, after having so long struggled against the violence of the gale, in hopes of gaining the open sea, she would infallibly have been lost *.

The swell had not sufficiently subsided to render it safe even for a good swimmer to attempt to get on shore; which was not the only danger to be apprehended, as such adventurers might probably become the prey of a large shark, that had kept a few yards astern of them. They had seen him ever since the dawn of day, prowling round the ships, and he had sedulously followed their boat, as if he had resolved to have a snap at one of them. The chaplain of the Recherche fell into the water, and would probably have been devoured by this voracious animal, had not the coxswain rescued him from the danger †.

The islot, on which they now were, was composed of a beautiful granite, where quartz, felspar, and mica predominate. From the summit of this little island they distinguished, at a distance, part of the reefs and rocks on which their ships had like to have been dashed to pieces. Their number still terrified them, and they were astonished at having been able to escape from so many dangers. Two gulls, a male and female, came to settle on the heights in the vicinity: the female having been shot, the male, alarmed at the report of the explosion, at first took to flight, but presently he returned to the same spot, life being no longer desireable without his mate; he therefore courted annihilation by her side ‡.

Soon after he distinguished some others, advancing towards the beach: before they ventured to come on shore, they raised near half their body above the water, and continued some time in that attitude, swelling and looking about, on all sides, to judge whether it would be dangerous to come and repose upon the rock.

Enormous sharks, of the common species, fre-

* This bay, which obtained the name of Legrand, will recal to memory the signal service rendered to the expedition by this excellent seaman. From the place where they lay, they enumerated twelve islots, with some rocks and breakers, which afforded them shelter. In this vast basin the sea might send them a profusion of very heavy waves; but they were fortunately anchored in good holding ground. Several seals, of the species called *phoca pucilla*, were observed basking in the sun, on the rocks, and along the shore; some of them permitted themselves to be killed with sticks. Their boats were surrounded with swans, several of which were easily taken with the hand; whilst others were apprehensive of danger, and immediately took to flight. This new species is a little smaller than the wild swan, and is of a cinereous grey, the tint of which is lighter under the belly; the bill is blackish, with a protuberance of a sulphureous colour at its base; the feet are slightly tinged with red.

† Some seamen belonging to the Esperance, amused themselves by walking on the rocks, and killing, with their sticks, a considerable number of seals; many of which were white, some of a dark grey, and others of a deep brown: but they were all of the same species, classed by Buffon under the name of *petit phoque*.

‡ One of our naturalists had fired with a small shot at a seal, that was lying down at a pretty considerable distance from him; he found himself wounded, and distrusting his strength, did not throw himself into the water. Presently he saw another very large one, which, attracted by the cries of the wounded seal, came and licked the places whence the blood was flowing: this animal submitted to the operation, at it afforded him some relief: but, seeing a boat approaching, they both plunged immediately into the sea.

quently made their appearance in the basin where our adventurers lay at anchor. On board the Esperance, one of them was caught, which was four meters long.

At day-break on the 14th, the geographical engineer of the Recherche, set off in a barge to reconnoitre the islots of this little archipelago, and to search for a passage to the eastward, between the shoals; he was, at the same time, to look out for a commodious watering place. Labillardiere wished to have been appointed on such an expedition; but as geographical operations are little connected with the researches of naturalists, he was not made acquainted with the hour of their departure.

Not being able to procure a boat to carry him to the main land, he determined to pass a day on the islot to the south-west; the coast of which he followed, first proceeding to the north-west. Here, on one of the most lofty summits, he found a little stream of fresh water, issuing from the clefts of a rock of granite. This discovery afforded joy to him and his little party, as they had long been reduced to a very scanty allowance of that delicious article.

Not far from this he perceived some cavities, filled with very clear water, which he supposed might be as fresh as that which was flowing from the rock, as it was upwards of two hundred meters perpendicular above the level of the sea. He was, however, mistaken; for it was very salt. Some birds were waiting for this little party to retire, that they might quench their thirst at this fountain. Here our naturalist killed a beautiful fawn-colour turtle, remarkable for six or eight golden feathers towards the base of the wings. *White*, in his Voyage to New South Wales, published in 1790, has called it *The Golden-winged Pigeon*.

A great many penguins were caught here, of the species called *aptenodyta minor*, which Captain Cook also met with at New Zealand; these were concealed in very deep holes in the rocks, from which it was found difficult to get them out. On an elevated spot, not far distant, our naturalist procured a few plants which he had not before seen. Here he gathered a new and very remarkable species of *eucalyptus* *.

At day-break on the 15th, they proceeded towards the south-west. Among a great many vegetables, a leguminous plant was gathered, which may be classed among those whose corolla is papilionaceous, and the filaments of the stamina separated from each other.

The geographical engineer, sent to make a survey of this little archipelago, reached his ship in the early part of the night: he had determined the position of more than twenty islots scattered in about a degree, both in longitude and latitude. He landed on several points, but discovered no convenient place for watering; the only fresh stream which he had perceived would hardly have supplied sufficient for the daily consumption of their ships. He had found behind the point of the main land to the east-north-east, a good anchorage, with not so great a depth of water as there was in that which they occupied †.

The boat, which returned at two in the afternoon, brought the melancholy tidings that he was not to be found. Captain Huon waited on the admiral to communicate this circumstance to

* Having determined to pass the night on shore, the party sought for a convenient place, and at length made choice of a hollow in a rock, where they were, for some time, perfectly sheltered from the wind and rain, which came on about the close of the day. The cold was sufficiently piercing to induce them to kindle a fire. Not having much provision remaining, the naturalists selected from the birds which he had shot, such as he chose to reserve for his collections, and gave his companions the others, which they broiled upon the coals. They were in expectation of enjoying a tolerably comfortable supper, and quiet repose during the night: when, all on a sudden, the wind shifted, and they became ingulfed in their cave, which they were obliged to desert with precipitation, or be suffocated with the smoke. To add to the disappointment, the wind was so violent as to extinguish the fire before the penguins were sufficiently dressed, but a keen appetite rendered them palatable. Still an ample stock of water, which they had brought from the top of the mountains, afforded them the agreeable reflection, while they were at supper, that they were at liberty to drink as much as they chose.

† The weather being favourable on the 16th, a boat was sent in search of Citizen Riche. That naturalist, enraptured with the beauty and the rich productions of the country, which had not before been visited by any observer, had probably forgotten himself in the contemplation of the stupendous charms, and very soon lost his way: he had not then returned to the place of debarkation. On proceeding in the direction he had been observed to take, their people had a near view of some natives, with whom, however, it was not possible to have any intercourse; for they always fled as the people advanced towards them. Riche's situation was the more alarming, as he had been absent almost a day and a half; and they knew that he had bewildered himself, without provision, in a very barren country.

him, and to consult with him on proper measures to be taken on this disastrous occasion. The admiral having sent for the naturalists Deschamps and Labillardiere, Captain Huon informed them of all the steps that had been taken for the restoration of their unfortunate colleague. He reminded them of the dangers to which he might have exposed himself in advancing alone into the interior of the country, where perhaps he might have fallen under the merciless blows of the savages. He added, that the most fatal consequences were to be apprehended, for it was almost beyond the limits of possibility to suppose that he could have lost his way so long. The nature of these burning sands, which are absolutely destitute of water, rendered still more frightful all the conjectures on the horrors of his situation *.

After having advanced in different directions, they returned to the landing-place at night-fall. They had travelled over a soil covered with sands, where very extensive premises were seen absolutely destitute of verdure. In these barren spots grew a beautiful plant, which has an affinity to the *irides*.

Though the heat was oppressive here in the day, the cold was felt pretty severely at night.

At day-light on the 17th, they divided themselves into two parties; one of which advanced towards the north, and the other went to the west. They directed their route by the compass, and had proceeded about a myriameter across the plains of calcareous sand. In continuing their progress, they remarked, in the midst of these sands, a few rocks of a calcareous nature, where some fine plants were gathered; which withstood the avidity of the soil.

After walking briskly for four hours, they arrived on the banks of a large lake, which communicates with the sea. The banks of the lake, which they followed for some time in approaching the sea, are somewhat marshy; this lake extends very far inland, since the party that went to the north-west also reached its banks: some of them came to inform them, that they had remarked, almost close to the lake, impressions of shoes, which left no doubt that Riche had passed there, but the marks of naked feet, which appeared close to his, created suspicions that he had been carried away by the savages into the interior of the country. A circumstance which increased the probability of this conjecture was, that they had found his pocket handkerchief on the sands, and, a few yards farther on, one of his pistols. At a little distance they perceived the smoke of an expiring fire, and round it were some pieces of paper on which they recognised Riche's hand-writing. The sand too, in this spot, retained the impression of a person who had lain down.

They were all returning towards the boats, lamenting the fate of the unfortunate wanderer, when they saw one of these who had remained to take care of the boats, running to meet them, and to inform them that Riche was still living, and that he had arrived at the water side, exhausted by hunger and fatigue. He had been upwards of fifty-four hours on shore, and had taken with him no other provisions than a few pieces of biscuit. His emaciated state deferred his friends from suffering him to indulge his appetite, and it was only by trying gradually the digestive powers of his stomach, that they gave him some food. His countenance, which at

* Their stock of water was much reduced, and as no supply could be obtained at this anchorage, Captain Huon, after enumerating the disadvantages of remaining any longer here, observed, that all farther researches for finding their unfortunate associate could only be detrimental to the expedition, without affording the smallest hope of finding him. Deschamps gave his opinion, without hesitation, in favour of their departure, declaring that he coincided with the captain, and that they had nothing more to do than to lament the loss of their friend.

These probabilities had not the same effect upon the mind of Labillardiere, he endeavoured to convince the others of their error, in being too rash, and quoted, among other particulars, an example taken from the voyages of one of the most celebrated of navigators. He reminded them that Captain Cook had two sailors who lost their way, in December, 1777, on Christmas Island, the one for a whole day, and the other for forty-eight hours; that Cook had caused the latter to be sedulously sought after by several detachments; that Christmas Island is a small low island, hardly covered with shrubs; while New Holland, where *Riche* had lost himself, was an immense country: he therefore requested that there might be employed, in search of their unfortunate friend, at least as much time as Captain Cook had spent in search of some of his sailors.

This reasoning instantly produced the intended effect: a boat was dispatched from each ship from the main land, and Labillardiere had the satisfaction of being nominated as one of the persons who were to exert every effort and attention to bring back their lost companion. The Admiral directed the guns to be fired every half hour; that, if Riche were still living, he might with greater certainty direct his steps towards the anchorage. The wind favoured them, and they presently reached the shore.

first appeared distortured, brightened up by degrees.

When he was recovered from the state of stupor, into which he had been thrown by so long a privation of food, he related to his associates, that at no considerable distance from the fire which had been found still alight, he found a small stream of water, where he had quenched his thirst: that, in searching among the plants, analogous to those whose fruits may serve for the sustenance of man, he found a shrub of the family of the *loti*, which furnished him with some little fruits, but in too small a quantity to satisfy his wants. On the first day that he bewildered himself he met the spring, near which his property had been found: he passed the night there; and the whole of the next day was occupied in searching for the place where their ships lay at anchor, without being able to discover it. During this laborious walk, he found not a drop of water; but chance conducted him again to this same spring, where he also passed the second night.

Having seen some savages at a distance, he endeavoured to speak to them, to enquire into their manner of living, and to procure some food, but they all thought proper to desert him with great celerity. In this climate men have not much occasion for cloathing: these were all entirely naked.

Some kangaroos, of the large species, and some cassowaries, were all the animals that Riche had perceived. Though in a state of dejection, he had till the last day carried about him many interesting productions; but his strength diminished so rapidly, in the course of his last twenty-four hours, that he found it difficult to crawl along the shore to look for the ships: he was then obliged to abandon the whole, even of the most valuable specimens he had.

When they found him a little recovered from his langour, they conducted him on board. All the signals agreed on to announce that they had the good fortune to find him again were exhibited in vain: the people on board were so perfectly convinced of the inutility of their researches, that they did not understand them till the boat approached the ship, and Riche was perceived standing in the midst of the people *.

The darkness of the night on the 23d, occasioned them to lose sight of the Esperance about eleven at night; and she did not, till three hours after, answer their signals by a gun, which they heard from a great distance. They were apprized of the vicinity of some natives, by fires, the smoke of which they perceived pretty far from the shore, from several points very distant from each other.

The sea was very high, and the wind blew with violence from the south-west to the west-south-west; after having gradually increased, it raged impetuously almost the whole of the night, and raised the waves to an astonishing height: the adventurers had not before been so violently tossed about by any storm. The south-west winds in these seas are generally boisterous, and add considerably to the dangers to which a navigator is exposed in ranging along this low coast. At day-break on the 25th they stood in for the land. The wind had become fixed at west-south-west, and had brought back fine weather.

On the 28th they were only two kilometers from the coast; at noon the nearest land was two thirds of a kilometer to the north-north-west of them. The sea was covered with a species of sea-weed called *fucus natans*. On the 31st, towards the middle of the day, they perceived a fog rising, which represented to them on every side a table land. The illusion was so striking, that the persons who came up from below, supposed they had just entered a vast basin. They were, however, two myriameters from the coast, which the fog did not permit them to distinguish. In the evening, the sky darkened towards the land, and lightning flashed from the thickest clouds; the fog which had encompassed the horizon, then dispersed, and the wind shifted to the westward, blowing very fresh.

In the evening of the 3d of January, 1792, Captain Huon informed Admiral D'Entrecasteaux of the injury which the Esperance's rudder had sustained. He also told him that the ship's

company

* During the time that they continued at this anchorage, they could not haul the seine: but on board the ships they caught a few fishes with hook and line, among which were the *labrus cyprinoides*, and several new species of the *perca* genus. In the evening all the boats were hoisted in, and our adventurers waited till next day to weigh anchor, if the wind should permit. By six in the morning of the 18th, they were under sail, and after passing a little island to the northward, stood out to the open sea.

company had been reduced to a pint and a half of water *per* day each man; that he had been obliged to discontinue the distribution of anti-scorbutic drinks, &c. and that thirty casks of water formed the whole remaining on board of the Esperance.

About noon, on the 4th, they made sail with the wind at south-east, and stood on towards Cape Diemen, thus taking their leave of a very barren coast, upwards of one hundred and sixty myriameters of which they had ranged along. Before they touched on this coast, they had no idea of meeting so frequently with tempestuous winds, especially at this season, which should be considered as the summer in these seas, the sun having now been upwards of two months in the southern hemisphere*.

At four in the morning of the 19th, they saw the land, extending from north-east by north to east by south, the nearest land bearing east north-east, at the distance of three myriameters. They saw no opening or bend to make them presume that they should there meet with a good anchorage. They discovered, above all the other mountains, that which they had seen covered with snow the preceding year, at the period of their anchoring in Port D'Entrecasteaux; but as they were now in the season of the greatest heats, they no longer perceived any snow, but in the large excavations, where it had been sheltered from the rays of the sun, during a considerable part of the day. This mountain is remarkable for a small peak in the shape of a cone, which terminates its summit.

Early in the morning of the 22d, they were at the entrance of Storm Bay. The wind was at south-south-east, and prevented them from entering D'Entrecasteaux's Strait, where they intended to anchor: and they were obliged to enter a bay, which they had named *La Baie de Roches*, (Rocky Bay) from its having rocks almost even with the water's edge. This is the first cove on the larboard hand on entering Storm Bay, and its direction is from north-east to south-west. The Esperance anchored there at a very early hour.

Having run a third of the way up into this bay they got bottom at two fathoms and a half. Our navigators had been misled by the report of Cretin's soundings of this cove the preceding year, and ran aground. This happened between nine and ten o'clock: the wind came down in heavy squalls from the tops of the mountains, and drove them with violence towards the coast, working them deeper and deeper in the sand. The Esperance immediately sent her launch and barge to their assistance, which, even with the exertions of their own boats, in vain endeavoured to tow the ship's head round to starboard. They were then convinced of the necessity of carrying out a stream anchor to the west-north-west, in order to steady their ship by a good hawser, to prevent her from being driven nearer the coast. To lighten her, they started in the hold, and caused to be dispersed all the salt water with which most of the empty casks had been filled. Having thus rendered the ship more buoyant than she was, they hove at the capstern on a bower anchor, which had been dropped quite close to the former; but it was not till near one o'clock that they were able to get off this sand-bank. At length their reiterated efforts were fortunately crowned with success, and the ship was brought afloat.

* At four they lost sight of the land from the mast-head, and had thirty fathoms water. About ten in the morning of the 8th, they saw a great number of cetaceous fishes of a new species, which seemed to be of the *delphidas* genus. They may be readily distinguished by a large black spot on the back, behind the dorsal fin; the upper part of the body is of a blackish brown, and the belly white: the largest exceeded three meters in length. They were preceded by a shoal of dolphins, and were, like them, swimming in a body.

SECTION IX.

Continuance in Rocky Bay—Excursions into the Interior—Difficulty of penetrating into the Forests. Pit-Coal towards the North-West of the South Cape—Interview with the Savages—Their Conduct—Visited by One in the Night to observe them while they were sleeping—Several Savages accompany them across the Woods—Other Interviews with the Inhabitants—Polygamy established among them—Savages arrive on board—Departure from Rocky Bay—Pass through D'Entrecasteaux's Strait—The Ships run aground—Excursions into the neighbouring Country—Interview with the Natives—Deposit their Arms in the Woods—Anchor in Adventure Bay.

AT five in the morning of the 23d of January, our adventurers landed near the entrance of their anchorage. The Esperance had already found, in a small cove to the north-west, a watering-place, abounding with good water, which was procured without difficulty. The rivulet that furnished it discharged itself into the sea, from the height of upwards of a meter. Advancing towards the head of the bay, they found a house, methodically built by the savages: the skill with which they had disposed the bark of the trees that covered it, was admirable; it was impervious to the heaviest rain.

They had been informed, that some persons belonging to the Esperance, had, the preceding evening, seen three natives seated round a small fire close to this house; but, being terrified by the report of a gun fired at some birds, they instantly fled. The flood tide had just brought up the sea into the interior of the country. A great number of wild ducks were seen, but they would not suffer themselves to be approached but at a very considerable distance.

On the 26th at day-break, a party set off with an intention to take an excursion for two days: they landed on the south-west, and nearly in that direction followed a path made by the natives, where they remarked several recent impressions of naked feet, among which were some of very young children. It was instantly conjectured, that, terrified at the continuance of the Europeans in Rocky Bay, a few families had gone in search of another retreat, where they might suppose themselves in greater safety.

The adventurers observed a shed, erected as a shelter against the strong breezes from the south-west. Near it they saw a fire, which appeared to have been just kindled. The south-west wind blew in the afternoon in impetuous squalls, and brought on some rain at the moment they arrived at the sea-side, quite close to the south cape. They proceeded, for a little time, towards the north, across some sand-hills, before they went to the shore; but they were at length impeded by a perpendicular mountain, which projected into the sea: they attempted to go round it, but found it impossible to penetrate through the thickets by which it was encompassed.

As it grew late, they measured back their steps, intending to seek, near the river which they had already crossed, a convenient place for passing the night. A tufted bush was the best shelter they could perceive, which they improved by an additional covering of boughs, thinking to be perfectly secure from the inclemency of the weather; but the south-west wind blew so violently during the night that it commanded admittance for the rain. To heap up the measure of their misfortunes. The cold was extremely sharp, and obliged them to approach the fire, though they were more molested by the rain, than they would have been in their temporary cabin*.

M. Labillardiere had already observed some burrows dug in those sand-hills which afforded sufficient solidity; he now saw a great number of them; but he knew not by what animal they had been formed, when a kangaroo got up on their approach, and earthed itself in one of them. In vain did they discharge their musquets several times into the holes, hoping the smoke would induce it to come out: it still remained in its retreat. Shortly after, several tracks of kangaroos, made across a little wood, roused the ardour of two sportsmen who were of the party: they soon discovered, in the middle of a meadow,

* As soon as day appeared, they quitted their inhospitable quarters, and traversed the surrounding sand-hills. The swell had detached, from the bottom of the sea, the sponge called *spongia cancellata*, which they saw thrown up in great quantities upon the beach.

watered

watered by a delightful rivulet, several of these quadrupeds: but not one of them, however, would suffer itself to be approached. At length the party arrived on board, exceedingly fatigued, which was the more intolerable as they had not a moment's sleep for the last forty hours.

A plan having been formed, by a party, to set out on the 1st of February, in order to visit the highest of the mountains of this part of New Holland; each individual carried provisions for himself for five days; supposing that portion of time would be sufficient for the completion of their object. They set out early in the morning of that day, with what they considered an ample supply of biscuit, cheese, salt pork, and brandy.

After a very laborious walk, they reached the summit of a mountain, whence they perceived, to the southward, the middle of the roadstead of the south cape; and, to the north-west, the great mountain to which they were directing their steps. Night obliging them to stop, they kindled a large fire, near which they enjoyed pleasent repose after the fatigues of the day. They slept in the open air, having no other shelter than very high trees, the branches of which were chiefly situated near their tops; and this part of the forest was totally destitute of shrubs. They sought for trunks excavated by fire, but those could only be met with in the places frequented by the natives: they had seen many of them by the sea-side, and had remarked several paths made by them; but here nothing indicated to them that they had come into the middle of these thick forests.

The air was extremely calm: our naturalist awoke about midnight; and seeing himself insulated amidst these silent forests, of the majesty of which the light of the stars afforded him a glimpse, he conceived the most exalted ideas of the inexpressible grandeur of the scene.

On the 2d, at day-break, they proceeded on their jaunt: the difficulties were greatly increased; often did the trunks of trees, thrown down one upon the other, form an almost impenetrable barrier, and subject them to the necessity of climbing on the most lofty, and of crawling from tree to tree, at the risk of falling from a considerable height: several of them being covered with a fungous bark, soaked by the constant humidity which prevails in these thick forests. The great chain of mountains appeared to extend to a vast distance. Insurmountable difficulties continually presented themselves, and as these forests did not afford them the smallest means of subsistence, the party resolved unanimously to renounce their project.

After having got out of the forests, they were able to continue their march along the sea-side, where they for some time found an easy road; but they were soon obliged to clamber over some steep rocks, at the foot of which they saw the sea break in a very frightful manner. This road, though difficult, was certainly frequented by the natives; a dart having been found belonging to one of them*.

On the 7th M. Labillardiere, the gardener, and two men belonging to the ship, set out early in the morning, to spend two successive days in visiting the environs of Port D'Entrecasteaux. They debarked on its entrance on the west shore, at the time of low water; and, by a fortunate chance, they found themselves on a bank of oysters, of which they engrossed a considerable stock.

Though snakes are not very common at Cape Diemen, they saw two lying asleep in the sun, under large stumps of trees; but on their approach, they fled into the hollowed trunks, which served them as a retreat. They were of the species of the *coluber*, and by no means dangerous. The river was obstructed at almost every step by large trees; they were a considerable time before they could find one which rendered it commodious for crossing, without too much difficulty, to the other bank. They then proceeded to the north-east, traversed a large plain, and reached the head of the great lake, the banks of which they followed as far as the sea. After travelling over a great extent of ground, they returned to its extremity, in order to pass the night near a rivulet that they had already crossed. The weather being fine, they slept in the open air, sheltered only by some large trunks of trees lying on the ground: they soon, however, found themselves very cold,

* Having a full view of the side of the mountains, they saw a horizontal stratum of pitcoal. Several new species of *lobelia*, grew in the clefts of the rocks. They walked along, for some time, in the midst of the shrubs, most of which are of the family of the *erica*, and of that of the *lotti*.

and were stimulated to kindle a comfortable fire.

At day-light on the 8th, while the two men who accompanied the party were asleep, the gardener and our naturalist advanced alone, towards the part of the lake opposite to that which they had visited the day before. After having proceeded about three kilometers, they thought the heard the sound of human voices. Advancing a few paces, they were convinced of having their ears assailed by an assemblage of such voices. Soon after they perceived, through the umbrageous trees, a great number of savages, many of whom were employed in fishing on the banks of the lake. As the party was unacquainted with their pursuits, and totally unarmed, they did not hesitate to rejoin their two companions, who were severally provided with a musquet. They instantly crept into the woods to conceal themselves from the sight of such visitors, that they might not be pursued by them.

After having mentioned to their two shipmates the cause of their return, our naturalist expressed a desire of communicating with these inhabitants; but it was first necessary to dispose of their means of defence in such a manner, as to be instantly enabled to resume them, should any hostile measures be attempted. They hastily prepared a few cartridges, and set out towards the place where they had perceived them. They had not proceeded many steps before they met them. The men and boys were ranged in front, nearly in a semi-circle; the women, girls, and children, kept behind, at the distance of a few paces. As these people seemed to assume no menacing position, the party approached the oldest of the men without hesitation. He willingly accepted a piece of biscuit which our naturalist presented to him, and of which he had seen him eat. A friendly shaking of hands succeeded, accompanied by a placid smile from each*.

Labillardiere had given them several things, without requiring any thing in return. He now wished to obtain from them the skin of a kangaroo; only a young female among the savages then present, was possessed of such an article. He therefore applied to her to favour him with it, and offered in exchange for it a pair of pantaloons. At this proposal the girl ran away, and hid herself in the woods. The other natives were displeased with her conduct, and intreated her to comply with so reasonable a request. At length she yielded to their solicitations, and approached to deliver him the skin, for which she received a pair of pantaloons. According to the fashion of these ladies, this sort of covering was much less useful to her than the kangaroo's skin, which served to cover her shoulders. The utility of the pantaloons was explained to her, but in order to make her perfectly comprehend it, a proposal was made for the Europeans to put them on. To this she readily agreed, and placed both her hands on their shoulders, while she raised her legs one after the other, that she might be properly cased in this new garment. To prevent any misunderstanding in this business, they preserved, on this occasion, as much gravity as they could.

These savages were forty-two in number, composed of seven men, and eight women, and twenty-seven children; among whom they remarked several girls arrived at the age of puberty, and still less clothed than many of the mothers. All the company were invited to come and rest themselves by the fire. The Europeans wished to shew these savages the effect of their musquets, after having given them the most positive assurances that no danger was to be apprehended from them. They appeared, however,

* The Europeans joined in company with the inhabitants, and a degree of intimacy arose among them: a number of kind offices were reciprocally exercised and received. The women were desirous of coming nearer their visitors; which was at first slightly opposed by the men, but they afterwards obtained permission to approach. It seemed astonishing, that, in so high a latitude, where, at this early season of the year, when the cold was pretty severe during the night, these people did not feel the necessity of clothing themselves: even the women were, in general, entirely naked, like the men; though some few of them had their shoulders and part of their back covered with a kangaroo's skin, the hair of which was next their body.

A pole-axe, which had been used in cutting a few boughs, excited the admiration of these natives. As they saw that their visitors were disposed to give them any thing they possessed, they were not afraid of asking them for it; and when their request had been complied with, they were transported with joy. They were fully sensible of the value of their knives, and received with pleasure a few tin pots. One of the party exhibited a watch, which instantly created a longing for it; an earnest petition was preferred by one of these natives to get possession of it, but when he found it could not be obtained, he readily declined any further application.

however, somewhat terrified at the noise of the explosion *.

It is to be supposed that, at Cape Diemen, there are few serpents to be met with whose bite is dangerous; or, if there are any, the inhabitants know how to distinguish them from the others: they pointed out one, which was gliding among the grass pretty near them, but it did not seem to create the least degree of fear or apprehension. When the boat arrived for our Europeans, they invited some of the natives to embark with them. After some hesitation, three of them agreed to come into the boat; but it appeared afterwards that they had no intention of leaving their party, for they hastily stepped out as soon as the Europeans were prepared to quit the beach.

The next day they returned, with a large party, towards these savages. For some time they kept along the coast, beyond Port D'Entrecasteaux, when, perceiving a fire in the vicinity of the sea, they were induced to land. Presently some natives approached them, expressing by loud shouts, the pleasure they enjoyed at seeing them again. One of the Europeans produced his violin, and thought by noisy tunes to create a degree of enthusiasm among them; but his vanity was completely mortified at their indifference. Savages are never much affected by the sounds of stringed instruments †.

Our party knew not to what cause to attribute their repugnance to their aliments, for they refused to taste almost every thing that was offered them: they did not even permit their children to eat the sugar which was given them.

When the party set off to go to Port D'Entrecasteaux, more than half of these peaceable inhabitants rose up, in order to accompany them: four of the young girls were also of the party; they received with indifference the clothes that had been given them; and, unwilling to load themselves with an unnecessary burden, they instantly deposited them in the coppices bordering on the path, intending perhaps to pick them up again on their return. Apparently they set very little value on presents of this sort, for none of them were seen to wear any of those articles which the Europeans had given them.

Three of these girls were already arrived at the age of puberty, and were all of a sprightly disposition. Our adventurers certainly lost a great deal by not understanding the language of these natives; one of the young girls said a prodigious number of things to them, for she spoke a long time, and with great volubility. She doubtless perceived that they did not comprehend her; but no matter—she would still talk. The others endeavoured frequently to delight them with their airs, the modulation of which was pleasing, from their analogy to those of the Arabs of Asia Minor. Two of them sang the same air together; but the one constantly a third above the other, forming this harmony with great propriety ‡.

The

* These savages have woolly hair, and suffer their beard to grow: their skin is not a very deep black; but the nearer it approaches to that tint it is thought the handsomer, or they would not cover the upper parts of the body with charcoal dust, to give them a more sable appearance. On their skin, particularly about the breast and shoulders, are seen tubercles and spots, placed at different distances from each other.

One of the sailors, who accompanied the party, thought he could not regale these people better than by offering them brandy; but, accustomed to drink water only, they were so exceedingly disgusted at the taste of it, that they soon spit it out again. The attentions which these savages lavished on the Europeans, astonished them much. If their path was encumbered with heaps of dry branches, some of them walked before and placed them on the sides: they even broke off those which, being still attached to the fallen trees, obstructed the road they were pursuing.

† On their advancing up the heights that skirt the sea, they saw a number of the natives who had received them so favourably the day before. Joy was depicted in their countenances when they saw them approach. They were assembled, to the number of nineteen, seated round three small fires, feeding on muscles as fast as they were dressed upon the embers. They also saw, broiling on the same fires, the species of sea-weed called *fucus palmatus*; and when it had acquired a certain degree of softness, they tore it in pieces and ate it.

‡ During this long excursion, some of them took our adventurers by the arm, from time to time, intending to assist them in their journey. In a short time they arrived at the entrance of Port D'Entrecasteaux. Two of the young girls, being considerably behind the other natives, were following, without suspicion, the different windings of the beach with three of the sailors; when the latter, availing themselves of a retired place, began to take unwarrantable freedoms with the damsels. Alarmed at this insult, the young creatures immediately fled to the rocks which extended farthest into the sea; intending to jump into the water, and swim away, if they had been pursued; but they quickly retired to the spot where our adventurers were assembled with the other savages. Their conduct was not influenced

The following day they landed near Port D'Entrecasteaux, with a number of persons from the two ships, expecting to see the savages again: it was not long before some of them advanced to meet them; manifesting, at the same time, the most unequivocal marks of confidence. They first attentively examined the inside of their boats; and then, taking them by the arm, entreated them to follow them along the beach. Hardly had they proceeded two kilometers, when the Europeans found themselves in the midst of forty-eight natives; including men, women, and children. Seven fires were burning, and round each a little family was assembled.

Our adventurers had already been convinced that savages have little taste for the sounds of the violin, but they flattered themselves that they would not be found insensible to lively tunes: the musician exerted himself, and expected to obtain their plaudits; but the bow fell from his hand when he beheld the numerous assembly put their fingers in their ears, that they might no longer be tortured with his execrable noise.

These people entertain swarms of vermin: our Europeans admired the patience of a woman, who was sedulously employed in picking them off from one of her children; they also saw, with great aversion, that, like most of the blacks, she cracked these disgusting insects with her teeth, and swallowed them with avidity. It is worthy of remark, that monkies have the same habits. It is supposed that this fashion originated among the savages, and the monkies are only the imitators.

This numerous assembly was much astonished on observing the effects of gun powder, when they threw it on the burning coals. Unwilling to believe that the Europeans had no women among them, they naturally supposed that the youngest were women. In short they were not convinced, till, having obtained permission, they ascertained the fact with their own eyes.

The women are very active in procuring food for the subsistence of the family. They each took a basket, and were followed by their daughters, who did the same. They went to the rocks projecting into the sea, and thence ventured to the bottom of the water, in search of lobsters and other shell-fish. As they remained long out of sight, our Europeans were uneasy on their account; for they had dived among sea-weeds of great length, and fears were entertained that they were entangled in them. At length they re-appeared, and demonstrated that it was no difficult matter for them to remain under water twice as long as their most expert divers. A moment was sufficient for them to take breath, and then they dived again successsively till their basket was nearly filled.

Observing some very large lobsters in their baskets, the Europeans were afraid that those crustaceous fishes would injure the poor women with their enormous claws; but they soon perceived that they had taken the precaution to kill them, as soon as they had caught them. They quitted the water only to bring their husbands the fruits of their industry; and they frequently repeated the operation of diving till they procured a stock sufficiently abundant for the subsistence of their families: on other occasions they warmed themselves for some time, with their face towards the fire where their fish were broiling; and they had other small fires kindled behind them, that they might be warmed on both sides at once.

It gave our Europeans much uneasines to see these poor creatures condemned to so severe a task: they were also exposed to the ravenous jaws of the sharks, or in continual danger of getting entangled among the sea-weed which grows at the bottom of the water. In vain were the husbands requested to partake of this trouble; they continued about the fire, regaling themselves with the choicest morsels: they condescended,

by coquetry or affectation, for so far from boasting of their honour or chastity, they did not mention a syllable of the transaction. The time for our adventurers to return on board was now arrived, but not one of the natives would accompany them; they quitted them, and retired into the woods.

On the 10th, the geographical engineer of the Recherche set out in a barge, to reconnoitre the extent of the vast bay at the entrance of D'Entrecasteaux's Strait, whither they were speedily to sail. In advancing towards the south-west, our naturalist crossed some glades, where he killed a charming species of parroquet. Very different from the known species of the same genus, it does not perch, but frequently rises from among the grass, and alights there again almost immediately. The form of its feet, armed with long claws a little incurved, sufficiently indicates the habits of this bird; whose plumage is green, spotted with black: black and yellow are the prevailing colours beneath the belly; a few small reddish feathers are distinguishable at the base of the bill, above the upper mandible.

however,

however, to add fresh fuel to the fires as they successively required recruiting*.

Every thing being prepared for the departure of our adventurers, they only waited for a fair wind to put to sea: but a calm having detained them, they had the pleasure to see the savages, who, in their last interview had promised them a visit, had been as good as their word. They were five in number. One of them carried a piece of rotten wood, lighted at one of its extremities, and which burnt slowly. The others, having been invited by the Europeans to dance in a ring with them, endeavoured to imitate their motions. From their necks were suspended a great number of articles, of which the Europeans had made them a present, and which seemed to afford them much delight. Before these people left our adventurers, they gave them to understand, that the next day their families would attend them; but when they made them comprehend that they were to sail that very day, they seemed exceedingly afflicted at the intelligence.

The Europeans landed in this country a she-goat, and a young he-goat, that those quadrupeds might be naturalized in these regions: they will probably thrive well on the mountains of this extremity of New Holland, and be a great resource to navigators. It is, however, to be apprehended that the savages may destroy them before they have had time to multiply.

At day-break on the 14th of February, our navigators got under sail from Rocky Bay, with the wind at south-west, intending to go and anchor in D'Entrecasteaux Strait. Some natives announced their presence in the neighbourhood, by lighting several fires on the east coast. They had crossed the great roadstead at the entrance of the strait, and when they thought themselves in the utmost security, struck on a shoal, of no great extent, formed of a mixture of sand and mud; where they were compelled to wait till half past six for the flood, to bring the ship afloat. The Esperance had worked herself still deeper into the sand; for she could not get off till about eight o'clock.

The boat that had been sent five days before, returned after having observed some very deep bights, which form excellent anchorages, but no river had been met with. The boat was loaded with black swans, which permitting themselves to be closely approached, had been shot for their temerity.

Citizen Beaupré, the geographical engineer, set out in the admiral's barge to visit the great bight to the northward on coming out of D'Entrecasteaux's Strait. The north wind, which blew on the 16th, prevented them from weighing. The next day they weighed anchor, but with a breeze too faint to stem the current, which was against them. About noon a few natives appeared on the east bank, about a kilometer from the ship; being joined by others, they soon amounted to ten, and kindled a fire, round which they seated themselves. Shouts of joy were reciprocally given and received by the savages and the European seamen. The latter landed in great numbers, to have a nearer view of the former. When the Europeans were at a little distance from the shore, the natives advanced towards them without arms, and their smiling countenances announced that the visit afforded them pleasure. Their joy sometimes displayed itself in immoderate bursts of laughter. They expressed much gratitude when presents were made them of pieces of cloth, glass beads, a hatchet, and some trifling articles of hard ware.

These natives seemed to bear the greatest resemblance to those whom our adventurers had seen a few days before; only they remarked some of these who had lost one, and others both of the middle incisors of the upper jaw. They could not learn whence this custom originated; it is so far from being general, that most of the natives have preserved even all their teeth.

They informed our adventurers that they lived on fish, like the other inhabitants of Cape Diemen: and yet it did not appear that they had the smallest trace of any cutaneous disorder; though an opinion has prevailed that people who subsist on that kind of aliment are subject to a species of leprosy. They arrived on board soon after sun-set. The wind having become favourable

* Two of the most robust of the men were seated among their children, and each of them had two wives at their side; they informed our adventurers, as well as they could, that these belonged to them; a proof that polygamy is established among these people. The other women, who had each a husband to herself, was equally fond of communicating that intelligence. While the Europeans were with them, no intimations were given that they had any chiefs: on the contrary, every family seemed to enjoy a state of perfect independence; but the strictest subordination was manifested by children to their parents, as well as by the wives to their husbands.

vourable, they got under way, and went and anchored a myriameter farther on. The next day they weighed anchor at a very early hour, but they were obliged to come to again almost immediately, the wind having become contrary.

They anchored on the 23d of February, at eleven in the forenoon, in Adventure Bay, in eleven fathoms water. The nearest shore lay south-east of them, one kilometer distance. During the time they lay at anchor, they made excursions into the neighbouring country. Penguin Island, which they went to visit, is no more than a hill, scarcely detached from the principal island. A new species of mugwort was gathered on it, remarkable for its large leaves, of a light fawn colour.

The steep hills with which the sandy beach is bordered, exhibit, a little further to the northward, cavities which seemed to be much frequented by the natives, as they judged from the black colour with which they had been tinged by the smoke, and the remnants of lobsters, and other shell fish which are scattered about*.

The fishermen were tolerably successful at this anchorage. The fires which they had kindled on the beach during the night, attracted many fishes to their nets. This practice had been so successful among the people of the Esperance, in D'Entrecasteaux's bay, that they had a stock sufficient for the consumption of several months, some of which were pickled, and others dried.

Our adventurers put on shore, near the northern bank of this bay, a goat with kid, and a young he-goat, hoping the savages would allow these quadrupeds to propagate in their island; but it is to be feared that they will destroy these animals before they have multiplied; for it appears that such a circumstance has really happened with respect to the sow and boar which Captain Cook had left them; not the least trace could be discovered of these animals, or of their posterity.

SECTION XI.

Departure from Adventure Bay—To the North of New Zealand—Interview with the Inhabitants—Discover several Islands—Anchor at Tongataboo—Inhabitants anxious to come on board—The Islanders much addicted to Theft—A Sentinel knocked down and robbed of his Musquet—The Offender delivered up to Admiral D'Entrecasteaux—Queen Tinch comes on board—Toobou gives an Entertainment to the Admiral—The Smith of the Recherche beaten and stripped in open Day—Take on board young Plants of Bread-Fruit Trees.

AT eight in the morning on the 28th of February, they got under sail from Adventure Bay; and were driven along by heavy squalls from the south-west: it was not long before they doubled Cape Pillar, behind which they saw several fires lighted by the savages. They next steered to the northward, and stood on about eight myriameters in sight of the coast, leaving Oyster Bay to the westward. They then shaped their course for the Friendly Islands.

On the 10th of March, at day-break, they saw the islets called Three Kings: they also observed three principal rocks, not far distant from each other, and surrounded by other rocks much smaller. Though it was then foggy, they distinguished to the northward, some others, which made a part of the same group. They were extremely barren, and were at first supposed to be uninhabited; but a thick column of smoke ascending from the easternmost islet, proclaimed to them the presence of savages. They had probably chosen this abode for the convenience of fishing in the midst of the shoals.

About eleven o'clock our adventurers descried the coast of New Zealand, which they approached, standing to the eastward, under favour of a

* Several inscriptions, engraved on trunks of trees, inform the traveller, that Captain Bligh had anchored in this bay in February 1792; that he was to proceed to the Society Islands, in order to take in the bread-fruit tree, and carry it to the English West-India colonies, situated within the tropics.

Bligh had with him two botanists, who, at a small distance from the shore, sowed cresses, acorns, cellery, &c. Towards the south-east was seen, at a small distance from the shore, an apple-tree, the trunk of which was about two meters in height, and one demi-decimeter in girth. It did not appear to have been grafted.

light breeze. The natives had kindled a large fire on the highest of the hills which skirt the sea, and extend as far as Cape North. Between five and six they were at no great distance from this cape, when two canoes put off from the shore, and stood towards them. After some hesitation, they ventured to come alongside, and approached them with confidence. They received, with peculiar satisfaction, the cloths of different colours that were presented to them, and faithfully returned, with the most scrupulous exactness, the value that was agreed on.

They gave the Europeans, in exchange for their articles, any thing they had in their canoes; and were not backward even in parting with their arms. The largest darts received from them did not exceed five meters in length, by four centimeters in thickness; the smallest were not half so long. They each consisted of a single piece of hard wood, which they had completely polished. They disposed of a quantity of fish they had just caught; which are indeed so numerous along the coast, that, in the little time that they had been lying to, they saw several prodigious shoals, which, rising to the surface of the sea, ruffled it at different times for a very extensive space. These savages even parted with their clothes, to procure the European articles of traffic. Some of the young lads had ear-rings, made of a very hard serpent stone; they were oval, and most of them about a decimeter in length *.

At that moment a third canoe arrived from the nearest coast: it was conducted by twelve islanders, who instantly requested some hatchets in exchange for their effects. One of them had obtained such an implement, and another petitioner loudly and peremptorily demanded such another, and would not be pacified till another was given him. It had been dark for upwards of half an hour, when these people paddled away, directing their course towards the coast. As our navigators continued lying to, they sounded at different times; and the depth of water was constantly from thirty-three to forty-six fathoms, over a fine sandy bottom.

To the land-breezes, which blew faintly during the night, some north-westerly winds succeeded, about day-break on the 13th. They were yet very near the coast, and could easily have gone to anchor in Lauriston Bay; had not the lamentable events that had befallen Captain Marion, and afterwards Captain Furneaux, deterred the admiral from putting in there.

On the 17th they got sight of Curtis's Islands: they are two in number, and very small, and are about two myriameters from each other. At six in the evening they discovered new land, at a great distance to the north-north-west, which determined them to pass the night lying to. The next morning they saw it as soon as day appeared, and gave it the name of La Recherche: its form is nearly triangular. They saw on the coast a few small openings, where the earth had fallen down, and where they might have landed. On the 22d, at nine in the evening, they entered the torrid zone, in the longitude of 184° east. The next day they discovered Eooa, one of the Friendly Islands: the beautiful verdure with which it was every where covered, pronounced the fecundity of its soil. At half past six they hove to, in order to wait for the Esperance: they spent the night in standing off and on.

On the 24th, at seven in the morning, they were but three myriameters from Tongataboo, though they could hardly distinguish it, the land being rather low. They ranged very closely along its eastern shore; standing to the north and north-west, that they might not lose sight of the opening that leads to the harbour. When they were about the middle of the channel, several canoes with out-riggers came out to meet them, loaded with fruit, hogs, and poultry: they were each conducted by two or three natives, a few of them contained four. One of them, advancing too precipitately towards them, her outrigger was unshipped, and the three paddlers fell into the water. Without being much embarrassed, however, they swam towards the nearest coast,

* It is well known that these people delight in eating human flesh, and every thing that awakens in them the idea of such food, gives them infinite satisfaction. A sailor belonging to the ship offered one of them a knife; but, in order to explain to him the use of it, he pretended to cut off his finger, which he immediately conveyed to his mouth, and imitated the act of chewing it. Immediately the cannibal, who observed all his motions, seemed in raptures, and laughed aloud for a considerable time, rubbing his hands with a degree of extacy. These people are tall, and extremely muscular. In the afternoon they departed.

dragging after them their skiff, which they soon righted, and launched again *.

Arriving, at length, in the road of Tongataboo †, and having made several tacks in order to reach the anchorage, they let go the anchor two kilometers south-west of Pangaimotoo, in eleven fathoms water. They were immediately surrounded by natives, who came in such numbers on board the ship, that the deck was soon covered with them.

A native, attended by several others, who appeared to hold him in the greatest respect, declared himself one of the chiefs of the island. Requesting to see the commander of the ship, he instantly ordered a hog to be brought, and gave it him as a present. This islander received a hatchet from the hands of the admiral, for which he expressed his most grateful acknowledgments. In less than an hour, a dozen hogs were procured, by means of exchanges, the smallest of which weighed five myriagrams: a middle-sized hatchet was deemed a valuable consideration for a middle-sized hog.

The admiral had commissioned one of the officers to treat with the islanders for what provisions they might be able to furnish them; and, to avoid all competition, he had prohibited every other person from trafficking; but the eagerness of the natives was not to be repressed; every one displayed his commodities to the best advantage. The adventurers were amused to see them hold under their arm their little pigs, which they from time to time squeezed heartily by the ears to inform them, by their squeeking that they wished to sell them.

A chief of the warriors, named *Feenou*, came on board at five in the afternoon: he was of the middle stature, very fat, and about forty-five years of age. Like the other inhabitants, his features were of the European cast. He seated himself on the spot appropriated for the officer of the watch, with four of the natives, and commanded the others to squat; with the exception of a few, whom he permitted to sit down on the arm-chest.

Feenou had complimented the admiral with a present of the largest hog that they had ever seen since they had been at the anchorage; he had also given him two very handsome clubs, made of *casuarina* wood, in which were incrustrated pieces of bone, some of a circular form, some in the shape of star-fish, and others representing birds. This chief seemed extremely well pleased, when the admiral presented him with a hatchet, a piece of red cloth, and a parcel of nails. To attest his gratitude for these favours, he immediately applied each of the articles to the left side of his forehead, after having received them with his left hand.

Towards sun-set, the navigators begged him to send away from the ship all the natives, the crowd of which was become extremely troublesome. They wished that none of them might be permitted to remain on board, that they might avoid the trouble and inconvenience of keeping watch over them during the night; but his authority, perhaps, was limited; for, having driven away a considerable part of them, he departed, and directed his course towards the west coast of Tongataboo. His method of relieving us from these islanders was somewhat singular: he pursued them with his club, which he wielded with such force, that they could only escape the blows of this destructive weapon, by precipitating themselves into the sea ‡.

Feenou, who returned the next morning to pass a

* Most of them had provisions on board; but they remarked one that was not thus equipped, and they supposed he had nothing to offer them; but they were mistaken: she was navigated by two men, whose countenance bespoke much gaiety and fun; while they pointed out to them two women that were paddling with them: their signs and tokens sufficiently indicated that they knew not how to be unkind, when favours were requested of them.

† In the Missionary Voyage, 1797, there is an interesting map of Tongataboo, which thence appears to be a plain country, in an universal and surprising state of cultivation, the whole island consisting of inclosures, with reed fences about six feet high, intersected with innumerable roads. The whole is such a picture of industry as to form a reproach to nations who call themselves civilized. The length of Tongataboo is only about sixteen miles, by about eight at its greatest breadth. On the north side there is a largoon, with several isles, constituting a tolerable harbour. The commodities are, as usual, hogs, bread-fruit, cocoa-nuts, and yams.

Though the people of the Friendly Isles are more free from wars than some of the neighbouring group, yet Tongataboo is often stained with human victims; nor do their ideas of property prevent their stealing from strangers. Some missionaries were there left, who imparted some useful arts to the natives, but the rats were destructive to the European plants. These, with hogs, dogs, and guanos, constituted the only quadrupeds, till cats were left in the voyage of 1797. The morais seem to be here called fatookas; and are constructed in the form of terraces, with high steps, the material being coral stone.

‡ The natives had not come on board merely to satisfy their

a few hours on board, was exceedingly entertained in observing the tricks and gestures of a monkey, which belonged to one of the gunners.

The tents for the observatory were pitched on the south-east coast of Pangaimatoo, and clothes of different colours, with variety of articles of hard ware, were sent to procure fresh provisions in exchange. An enclosure was marked out with a rope, fastened to the extremity of stakes fixed in the ground. With such barriers, it was proposed to restrain, night and day, the inhabitants, upwards of two thousand of whom, chiefly from Tongataboo, were already collected round them *.

They found a great number of inhabitants employed in building houses, in order to settle on the island of Pangaimatoo. They had been attracted by the choice that our Europeans had made of this little island, for purchasing the provisions with which they could supply them. The architecture of these mansions was not of the most magnificent kind, nor the portal very superb. On one of the sides an opening was formed, which sometimes extended the whole length of the house; but a person could not enter it without stooping, and supporting himself on his hands. Under such a roof it was impossible to stand upright, except towards the middle; but these people usually remain squatted in the house †.

For a considerable time our adventurers followed the skirts of the shore, where they saw a number of bread-fruit trees in full vigour; though their roots were often washed with brackish water. Presently the sea, swelled by the flood, obliged them to penetrate into the interior of the island, where they traversed thick woods. They then walked over cultivated grounds, in some of which grew sweet potatoes: further on they found fields of the paper mulberry-tree, cultivated on account of its bark, of which the natives manufacture cloth to wear.

Some natives attended them very closely, pretending to have no other view than to be useful to them: but they, from time to time, caught some of them diving their hands into their pockets, to pilfer their property. Whenever they were detected, however, they were compelled to restore the goods to the owner. But one of them, having taken a knife belonging to a sailor, ran swiftly off with it into the woods, and effected his escape.

Soon after they observed a group of islanders, who were preparing to drink *kava*. Our adventurers were invited to sit down near them, where they remained while the beverage was preparing. They call by the same name the species of pepper-tree, of which it is chiefly composed; and the elongated, fleshy, tender roots, which are frequently upwards of a decimeter in thickness. They first carefully clean them, then chew then into a sort of paste, which they form into balls about a decimeter in circumference. These balls are deposited in a large wooden vessel, and placed at a certain distance, till the bottom is nearly covered with them, when the vessel is filled with water. The liquor is then stirred about, and distributed among all who are present. Our adventurers were invited to partake of this rich liquid, but having seen the method of preparing it, all but the chaplain of the ship begged leave to be excused: that reverend gentleman had the courage to swallow it. Wishing to know the taste of this root, M. Labillardiere preferred chewing a small piece of it himself, which he found tart and stimulant. All those who had

their curiosity, or to dispose of their goods; for it now appeared that they had stolen a great many things from the ship, and only six islanders were remaining. These individuals, having no other means of returning on shore than by swimming, begged to be permitted to pass the night upon deck: one of them, however, preferred swimming on shore, though they were two kilometers from the nearest coast. The facility with which he executed all his motions was astonishing. Our adventurers declared they had never seen an European swim with so much confidence and celerity.

* *Futtafaihe*, one of the sons of the late king Poulaho, repaired to the same spot early in the morning. He undertook to keep the natives in order, and the trade was conducted with tranquillity; but his method of enforcing obedience was severe. If any one of them offered to pass a few decimeters beyond the line which had been drawn, he instantly threw at him any thing that came in his way, regardless of the consequences that might thence result. A young man had nearly lost his life, for not having strictly attended to the orders of *Futtafaihe*, who forcibly threw at him a large billet of wood, which the youth had the good fortune to avoid.

† In the environs of these peaceful abodes, men of the most obliging disposition, took a pleasure in informing strangers, that they might be favourably received by the softer sex in these fortunate islands. But, in making these obliging overtures, it appeared that they had an eye to their own interest, as well as the accommodation of lovers, for they never forgot to demand a recompence for their information.

drank

drank of the *kava*, ate yams, fresh roasted on the embers, perhaps to counteract the ill effects of this intoxicating liquor.

Our Europeans were not far from the tents of the observatory, when they were invited by some of the inhabitants to eat fruits. Citizen Riche had just placed on the ground a pole-axe, when a native slily came behind him, snatched it up, and ran away with it. He was immediately pursued, but he fled too rapidly to be overtaken. A chief, who was on the spot, went in pursuit of the plunder, and the plunderer, but returned without having succeeded *.

On the 26th of March they landed early in the morning, on the nearest coast, where they had the satisfaction of seeing these islanders in possession of the sugar-cane. They sold them several birds; and, among others, a charming species of *lori*. Several of them had lizards of the species known by the denomination of *lacerta amboynensis*, which they recommended as very palatable food.

The natives, in their train, incommoded our adventurers much by their numbers, and officious eagerness to oblige. Many of these people pretended a particular regard for them, whilst, at the same time, they were purloining their effects. They endeavoured, in vain, to get rid of such attendants, but their remonstrances were so very different from those they had been accustomed to from chiefs, that they were not regarded †.

Two sentries watched night and day for the safety of the settlement, which they had formed on the island of Pangaimatoo. These were sufficient for keeping off the inhabitants, who had endeavoured to enter slily to purloin the articles that had been there deposited: but no precaution had been taken against a vigorous and sudden attack. An islander, however, availed himself of a heavy shower of rain on the approach of day, to follow one of the centries; and he struck him so violently on the head with his club, that the latter instantly fell, and the assassin took away his musquet. The other sentry spread the intelligence among those who were sleeping in the tents. The alarm was given: every one flew to arms. The watch-word was heard on board the Esperance, she having the day before moored within hail of the shore: she immediately let off some false fires to apprize the Recherche.

The commander of the expedition went on shore at six o'clock in the morning, with a detachment well armed. He ordered the tents to be struck immediately, and conveyed on board; and with them all the articles which had been deposited within the enclosure for the purpose of traffick. The retreat of our Europeans afflicted several of the chiefs, who lamented the melancholy accident which occasioned it: they reprobated the base act of treachery that had been committed, admitted that the offender deserved death, and protested that he should not long survive his crime. They endeavoured to obtain permission for the traffic to be continued as before.

The detachment of our navigators having advanced a little into the interior of the island, to observe the disposition of the natives, perceived that about a thousand of them slept in the neighbourhood of their establishment. The commanding officer requested them to keep at a greater distance, which they all consented to, except a small group of armed men, who instantly raising their clubs and darts, refused to recede a single step. Perhaps it would have been necessary to repress this audacity, but a chief named Toobou, one of the king's relations, fell on them with impetuosity, and dispersed them with heavy blows of his club.

The admiral, before he entered the boat to return on board, made presents to the several chiefs who were collected round him: he informed them that he expected them not only to give up the assassin, but also the musquet that he had stolen; as well as to restore the sabre which had been purloined the day before from one of the gunners. He then informed them that, on those conditions only, the traffic should be re-

* A prodigious number of canoes surrounded the ship for the disposal of their commodities, though the admiral had given orders for them to be kept off. Another kind of traffic, more particularly prohibited by the orders of the Admiral D'Entrecasteaux, was also connived at by the sentinels; a number of young girls, found little difficulty in escaping their vigilance, and entered every moment by the ports.

† Pressed by hunger, our adventurers retired under the tent, where they deposited the provisions that had been purchased in the course of the day; they were followed thither by two inhabitants whom they supposed were chiefs. Our naturalist put his hat upon the ground, supposing it to be in a safe place; but these two sharpers were attentive to their business; one of them dexterously concealed his hat under their clothes, and went away before it was missed; the other very quickly followed him.

newed. All the inhabitants retired when the launch quitted the beach; but as soon as she had reached the ship, several of them repaired to the place which they had just abandoned, in hopes of discovering property that might have been left behind. They observed one of them who had the dexterity to extract a nail, on which one of the time-keepers had been suspended.

Feenou came on board in the afternoon, and presented to the admiral some bread-fruit, yams, plantains, and a hog; receiving, in return, a hatchet, a hand-saw, and several joiners' chissels; among which the natives gave a decided preference to the hatchet. After paying the greatest attention to the particulars of the assault, which had been perpetrated by one of the inhabitants on the sentry, he promised to have the musquet restored to them the next day; and assured them that he would also bring them the culprit, on whom he would execute justice in their presence.

Our naturalist had formed the project of going to pass the 28th of March on the island of Tongataboo, with some of his ship-mates; but the admiral persuaded him to defer this jaunt, till the chiefs had convinced him of their resolution of checking the depredation of their subjects*.

Toobou received, as a present from the admiral, a red coat, in which he dressed himself immediately; he also received a hatchet from him. *Feenou* was likewise complimented with a coat, and a hatchet of a smaller size. Small hatchets were then distributed among the other chiefs, who were on deck, forming a circle round *Toobou*, honoured with the seat of the officer of the watch, with *Feenou* on his right hand, and *Omatai*, another chief, on his left. *Toobou* seemed to be sixty years of age; he was about the middle size, and much fatter than *Feenou*. His clothes were fashioned like those of the other islanders, but surpassed them in the fineness of their texture.

At length *Feenou* brought the sabre which had been taken from one of the gunners, and delivered it to the admiral; at the same time making him a present of a large fish of the *perca* genus, called the *perca guttata*. Before he quitted them, he informed the conductors of the canoes on the spot, that the next day the traffic would be renewed†.

Not far from the market, whither the natives had resorted with their commodities for sale, a very jolly woman, at least fifty years of age, was observed, surrounded by an extensive circle. Many tokens of respect were shewn her, in the presence of our Europeans; as, by catching hold of her right foot, and placing it on their head, after having made a very low bow; others touched with their right hand the sole of her right foot. Several chiefs, whom they personally knew, also paid her other marks of deference. They were informed that she was queen

* A great number of canoes surrounded the ships; but none of them were permitted to come alongside. Several islanders, perceiving that no traffic was permitted, amused themselves in fishing with nets, which were about eight meters long, by a meter and a half wide, and the mashes of which were a fourth of a decimeter square.

About nine in the morning three chiefs came on board, to inform our Europeans that they were shortly to receive a visit from *Toobou*, supreme chief *(eguilo')* of Tongataboo, Vavao, Annamooka, &c. that he was going to deliver up to them the culprit whom they had demanded, and to restore the musquet which he had stolen. About the hour of eleven, *Toobou* arrived, with several chiefs. The criminal was lying on his belly at the feet of the chief, with his hands tied behind his back. *Toobou* ordered him to be immediately conducted up the side of the ship, and the stolen musquet and bayonet which he had taken from the sentinel delivered up. Two pieces of cloth, fabricated from the paper mulberry-tree, each of which was sufficiently capacious, when extended, to have covered their ship, two hogs, and several large mats, were the presents he made to the commander of the expedition. The warrior, *Feenou*, not disdaining to perform the office of executioner, instantly raised his club, to give the culprit a decisive blow upon the head: it was not without much difficulty that he could be prevailed on to avert the fatal stroke before their faces: at length he gave him up to the admiral's disposal, not doubting but he would receive such punishment as his crime demanded. The malefactor extended his neck, supposing his last moment was arrived. At this critical time, the sentinel arrived, who had been knocked down with his club, and entreated that the life of the criminal might be spared: his punishment was therefore mitigated to a few strokes on the shoulders with a rope's end. But *Feenou*, enraged at the mildness of the judgment proposed, again raised his club to dispatch him. The admiral, however, declared that he should live; but *Feenou*, to the last, insisted that he should not escape the punishment which he had merited.

† An islander exposed a dog to sale, which was the only animal of the kind, that our adventurers had seen at the anchorage: he spoke much in commendation of the poor quadruped, declaring it would furnish a most excellent banquet. It is known by the name of *kouli*, in these islands, and is usually of a fawn colour: it is not unlike a wolf-dog.

Tinch. Her hair, cut about two-thirds of a decimeter in length, was covered with a reddish powder; a part of her forehead was also ornamented in the same manner.

After having expressed a desire to go on board the Recherche, to see the commander of the expedition, she asked our adventurers to accompany her, and immediately embarked to go thither with part of her court. She gave a hog, some yams, and several very handsome mats to admiral D'Entrecasteaux, who made her a present of different pieces of cloth, which she seemed highly to esteem.

Tineh was very tenacious of the honours which they were under the necessity of displaying whenever they met her. *Fecnou*, and the king's brother *Toobou*, were on board, and had promised to dine with them: when she came alongside, they immediately urged the people not to let her come upon the quarter deck; however, she presently made her appearance there, and they saw the two chiefs precipitately retreat into their canoes; for they would otherwise have been obliged to come and take hold of her right foot, and very respectfully incline their heads towards it, as an acknowledgment of their inferiority. This queen informed them, with an air of importance, that even king *Toobou* was compelled to pay her these marks of respect, because it was from her that he held his dignity.

One of the sailors held in his hand a piece of boiled salt pork, which *Fcogo*, one of *Tineh's* ladies in waiting, seemed to wish to taste: he presented it to her, and she received it with pleasure; but not daring to take the liberty of eating it in the presence of the queen, the latter condescended to go and sit down about twelve yards further off, that her attendant might be at a proper distance from her; but before she quitted her place, she received from this young girl the same marks of respect as the other natives had paid her in their presence.

They were very near the small island *Nougounougo*, when some inhabitants pointed out to them, under the name of *Mackaha*, an islot near Pangaimatoo. They proceeded towards this island; and, as the tide was coming in, they were obliged to walk into the water up to their middle. Presently they arrived at the place where the queen regularly held her court, under the shade of a very tufted bread-fruit tree. She was there giving a vocal concert, in which *Futafaihe* sang and beat time; which all the musicians exactly followed. Some performed their part in it by accompanying, with different modulations, the simple melody of the others. During this concert, a number of islanders appeared, each carrying on the shoulder a large stick, at the ends of which were suspended yams and fish: of these they formed the base of a quadrangular pyramid, which they raised to about two meters. This present was intended for Admiral D'Entrecasteaux, to whom *Tineh* was giving an entertainment*.

One of the prettiest girls of the company had the little finger of her left-hand wrapped up in cloth made of paper mulberry-tree bark, which was stained with blood. As they were desirous of seeing the wound, she produced the two first joints of her little finger, which had recently been cut off on purpose, to cure a very serious disorder. The little girl soon afterwards departed; but not till after she had kissed the daughters of *Toobou*, in the manner of the inhabitants of the Friendly Islands; which consists in touching, with the tip of the nose, the nose of the person embraced.

The inhabitants which formed a circle round them, having stolen several articles of their property, they complained of their conduct to *Toobou's* daughters, who instantly quitted the room without uttering syllable; probably intending to go in search of their father, to request he would put a stop to the repetition of these thefts. Our adventurers remarked, that, as they were passing towards the island of Pangaimatoo, they saw a woman enjoying a meal in a very singular manner. Seated near a pillar, and motionless as a statue, she occasionally opened her mouth, to receive the pieces of bread-fruit which another woman put into it. They were informed, that she was not permitted to touch with her hands any kind of food, because she had, within a few days, washed the body of a dead chief.

When they arrived at Pangaimatoo, Queen *Tineh*, seated in a shed covered with cocoa-nut leaves, and erected under the shade of some fine bread-

* Labillardiere then gave a long elaborate account of the Admiral's visit, in consequence of an invitation from King *Toobou*; but, judging of the probable feelings of our readers, from what the editor experienced in passing through such an immense quantity of trivial and impertinent matter, he has thought it his duty to omit the particulars.

A Dance of PANGAIMATOOS, in the Family of the Inhabitants of the Island

bread-fruit trees, was giving an entertainment to Admiral D'Entrecasteaux. She first commanded the young girls of her suite to dance, which they did with infinite grace. They sang at the same time, while *Futtafaihe*, who was in an erect position, directed their motions and animated them with his voice and gestures*.

The Europeans were assembled together, to the number of about thirty, and were quenching their thirst with the delicious juice of the cocoa-nuts which *Tineh* had presented to the admiral, when an islander had the audacity to snatch a knife out of the hands of one of their party. Indignant at so much effrontery, the robber was pursued by several as far as the island of Tongataboo; but, seeing themselves surrounded by a great number of inhabitants, they speedily returned towards the anchoring-place. However, the smith of the Recherche, a German by birth, thought proper to distinguish himself alone in the midst of these islanders. An affray ensued, and a launch manned and armed, arrived from the Esperance, commanded by Lieutenant Trobrient. Knowing little of the subject of the alarm, and supposing that the natives were disposed to fall upon them, the lieutenant ordered the detachment to seize a double canoe, at the very moment she was landing upon the coast. Most of the natives who were within her, instantly jumped overboard; but the chief, to whom she belonged, remaining on deck, Trobrient sent one of his boats' crew to secure him. This man, having aimed a blow at the native with a club, the latter disarmed him, and got possession of it: they then grappled with each other, and Trobrient fired at the islander, whom he killed by a musquet-shot. They were all exceedingly concerned at the unfortunate accident.

Another islander, who beheld this deed, threw himself into the sea, from the top of the canoe's mast. A soldier, who was a German by birth, whom our adventurers had taken on board at Amboyna, perceiving the daughter of the unfortunate chief, who had concealed herself in the bottom of the canoe, and lifted up his sabre with intent to cut her down; but Citizen Avignon, a gunner belonging to the Recherche, seized the arm of the rash assailant, and threw himself between the soldier and the young girl, whose mother was not long in reaching the beach, weeping bitterly for the loss of her husband. The girl was much afflicted for the loss of her father, and struck herself with violence on the cheek and the breast, with her fist.

The Europeans retained, as hostages, the son of the king, and *Titifa*, chief of the Island of Pangaimatoo: but they observed, with much concern, the dejection into which this detention threw the king's son. The two chiefs passed the time in the great cabin of the Recherche. During the night they observed a great number of fires, on the north coast of Tongataboo than they had ever seen before. At day-break in the morning, they were waked by the piercing shrieks of two women, who were weeping as they conducted their canoe round the ship. They shrieked alternately, in order that their voices might be particularly distinguished; and *Titifa* instantly recognized them: they were his wife and daughter, who in the greatest agonies of grief were striking their cheeks and breast with their fists. He immediately ran upon deck, and assured them that he had been kindly treated on board, and that he might further appease them, he informed them that he should quickly return on shore. Soon after which he got into the launch with the son of king *Toobou*, and they were both conducted to the island of Pangaimatoo.

The wife and daughter of *Titifa* followed them in their canoe, when, as they were passing close to the Esperance, a musketoon accidentally went off, and a ball passed through the bottom of their skiff; they were then obliged to quit her, as she was sinking. Our adventurers received them into their boat, and they soon forgot the danger they had escaped. When they landed on the coast, the greater part of the natives left it, to retire into the interior of the island; but *Titifa* persuaded them to return, and ordered them to range themselves in a circle, which they implicitly submitted to. The traffic then recommenced immediately, and was conducted with great regularity: the chief continued with them, but

* One of the armourers of the Esperance was much surprised to see, among the dancers, the islander who had stolen his sabre. The fellow, perceiving he had been recognized, retired precipitately. Our adventurers expressed a desire to behold the feats of the wrestlers among the natives; but they were informed that such amusements were never exhibited in the presence of the queen.

Toobou's

Toobou's son deserted them as soon as he had set his foot on shore.

It now appeared that the chief who had been killed the preceding day, by Trobrient, was much esteemed by these islanders; several of them having given manifest proofs of their concern for him, and had seriously lamented his loss. Apprehending the natives might probably think of retaliating, the admiral ordered every person belonging to the expedition to remain within the inclosure where the traffic was carried on. Their ships were now amply supplied with all the provisions that these islanders could furnish. *Titifa*, and some other chiefs, were not entirely free from inquietude, respecting the hostile intentions of some of the islanders towards them; they communicated their fears to them, and begged they would return on board before the close of the day. They had not sufficient authority to restrain the vindictive spirit.

On the approach of night they discovered that their rudder chains had been stolen*.

Vouaceecee, one of the chiefs of Fidgi, had arrived at Tongataboo, a short time before our navigators had cast anchor. He informed them of what they had frequently heard, that, with south-east winds, it took him three days to go in his double canoe to Fidgi, the situation of which he described to be the north-west, about seventy-two myriameters distant from Tongataboo. This is an astonishing run for people, who, having no instruments to take observations, steer solely by the stars, as soon as they have lost sight of the land†.

King *Toobou* having been informed that our Europeans would speedily quit the island, arrived on the 8th to endeavour to procrastinate their departure, at the same time expressing much concern at their determination to sail so speedily‡.

Our navigators had often seen the chiefs openly take possession of articles belonging to the people; and they always remarked, with astonishment, that this kind of oppression did not lessen the unalterable gaiety of their disposition. When they were again assembled, they heard them continually breaking out into violent bursts of laughter.

From the intelligence given to our navigators, by the most respectable inhabitants, concerning the ships which anchored in this archipelago, they were convinced that La Perouse had not put into any of these islands. Besides, they affirmed that no fatal accident had happened to the vessels that had stopped here, except to Bligh's launch.

The inhabitants of the Friendly Islands are, in general, tall, and well proportioned; for which they are doubtless principally indebted to the abundance, and the good quality of their food. The elegant form of these islanders is not injured by hard labour. Their muscular appearance induced our Europeans to suppose they were extremely strong, but they perceived that an indolent inactive life had rendered them incapable of making great efforts.

Both men and women have a custom of cutting off one or two of the joints of the little finger; and sometimes of the third finger, with a superstitious idea of curing themselves of some severe and alarming disorders.

* Many of the natives were incessantly asking for rings and glass beads, with which they decorated themselves as soon as they received them. Their requests were always accompanied with a gracious smile; at the same time gently inclining their heads, and placing one of their hands upon their breast.

On the 7th of April Queen *Tineh* came on board, when *Feenou* was in the admiral's cabin, to whom he had brought as a present, a beautiful crown, formed of the brilliant feathers of the red-shafted tropic bird, and others of a shining tint. When he came out, previous to his departure, he endeavoured to conceal himself from the sight of the queen; but when she perceived him, she obliged him to approach, and perform the foot-ceremony. He did not dare to refuse her these honours, but he performed the unpleasant task with a very ill grace.

† Our Europeans were informed, by the inhabitants of Tongataboo, that all the natives of Fidgi were cannibals; but Vouaceecee endeavoured to exculpate himself from this charge, by asserting that it was only people of the inferior class (the touas) who ate human flesh: it appeared, however, from other respectable information, that it was likewise eaten by the chiefs.

The admiral received, as a present from *Futtafaihe*, a small canoe with an outrigger, newly built. It was three meters long, three decimeters broad, and could only carry two persons.

‡ On the 9th they were visited by several chiefs early in the morning, when they informed the inhabitants, that they were on the point of quitting the island: our adventurers were much surprised at seeing numbers of young girls burst into tears upon the occasion, and uttering the most grievous lamentations. Their grief was doubtless very poignant; but it was not very durable: many minutes had not elapsed when they were seen making merry with their female companions.

The natives of the Friendly Islands have a swarthy skin, from their frequently exposing themselves to the heat of the sun; but the women, who are pretty constantly resident in their habitations, or under the shade of the trees, have a very fair complexion. The latter have also, in general, a very agreeable, and a very animated countenance.

SECTION XII.

Departure from Tongataboo—Make the South Part of the Archipelago Del Espiritu Santo, or New Hebrides—Anchor at New Caledonia—Interviews with the Natives—Description of their Huts—These Natives are Cannibals—Their Impudence—Their Attempts to get Possession of the Europeans' Boats—Excursions into the Interior—Death of Captain Huon—New Species of Spider, eaten by the Savages of New Caledonia.

ON the 10th of April our adventurers got under sail about seven in the morning. Some natives followed in their canoes, testifying their extreme concern at seeing them depart from their island. They soon, however, outstripped the canoes, which were conducted only by means of paddles. They ceased to follow them as soon as they had gained the open sea. The next day at five in the afternoon, they saw Turtle Island to the north west by north. On the 16th, at seven in the morning, the Esperance made the signal for land at the distance of about four myriameters. It was *Erronan*, the most easterly of the islands of the Archipelago *Del Espiritu Santo*, discovered by Quiros in 1606. A little before noon they got sight of Anatom, bearing south-west by south, distant five myriameters *.

They were standing to the westward with a fresh easterly wind, when, about three in the morning of the 18th, the officer of the watch heard the cries of a flight of sea-birds passing very close to the ship. Fearing they were in the vicinity of the rocks, which frequently serve them as a retreat, our navigator resolved to wait for day-light before he continued his course. When the dawn of day appeared, he discovered, at a little distance to leeward, a great extent of reefs, on which the ship must have gone to pieces, had they not casually made this discovery. The night was extremely dark, the wind blew very fresh, and it would have been impossible to perceive the breakers time enough to avoid them. Beyond this shoal they discovered, bearing to the south-west, an island about a myriameter distant from it, and to which was given the name of Citizen Beaupre, the geographical engineer of their expedition.

About one in the afternoon they discovered, to the south-west, the high mountains of New Caledonia; and at half past four they were two kilometers from the reefs which skirt that island. Here the foot of its mountains is washed by the sea. They observed a fine cascade, the waters of which, after often disappearing in deep gullies, rose again, and discharged themselves into the sea; and they admired the picturesque effects of the torrents which they perceived towards the south-west; the foaming waters of which produced an agreeable contrast to the dull verdure of these elevated lands.

At day-break on the 19th, they approached within a kilometer and a half of the reefs, ranging along them to discover the channel by which it was necessary for them to enter, in order to arrive at the anchorage. Their depth of water in the cut formed between the reefs; was from ten to twelve fathoms and a half; and as they were between the reefs and the shore, they had no more than from six and a half to eight fathoms. A double canoe immediately got under sail to come off to them: she was manned by eleven natives, who displayed great knowledge of the art of navigation. After addressing their discourse to our adventurers and waving about

* At five in the afternoon, they made the island of Tanna; columns of smoke were issuing from its volcano, and extending themselves in the air, forming clouds which at first rose to a prodigious height; and which, after having traversed an immense space, gradually sunk lower as they became colder. During the night they enjoyed the brilliant spectacle of these clouds, which were irradiated by the refulgent light of the burning substances, vomited, at intervals, from the bottom of the abysses of the volcano.

some pieces of white cloth, at the distance of about two hundred meters from the ship, they returned towards the coast.

The Esperance being a little to the windward of them, ran aground on a shoal; when the Recherche manœuvred so effectually as to avoid the same danger, and they anchored soon after in order to be enabled to give her assistance. Admiral D'Entrecasteaux immediately sent their launch to her, and by eight in the evening, intelligence was received that she was brought afloat again, without having received any damage *.

The adventurers held up some cocoa-nuts and yams, entreating them to furnish them with a quantity of those articles; but instead of going to procure such food for sale, they wished to purchase theirs; offering, in exchange for them their darts and clubs, acknowledging that they were very hungry; at the same time applying their hands to their bellies, which appeared extremely lank. Perceiving that the Europeans had some poultry on board, they instantly imitated the crowing of the cock, in so exact a manner as to convince them that they had such feathered animals in their island. None of the women, who were a part of the freight of these canoes, could be prevailed on to enter the ship; and when the adventurers wished to oblige them with any article, the men undertook to deliver it to the proper person.

Their canoes are not built in so workman-like a manner as those of the Friendly Islands: one of them received so much damage in her side, by striking violently against the ship, that she filled in a very little time. The savages, who were in her, immediately jumped into another, and suffered themselves to be drifted by the current, which carried them towards the land. Very early in the morning of the 21st, they weighed, in order to warp towards Observatory Island, by means of hawsers fastened to each other; but they broke repeatedly, and obliged them to let go the anchor again.

Our navigators were immediately surrounded by canoes, conducted by the natives, which came on board and bartered for a variety of their articles; but those who were possessed of cocoa-nuts and sugar-canes, would not part with them for any price.

The savages were quite naked: their hair is woolly, and their skin almost of as deep a black as that of the natives of Cape Diemen, whose cast of countenance strongly resembles theirs. Several had their head surrounded by a small net with wide marshes. Some had braids of grass fastened to their hair, together with that of the bat, which extended to the middle of the back.

Most of these islanders were armed with darts and clubs, and carried in their girdle a bag filled with oval stones, which are destined to be thrown in their slings. The inferior lobe of their ears, in which a large hole was bored, hung down to their shoulders; embellished by some with leaves of trees, and by others by a piece of wood, serving only to increase its size. Several had that particular lobe cut into shreds. Behind the ears of one of these savages, our navigators remarked some tubercles in the shape of a sweet-bread, and half the size of the first. He was much flattered at having this ornament examined; the magnitude of which was increased by means of a caustic.

The women had no other garment than a fringe, formed of the filaments of bark, which answered the purpose of a girdle, passing several times round the body. The canoes kept close to the ship, by the assistance of ropes which had been thrown to the conductors. By way of anchor, the savages had a heavy stone fastened to a long rope, but none of them rode by it.

On the 22d our adventurers weighed at six in the morning, and made several tacks to get nearer to Observatory Island, named by the inhabitants *Pudyoua*. When they anchored, at half past ten, they saw the land of New Caledonia, the nearest coast of which was eleven hectometers and a half distant from the ship. The inhabitants had no occasion for their canoes in paying them a visit, most of them leaping into the water, loaded with the articles which they wanted to dispose of.

* The next day, at sun-rise, four canoes advanced towards their ships, but the people in them betrayed some fears as they came nearer; one of the savages, however, who conducted them, yielded to the invitation of the Europeans by coming on board; and his example was followed by many of the others. They were surprised to find that they preferred cloth to nails or hatchets; though they could readily perceive they were not unacquainted with the value of iron, which they designated by the name of *pitiou*; but the hard stones, frequently employed among them, render the use of this metal much less necessary than to many other islanders of the South Sea.

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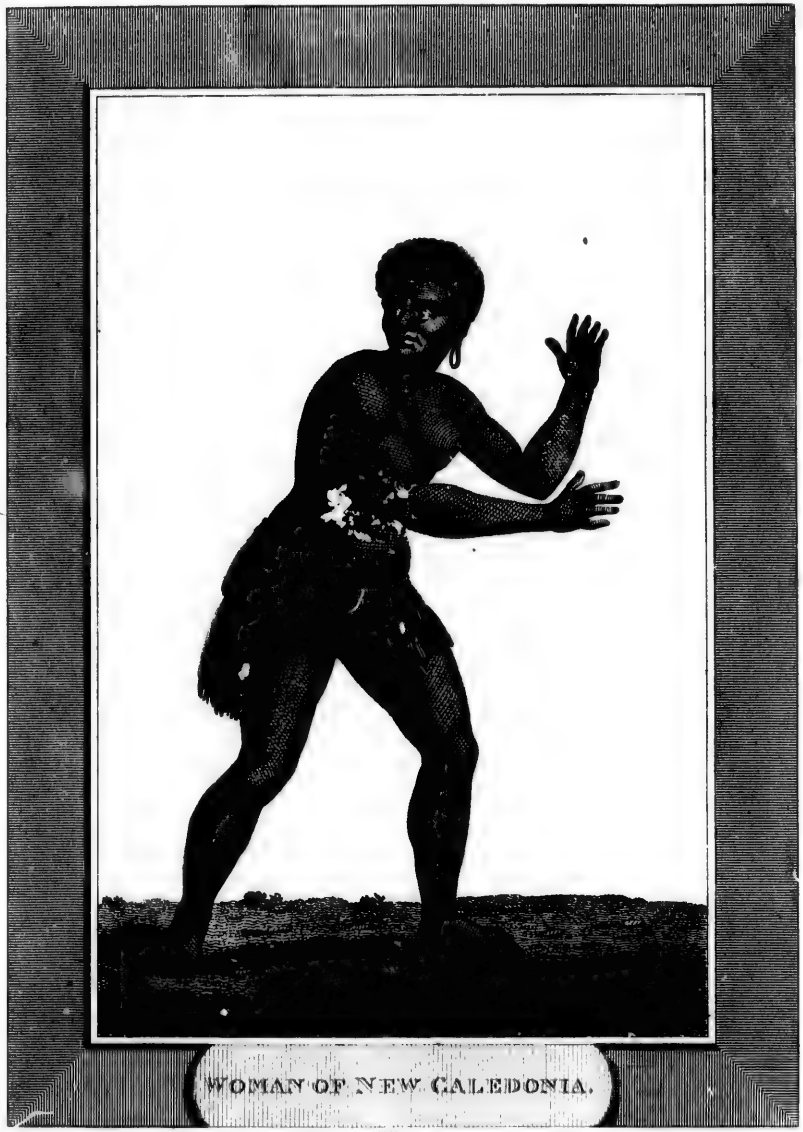

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Going on shore about one in the afternoon, our adventurers were surrounded by a multitude of inhabitants, who issued from the middle of the woods, through which they had penetrated at different times, without going far from the sea-shore. Here they saw a few insulated huts, three or four hundred yards distant from each other, and shaded by a small number of cocoa-nut trees. Some time after they observed four, which formed a little hamlet in a gloomy part of the forest: they were each formed like a bee-hive, and were about three meters in width and breadth *.

On the return of the Europeans to the landing-place, they found upwards of seven hundred natives, who had flocked thither from all quarters. In exchange for their goods, they asked for cloth and iron; and some of them took the earliest opportunities of proving that they were most audacious thieves. The following instance will demonstrate what is here advanced. A fellow proposed to barter with one of our adventurers a bag filled with oval stones, which he carried at his girdle, for a certain equivalent. He untied the bag, and pretended to give it the European with one hand, while with the other he received the value that had been stipulated: but, at that instant, another savage, who was placed behind him, began to scream outrageously to induce him to turn his head, when the knave ran away with his bag, and with the European's property; and endeavoured to conceal himself among the crowd. They did not, however, wish to punish him, though most of the party were armed with musquets †.

On their arrival on board, they were astonished to find none of the natives there: the reason was instantly communicated. It appeared that they had exercised the art of thievery in such a daring and shameless manner, that they had been driven away on account of the multiplicity of their offences. Many of them had gone off in their canoes, and the rest had jumped into the sea, to effect their escape on shore.

Few of those belonging to the expedition, who remained on board, would believe the particulars related of the barbarous propensity of these islanders: but Labillardiere brought with him a bone, now picked clean, which their surgeon recognised to be that of a girl. He presented it to the two natives, whom he had on board, and instantly one of these *anthropophagi* seized it with avidity, and tore with his teeth the ligaments and cartilages which yet remained: he then presented it to his countryman, who seemed highly gratified with gnawing it.

Near the watering-place was found an iron candlestick, eaten with rust, which had probably remained there since 1774, the period when Captain Cook anchored in this roadstead ‡.

The heat was now excessive, and our Europeans had not yet found any water. They followed a gully, where they beheld the traces of a torrent which there falls in the rainy season: the verdure of the shrubs in the vicinity of its banks, induced them to hope that a spring might probably be near it, at which they might extinguish their thirst. Soon after they beheld a very limpid streamlet issue from the bottom of an enormous rock, whence it flowed, and filled a

* Many of these huts are surrounded by a palisade, a meter and a half high, made with the leaf stalk of cocoa-nut trees: there were also a great many which were not surrounded by palisades. Near some of these dwellings, small heaps of earth were raised three or four decimeters, and covered towards the middle with a very open lattice-work, two or three meters high. The savages call them *nbouet*, and intimated that th was a burial-place. The natives inclined their head on one side, supporting it with their hand; they afterwards shut their eyes, to express the repose enjoyed by the remains of those who are here deposited.

† One of the savages, having in his hand a bone newly broiled, and in the act of devouring the remains of the flesh which was still upon it, advanced towards Citizen Piron, and invited him to partake of his meal. The latter, imagining the savage was offering him a piece of some quadruped, accepted the bone, which was then covered only with tendinous parts; and having shewn it to our naturalist, he perceived that it belonged to the *ossa innominata* of a youth of about fifteen years of age. This cannibal thought it not disgraceful to avow that the flesh which had covered these bones, had served as a meal to some islander, and extolled it as delicious food.

This discovery created some uneasiness among the party, respecting the fate of some of their people who were still in the woods; but they all made their appearance in a very short time afterwards; and they had no longer any apprehensions of falling a victim to the barbarity of these savages.

‡ On the 23d they landed, early in the morning, on the nearest part of the coast, where they found some savages who were partaking of a repast. They invited our Europeans to take a relish of some human flesh, which had been recently broiled. They signified, by very expressive signs, that, after having pierced with their darts, the individual whose remains they saw in their hands, they had dispatched him with their clubs. They probably meant to insinuate that they only feasted on their enemies.

great

great cavity, in a neighbouring sand stone. Our adventurers stopped at this place, and the natives came and seated themselves by them. They offered the latter some biscuit, which they readily ate, though it was worm eaten; but they would not taste any cheese.

When our adventurers had proceeded half way up the mountain, the natives desired they would advance no farther: assuring them that the inhabitants on the other side of that chain would eat them. They ascended, however, as far as the summit; for, being well armed, they were under no apprehensions from these cannibals. Those who accompanied them were perhaps at war with the others, as they would not attend them any farther.

On their return, our adventurers stopped at the foot of this mountain, in the midst of some savage families assembled near their huts, and intimated a desire of quenching their thirst with cocoa-nut juice; but as that fruit was far from being plentiful in this part of the island, they did not immediately consent to sell them any. At last one of them ascended a lofty cocoa-nut tree, and pulled some from the top to present to them. Holding the trunk of the tree with his hand, he rapidly run up all its length, and displayed more agility than they had ever before seen exerted, among the other islanders that they had visited. The waters of the sea frequently washed the foot of the cocoa-palm, the fruit of which they had procured; whence the tartness of the beverage was easily accounted for; but, being thirsty, they did not find it disagreeable.

Several thefts and outrages having been committed by different parties of the savages, many of their movements had been noticed from on board the Recherche; the admiral therefore ordered two guns to be fired at them, which dispersed them immediately into the woods; but shortly after, one of their chiefs advanced towards them, alone and unarmed, holding in his hand a piece of white cloth, which the commanding officer received as a pledge of the good understanding that was not afterwards to be interrupted between the savages and them.

On the 29th our adventurers set out early in the morning, to the number of about twenty-eight, all well armed, intending to cross over a very lofty mountain to the south east; and afterwards to descend, if the weather was favourable, into a fine valley which they had perceived, very far behind this mountain. Walking first to the eastward, along the shore, they entered a large wood, where, among the different birds which they killed, they saw a beautiful species of magpie, which they denominated the magpie of New Caledonia; it is black, except the upper part of the belly, the back, and the neck, which are white; it is of a pale black for two thirds of its length, beginning at the base.

When one of the party expressed to the savages a wish to have some water, two of them immediately offered their services to fetch some from a gully, at the distance of about two thousands yards. Thinking these voluntary servants were a long time gone, the party began to suspect that they had carried off the bottles, which had been entrusted to them; but they at length returned, and seemed happy at having had it in their power to procure for them some very clear water to quench their thirst *.

On the 7th of May they were informed of the death of Captain Huon, which occasioned deep regret to all the persons belonging to the expedition. About one in the morning, this skilful seaman had sunk under a hectic fever, which had preyed upon him for several months. He had supported the approach of death with becoming firmness. He was buried, according to his dying request, in the centre of the island Pudyoua, about the middle of the night. He had requested that no monument might be erected to his memory, fearing the inhabitants of New Caledonia might discover the place of his interment.

Soon after sun-rise they landed on the coast to the number of eight, and penetrated into the woods to the west-south-west. Passing near a hut, they saw a native, holding in his hand a mask, which he offered to sell for two joiners' chissels. It was cut out of a piece of cocoa-nut tree. He repeatedly covered his face with it, and looked through the holes which had been perforated in the upper part. It had no aperture at the eyes, but only at the mouth. It is pro-

* A heavy shower obliged our adventurers to seek a shelter in the cavities of the rocks, where they continued for some time. They invited the savages, who attended them, to partake of their repast: but they were exceedingly surprised to find that these cannibals would not eat the salt pork which they offered them.

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bable that these people make use of masks that they may not be recognized by their enemies, when hostilities are meditated *.

A marine, who accompanied them, had lost one of his pistols: the inhabitants of the huts were informed of this circumstance, and that a reward would be given to any person who should bring it to the owner. About half an hour afterwards, a savage was observed running towards them to restore the lost article, which he declared he had found upon the sands. At this intelligence the soldier recollected that he had forgot it in the place where he had dined. A bit of cloth, and a waistcoat, fully recompensed the islander for his honesty and trouble. He took his leave of them, pronouncing the word *alaouai*, after having slightly bowed his head, and went away well satisfied.

When the party had reached the beach, one of them fired off a musquet to call the attention of the people on board the ship, and as a signal for them to send them a boat: the report of this piece drew about eighty of the natives round them: all of whom were prevailed on to sit down as they arrived. One of these savages had a few sweetish oranges, which he readily parted with for a pair of scissors.

On their arrival on board, they heard that several persons belonging to the Esperance, being in a boat, had just been furiously pelted with stones by some savages; on whom they had found it necessary to fire several musquets to compel them to retire into the woods. It must, however, be acknowledged that this skirmish was occasioned by the imprudence of one of their own people, who, wishing to make the New Caledonians keep back, had levelled at him his musquet, which he had through awkwardness fired off.

On the 8th of May, Admiral D'Entrecasteaux appointed Dauribeau to the command of the Esperance.

Our naturalist went ashore in the afternoon, and presently perceived some of the inhabitants insulting their fishermen, and endeavouring to take from them the net, with the fish they had recently caught. They were obliged to fire at them several times, before they could completely disperse them. All this time they stood firmly on the beach, repelling the attack with their slings; and severely wounded the gunner of the Esperance in the arm with a stone: they then fled precipitately, but in a few minutes they returned to their charge. At length, perceiving two of their party brought to the ground by musquet shots; and so wounded as to be incapable of crawling into the woods, without the utmost difficulty, the panic became general: they fled, and not an individual among them had the audacity to attack them again.

The next morning, at day-break, our Europeans landed on the shore the nearest to the ship; six of them, all well armed, penetrated into the woods, and walked to the south-south-west. Our naturalist found, in this excursion, a great many vegetable productions, which he had not before gathered. Being already got to a considerable height in the mountains, some of their people thought proper to fire off their musquets in the air, merely to discharge them before they returned on board. The noise of these small arms induced them immediately to direct their steps towards them, apprehending they might probably be involved in some quarrel with the savages.

Night coming on, they got into the boat, intending to go on board their ship, but the wind blew so strong at east-south-east, and the current was so rapid, that they were carried forcibly to the westward. With much difficulty they reached the Esperance, whence they set off half an hour after, when the weather was become more favourable, to proceed to the Recherche †.

Their

* Two children were observed near a fire, regaling themselves with spiders of a new species, which our adventurers had frequently remarked in the woods, where they spin threads of such an astonishing strength, that they were often much incommoded by them in their excursions. The children first killed them, by shutting them up in a large earthen vessel, which they were heating over a considerable fire: then they broiled them on the embers and ate them: a hundred of them, at least, were swallowed in the presence of the Europeans. The inhabitants of New Caledonia call this species of spider *nouquee*.

† The inhabitants of New Caledonia are, in general, of a middling stature, and have woolly hair; but it is customary, with many of them, to pluck out the hair: some of them, however, permitted their beards to grow. The colour of their skin is as black as that of the savages of Cape Diemen; but they do not, like them, cover themselves with charcoal dust. Several of them were adorned with

Their darts are about five meters long, and not above six centimeters in circumference near the middle. They have an ingenious method of accelerating the velocity of these javelins when they throw them. For this purpose they use a very elastic piece of cord, made of cocoa-nut bass, and the hair of the *vespertilio ternatatus;* they fix one of its extremities to the end of the fore-finger, while the other, which is terminated by a kind of round button, embraces the dart, on which it is disposed, in such a manner that it flies off the weapon as soon as it is thrown.

The well known voracity of these Caledonians, deterred the admiral from giving them the *he* and *she* goat which he had intended for them. It was generally believed that they devoured the hogs and dogs, of which Captain Cook made a present to one of their chiefs, before they suffered them to multiply. They paid very little attention to their fowls. Our adventurers saw only three hens and a cock, while they remained upon the island.

Our Europeans, during their residence here, could obtain no information respecting the fate of the unfortunate navigators, who were the principal objects of their researches. It is not, however, beyond the sphere of probability to imagine, that this dangerous and almost inaccessible shore has been fatal to them. It is certain that La Perouse was to explore its western coast; and it cannot fail of exciting horror in the feeling mind to reflect on the destiny of those hapless voyagers, who may be compelled by shipwreck, to take refuge among the cannibals by whom it is inhabited.

SECTION XIII.

Departure from New Caledonia—Interview with the Inhabitants of Santa Cruz—Their Dishonesty—A Savage fatally wounds a Sailor with an Arrow—See a Part of Solomon's Archipelago—Interview with the Inhabitants—Their Treachery—Explore the North Coast of La Louisiade—Interview with its Inhabitants—Death of Admiral D'Entrecasteaux—The Scurvy makes great Ravages—Death of the Baker of the Recherche—Anchor at Waygiou.

ON the 10th of May, early in the morning, our navigators set sail for New Caledonia; but when they had gained the open sea, they were becalmed near a large chain of reefs, and against which the sea was breaking with violence; but they succeeded in drawing off from them by means of a light breeze from the south-east: they ran along them on the two following days, and on the 13th they discovered, beyond this chain, Moulin's Island; and soon after made Huon's Islands. On the 14th, the ship was on the point of striking on the shoals, with which these islands are surrounded, when day-light presented to them the danger of their situation; in consequence of which they immediately tacked, and stood away from them.

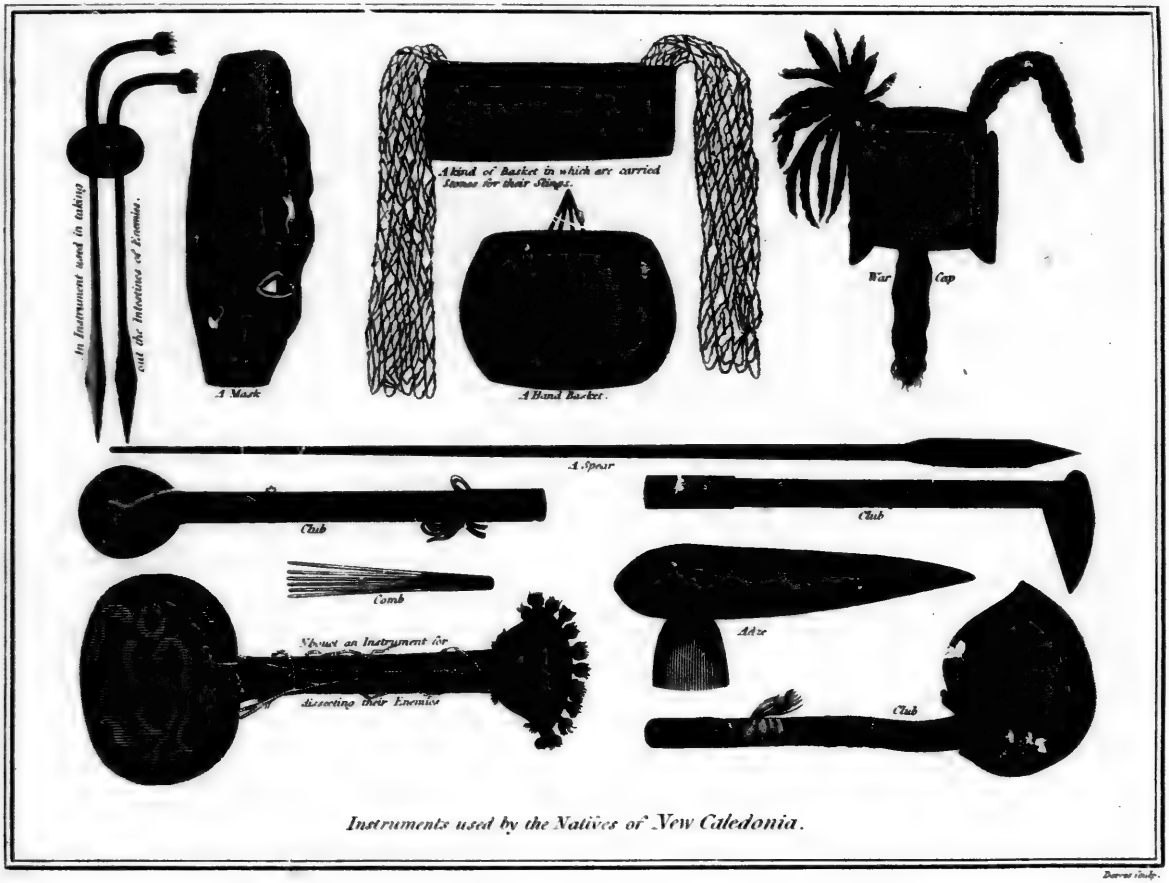
Soon after they directed their course towards the island of Santa Cruz*, which they beheld to the north-west, at about four myriameters distance. On the 21st, about four in the afternoon, they saw coming towards them, two natives in a canoe, with an outrigger. They stopped at a considerable distance, till five other canoes had joined them, and then advanced nearer to the ship. They invited our Europeans by signs, to land upon their island; but none of them would venture to come on board, though repeated invitations were given them; one of them, however, came within the distance of about fifty meters. They had bows and arrows, and their persons were ornamented with necklaces and bracelets, studded with shells.

On the 22d, at dawn of day, our navigators stood in for the land, and they presently perceived

necklaces, made of plaited hair; and their arms are sometimes decorated with bracelets cut out of shells, or of quartz, and other hard stones. These warlike people are particularly attentive to the manufacture of their weapons, which are remarkably well polished. They seemed, however, to be unacquainted with the use of the bow.

* This island was first discovered by Mendana, in his second voyage, in 1596, and received the name of *Egmont Island* from Captain Carteret, who visited it in August. See Hawkesworth's Voyages; and *Navigations aux Terres Australes*, by de Brosses.

MAN OF NEW CALEDONIA.



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ceived twelve canoes steering towards them. They came alongside the ship; and many of them were loaded with different sorts of fruit. It was somewhat surprising, that these islanders appeared to hold iron in no considerable degree of estimation; though one of them had in his possession the end of a joiner's chissel, mounted in a wooden handle; but when they had been shewn some pieces of red cloth, they pronounced, in the accents of admiration, *youlee! youlee!* They were so well pleased, that they even consented to part with some of their weapons; but, afterwards, fearing that they might probably be turned against themselves, they would not sell any of their bows; and even took off the barbs from the arrows, before they would consent to part with any of them*.

At eight in the morning the Admiral sent two boats to sound a bight which they perceived at two kilometers distance to the north-west. On a sudden they were not to be seen, and apprehensions were entertained respecting their safety; when they reappeared about noon, at the opening of the channel that they had just examined: several musquets which had been fired from these boats, had proclaimed to them that they had been attacked by the savages; and, on hearing the reports of these musquets, the surrounding canoes had precipitately fled. This bight, which had been taken for a bay, was found to be one of the extremities of a channel, which separates Egmont Island from that of New Jersey.

A quantity of canoes had followed their boats, whilst considerable groups of savages on the beach, strove to attract them towards the shore, by exhibiting cocoa-nuts, plantains, and other different fruits: at last some of the natives leaped into the water with their articles, to receive the pieces of cloth of various colours, which they were to have in exchange.

The boats, having returned to the entrance of the channel, not far from a small village on the coast of New Jersey, were on the point of quitting these savages; when one of them was observed standing up in the middle of his canoe, and preparing to direct an arrow at a man in the Esperance's boat. Though all the Europeans were on their guard, this islander recommended his hostile demonstrations. One of the seamen levelled his piece at him; but the savage, disregarding his threat, deliberately bent his bow, and shot off an arrow which struck one of their boat's crew in the forehead, though he was at the distance of eighty meters. This was instantly returned, by the discharge of a musquet and musquetoon. The latter piece covered, with a shower of bullets, the canoe from which the arrow had been directed; and instantly the three islanders who were in her, jumped overboard. Soon after they returned to their canoe, and paddled towards the coast; but at length the aggressor was struck by a ball, when they all three jumped overboard a second time, and swam away; abandoning their canoe, with some bows and arrows, of which the boats' crew took possession†.

The nose and ears of most of them are pierced with holes, to which tortoise-shell rings are affixed. Most of them are tatooed, and particularly on the back‡.

The sailor who had been struck with the arrow, suffered but little pain. He refused to have his wound dressed by the Surgeon of the Recherche; choosing rather to wait till he returned on board the Esperance. Indeed it was not then supposed that so slight a wound could possibly be fatal to him.

After running along the coast for about a myriameter and a half, our adventurers arrived opposite to a large bay, where there was probably a good bottom, but it is open to the south-east winds which were then blowing.

* Of their dishonesty, they exhibited many proofs: that they might obtain the European articles of traffic for nothing, they offered a fair and liberal price, but stipulated that they should be delivered before hand. When that part of the condition was complied with, they had the daring effrontery to keep possession of the article, and absolutely refused to pay the value that had been agreed on.

† These islanders delight in chewing betel; they had leaves of it, with cashew-nuts in bags made of matting, or of cocoa-nut bass. These people are generally of a deep olive colour; and their cast of countenance assorts with that of the greater part of the inhabitants of the Moluccas: it was, however, remarked that some of them had a very black skin, thick lips, and a broad flat nose: and who appeared to be of a very different race; but all of them had wide foreheads, and curly hair. They are rather tall, but their thighs and legs are far from being muscular, occasioned, as it is supposed, by a life of indolence, and by passing so much of their time in their canoes.

‡ These savages had a particular fondness for white hair, as it formed a striking contrast to the colour of their skins. The *beaux* of these regions are said to employ lime to produce this effect; a practice which also prevails in the Friendly Islands.

Our

Our navigators had not seen any canoes along this coast till about four in the afternoon of the 27th, when they observed a skiff entitled to that denomination approaching the ship. They were much astonished that the islanders who were in her had dared to venture in so hazardous a conveyance, the greatest breadth of which did not exceed two thirds of a meter. The conductors were under the necessity of seating themselves in the deepest part, to keep the canoe in proper trim. When they were within about two hundred and fifty meters of the ship, they addressed a few words to them in a very audible tone, pointing to their island, to which they invited them to repair: they condescended to come a little nearer, but a very hard swell compelled them to regain the shore. These islanders were as naked as the inhabitants of Egmont island *.

On the 30th, with very little wind, the currents very perceptibly carried our adventurers towards the *Island of Contrarieties*. They were three kilometers from it, when a canoe put off from the coast to come alongside of their ship. She contained four natives, who displayed much gratitude for the presents of cloth and hardware bestowed upon them, and gave them several cocoa-nuts in return †.

On the 12th, at ten in the morning, they made the coast of *La Louisiade* ‡; and on the 18th, in the morning, they saw two canoes, with outriggers, and under sail, each manned by twelve savages: they ran rapidly round the ship, observing their motions with the strictest attention; but continued at a considerable distance. Every thing proclaimed to them a numerous population on the southern coast. Soon after they beheld, coming towards them, several canoes, each containing ten or eleven savages, who kept at about a hundred meters from them; but the bits of cloth, which were thrown overboard for them, induced them to come nearer. They appeared surprised at seeing in the ship a young negro, which they had taken on board at Amboyna. These islanders had woolly hair, and their skin was of an olive colour. None of them wore any cloathing, but they were decorated with bracelets, to which different shells were affixed. Some had a small bone, in a hole bored through the septum of the nose.

Two canoes were observed close to the Esperance, at half after three in the afternoon, at which time the musquet shots were fired from that ship, and the savages rapidly paddled away. It was soon proclaimed that the natives, without the least provocation, had provoked this attack by throwing stones at the crew. Fortunately, however, these treacherous islanders had not hurt any one; and the officers of the Esperance only fired at them to frighten them.

The commander of the Esperance sent Admiral D'Entrecasteaux a bludgeon, and a shield, which he had procured from these savages. The bludgeon was broad, and flat at one of its extremities. The shield was the only defensive weapon, which had been remarked among the savage nations which they had visited. It was

* The Esperance came within hail of the Recherche, about eight in the evening of the 29th, to communicate the particulars of an act of treachery of some of the islanders. She had been surrounded during the preceding night by a great number of canoes, from which only two natives had come on board. These had bestowed the highest commendations on the produce of their island, and promised to procure a large quantity of them for their people, if they would come on shore. These two men, however, went away about the middle of the night; but, among many of the canoes that had remained near the Esperance, one of them was observed to be considerably larger than the others, which, on the approach of day, paddled several times round the ship. At length this canoe stopped for about a moment, and instantly flew from it at least a dozen arrows; by which M. Dessert, one of the ship's company was wounded in the arm: most of the other arrows had struck into the ship's side. After this perfidious act the wretches fled. A musquet discharged a ball after them without doing any execution: but a sky-rocket, aimed with great precision, burst quite close to their canoe, and threw them into great consternation.

† On the 4th of June, our navigators doubled Cape Hunter: and on the 9th, the Captain of the Esperance informed them of the death of Mahot, the unfortunate fellow belonging to her crew, who seventeen days before had been wounded in the forehead with an arrow, by a savage of Egmont Island. Many persons presumed that the arrow from which he had received the wound, had been poisoned: but those of which the Europeans had taken possession, were found not infected with poison; for they pricked with them several fowls, and no bad consequences ensued. It is by no means uncommon in scorching climates, to see the slightest scratch followed by a general spasm, which is generally a symptom of death.

‡ This land, which was discovered by *Bougainville*, in 1768, appears to have been unknown before that period.

It seems probable that the land called *Louisiade* by Bougainville, is either an extension of Papua, or islands adjacent to the south-east. In either case, when it shall have been sufficiently explored, the description will probably fall into this division. *Pinkerton's Mod. Geog.* ii. 483.

about

CALOA, of the Island of WAIGIOU.

Fairholme sculp

about a meter high, five decimeters and a half broad, and a centimeter and a half in thickness. It was of very hard wood, and the outside was slightly convex.

On the 21st, at about seven in the evening, our Europeans lost Admiral D'Entrecasteaux. He sunk under the violence of a dreadful cholic, which he had endured two whole days. For a considerable time he had experienced some slight symptoms of scurvy; but they did not suppose themselves threatened with so severe a loss. On the 11th of August they doubled the Cape of Good Hope of New Guinea, and on the 16th they anchored at Waygiou.

SECTION XIV.

Stay at Waygiou—Scorbutic People relieved—Interview with the Natives—Anchor at Bouro—Pass the Strait of Boutin—Ravages of the Dysentery—Anchor at Sourabaya—Stay at Samarang—Detention at Fort Ankal—Stay in the Isle of France—Return to France.

WHILST our navigators remained at Waygiou, they were frequently visited by the natives, who brought them turtles, many of which weighed from ten to twelve myriagrams; the principal part of which they had taken on the Aiou Islands. The soup which had been extracted from them afforded great relief to their scorbutic patients. The inhabitants, knowing how much they were coveted, demanded about ten times their value for them. The natives also sold them some turtles' eggs boiled; and some turtles' flesh dressed after the manner of the Buccaneers. They also offered them sago, under the form of a sourish paste, which they had caused to ferment.

Most of the islanders have the body entirely naked; the heat of the climate rendering any kind of covering unnecessary. The chiefs, indeed, are dressed in a very wide pair of pantaloons, and a banyan of cloth, which they purchase of the Chinese, who occasionally anchor near this spot. Some were embellished with silver bracelets, which they had also procured from the Chinese. The greater part of the chiefs of these savages had been to the Moluccas, and spoke the Malay language. Some of them wore a hat made of the leaves of the *pandanus*, of a conical shape, in imitation of the Chinese; and others had the head wrapped up in a sort of turban. They have, almost generally, thick, long, and curly black hair. They shewed great dexterity in shooting with a bow, at the distance of upwards of forty yards, to which their arrows always came extremely near. Some of the natives are armed with very long spears, tipped with iron or bone.

These islanders seem to know how to manufacture iron, for they set a great value on the bars of that metal which were given them: they also manifested an inclination for tin; but they gave a very decided preference to their cloths, especially those of a red colour. The island of Waygiou, called by the inhabitants *Owartdo*, is covered with large trees, and seems a very mountainous country. The bamboo huts of the natives are raised on stakes to about three meters above the ground, and covered with leaves of the fanpalm *.

During their continuance in this island, our naturalist was constantly visiting its forests, and gathered a rich collection of new plants. He also killed several very scarce birds; among others the species of promerops, which *Buffon* called the promerops of New Guinea, a large black cockatoo, and a new species of hornbill, to which he has given the name of *Calao of the island of Waygiou*. It has an arched bill, of a dirty white, two decimeters in length; and each mandible is unequally indented; the wings and body are black, and the tail is white, and the neck of a brightish rufus. This beautiful creature is eight decimeters in length, from the end of the bill to the extremity of the feet.

A great many wild cocks were seen in the woods. The female produced by one of the natives was not much larger than a partridge, though the

* It is a very singular fact that, at the moment they landed, such of the seamen as were in the least affected with the scurvy, and even those who had no appearance of it, were considerably swelled in every part of the body; but this symptom, which very much alarmed many of them, entirely disappeared after three or four hours walking.

eggs she laid were twice as large as those of the European hens. The species of wild hen is black, whilst that which Labillardiere killed in the forests of Java was of a grey colour *.

While they continued here, they received a visit from several chiefs. One who enjoyed that rank at Rawak, had supped and slept on board the Esperance the eve of their departure; but when he saw that they were preparing to weigh anchor, he jumped overboard, fearing that they intended to carry him away. This intimidation was accounted for, when our adventurers were afterwards informed that, five months before, the Dutch had carried off his brother, in the midst of an entertainment which they had given him on board their ship. The chief's clothing consisted of a pair of pantaloons, and a very wide banyan, with a sattin waistcoast; rings of gold were, however, pendant at his ears.

On the fourth of September they anchored in the road of Buro, at the distance of two kilometers to the north-north-east of the Dutch settlement. The commandant of this post immediately dispatched to them a corporal, to offer them such refreshments as they might stand in need of. In a few minutes afterwards, some musquet-shots were fired into the middle of a herd of buffaloes, which were grazing on the shore; and the corporal informed them that the president had ordered the two fattest to be killed for the two ships. Being no stranger to the wants of navigators, he sent our adventurers a great quantity of fruit, several bottles of a very pleasant *liqueur*, extracted from the sago-palm, and some young leaves of a species of fern of the *asplenium* genus.

This, and a few successive days were employed in visiting the different districts of the island, which every where presents a diversified and picturesque aspect. The sago-palm is very common here, forming the principal food of the inhabitants; and is also an article of exportation.

The island of Bouro contains several kinds of wood, appropriated to cabinet-work. Two Chinese junks were then aground on the mud, to the north-west of the Dutch fort. The village near which this fort is built, is called *Cayelee* in the Malay language. Such of the natives as are Mahometans, have a Mosque there; the roofs of which diminishing by stories in proportion as they rise, afford an agreeable object to the eye.

Birds, especially parrakeets, are so extremely numerous here, it seems very evident that, from them the island derives its name, which in Malay signifies bird. Stags, goats, and wild boars are so plentiful in the woods, that the natives supply the president with as many of them as he chooses to have, for two musquet cartridges for each animal. The natives entertain an invincible dread of snakes, which they say are very numerous in their island; but our naturalist, during the time of his stay in it, met with none of these reptiles, though he traversed the forests pretty constantly. The rainy season was not yet arrived; but the high mountains collected almost every evening, storms which burst forcibly during the night.

On the 16th of September, our navigators set sail from Bouro, directing their course towards the strait of Bouton, into which they entered on the afternoon of the 22d. The next day they anchored, about a kilometer from the coast. Dauribeau being ill, Russel was entrusted with the conduct of the expedition, and formed the plan of sailing out by the channel which separates Pangesani from Celebes.

They consumed much time in getting through this strait, as they had been under the necessity of remaining at anchor every night; and before they could make sail in the day, they were always obliged to wait till the tides had occasioned currents favourable for them.

The natives came on board, bringing with them different species of the fruits common in the Moluccas. They also procured for our adventurers a great number of fowls, some goats, and a considerable quantity of fish, prepared after the manner of the Buccaneers; and they frequently furnished them with fresh fish †.

In

* The great crowned pigeon (*columba coronata*) is very common in these thick forests, where they also met with some wild orange trees, the fruits of which supplied their scorbutic people with a very wholesome lemonade.

Our Europeans were informed by the natives, that the road in which they had cast anchor, was infested by alligators; but this intelligence did not deter their people from bathing. Having penetrated into some forests of mangroves, they observed their tracks imprinted on the mud. It is during the night that alligators are most to be dreaded.

† The fruits of *bombax ceiba*, and several new species of the same genus, which were widely diffused in the forest,

View in the Island of BOITRO, with a representation of the Ingo Palm Tree described by D'Entrecasteaux.

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On the 8th

In the island of Pangetani, our adventurers often traversed thick forests of the palm, known by the name of *corypha umbraculifera*, where they beheld squirrels of the species called *sciurus palmarum*, which instantly fled at their approach*.

The village of Bouton is situated on an eminence, and surrounded by thick walls, which protect the inhabitants against the incursions of their enemies. The houses are built of bamboo, and covered with palm-leaves, like those of the inhabitants of the Moluccas. The Sultan resides in a fort constructed of stone. It appeared to our adventurers, that this chief lived in an evident state of distrust with the agents of the Dutch East India Company, though he was their ally; for the three Dutch soldiers who were the only inhabitants of the Company's factory, were not permitted to live in the village where he takes up his residence. They were sent away to a wretched solitary habitation.

It was dark when our adventurers got down to the sea-shore in order to return on board. Most of them had been attacked by the dysentery for several days; but they were obliged to wade into the water up to the waist, to reach the boat, which must have greatly aggravated their disorder.

In the course of this day the natives had procured them rice, maize, sugar-canes, yams, ducks, goats, eggs, and fowls. Hard-ware had been offered them in exchange for these refreshments, but they gave a preference to the money which is current in the Moluccas, and particularly the small coin washed with silver, called *koupan pera*, which the Dutch bring from Europe.

On the 11th in the morning, they crossed the strait of Salayer: a great many natives were scattered about the shore, where their canoes were lying; others were making sail towards Celebes.

They brought up several times along the coast of Madura, and in the afternoon of the 19th, they cast anchor in five fathoms water, at the entrance of the channel leading to Sourabaya, one of the principal settlements occupied by the Dutch in the island of Java. They intended to anchor there, and at nine in the morning a boat had been dispatched from the Esperance to the village of Grissey, to procure a pilot to conduct the ships up the channel that leads thither.

Some demur, however, ensued, but instructions were afterwards received from Batavia, that the council of Sourabaya would afford them every assistance in their power, and on the 26th they sent them pilots.

The dysentery had then carried off six of their people, since their departure from Bouro. They soon obtained liberty to reside in the town of Sourabaya; where, on the 31st, our naturalist took up his quarters at the house of Messrs. Bawer and Hogh, who received him with great cordiality. Ten days after, the council of Sourabaya revoked the commission they had given, and they were immediately obliged to return on board, with the exception of the sick.

The sick was increasing on board the ships with alarming rapidity. Almost half the ships' companies were already attacked by the dysentery and malignant fever; and the number of the diseased persons only diminished by the death of some of them: but at length the council restored

forest, afforded plenty of food to numerous troops of pigmy monkies; they killed some of them in order to preserve their skin. They remarked, on the moist ground, numerous tracks of stags, wild boars, and buffaloes. They very frequently met with herds of the last, lying down in many places: but they always took to flight as soon as they found they were perceived, and it was next to impossible to follow them through the mud.

* The natives, convinced of the danger of living near marshes, which render the northern coast of Pangesani extremely unwholesome, have not erected any village there. It was in the midst of these marshes that the adventurers picked up the germ of a very contagious dysentery, which made great ravages on board the ships, the people having before been enfeebled by the long use of unwholesome aliments. A great number of the people were carried off by this malady.

On the 8th, at four in the afternoon, our adventurers repaired to the village of Bouton, to see the Sultan, who resided there: they did not know, that, in order to have access to him, it was necessary to bring him presents. As they had nothing to offer him, he was not to be seen: but his son, and his nephew condescended to receive them, near the fort where he resides. They affected no inconsiderable degree of consequence, frequently observing that the whole island was under the dominion of the Sultan; that he was the ally of the Dutch East India Company; and that its enemies were his. They informed them that the inhabitants of Ceram, having once made an incursion on their coasts, four of them had been seized and delivered up to the king, who instantly caused them to be beheaded. Then, having prevailed on them to advance a few yards, he shewed them the heads of these unfortunate beings, exposed on the walls of the fort, at the end of very long pikes. With an air of peculiar satisfaction, he commented invidiously on this tragic spectacle.

the commission they had revoked a few days before; and they had the satisfaction of seeing themselves again assembled in the town *.

Being somewhat recovered from the dysentery, by which our naturalist had been much enfeebled he frequently made excursions to the environs of the town. On the 11th of December the governor of Sourabaya gave him liberty to visit the mountains of Prau, about six myriameters to the west-south-west of the town. They set off the next day to go to the village of Poron, which is built at the foot of these mountains. Some Javanese carried their baggage, suspending it to long bamboos, the ends of which they rested on their shoulders †.

Resuming their journey they experienced a very heavy fall of rain, which incommoded them exceedingly. They were accompanied by a serjeant of the Dutch troops, who soon convinced them of his authority over the Javanese, who were going to the village which they had just left: he ordered the umbrellas, which they were carrying, to be snatched out of their hands, and none of them presumed to make any resistance. He then presented those conveniences to our adventurers, declaring that he thought it extremely strange that such people should think of preserving themselves thus from the rain, while they saw them exposed to the inclemency of the weather. But he was greatly surprised when he observed that not one of them would make use of the umbrellas, which they intreated him to restore to the persons whose property they were. At length they reached the village of Peron, where they were respectfully received by the chief, who has the title of Deman.

They passed the night in a bamboo habitation, where the greatest cleanliness prevailed. The next day they took up their quarters at the western extremity of this village, under the dependency of Tomogon of Banguil, who arrived in the morning from his residence at a little distance, to order the inhabitants to watch over their personal safety; and to furnish them with such provisions as they might require. This Tomogon was a sensible man: he spoke Dutch fluently, and was no stranger to the news and politics of Europe. Being a Chinese by birth, he was under the necessity of embracing the Mahometan religion, to obtain the title of Tomogon.

On the 14th our adventurers did not travel far, but the following day they crossed a space of a demi-myriameter in a plain much inundated; they afterwards reached the mountains of Prau, The Tomogon of Banguil went thither on horseback, followed by upwards of a hundred horsemen. Our navigators found him in the forest, where he was waiting for them. Having singular notions of politeness, he had caused chairs to be brought for them to sit down at the summit of a mountain, whence they discovered, through the trees, a vast extent of country, which he informed them was in his dependency. Being anxious to afford his visitors a more satisfactory view of it, he ordered the tops of a great many trees to be cut off.

Peacocks are very common in this forest, which they traversed in every direction. The inhabitants were employed in clearing, near the mountains, an excellent spot of ground covered with trees, the smallest of which they cut down with a hatchet: from the largest, they contented themselves with peeling off the bark near the root, convinced that such an operation would terminate the life of the respective tree ‡.

Not far to the westward of the village of Poron,

* During the time that M. Labillardiere spent at Sourabaya, the heat was excessive. He there saw, with astonishment Reaumur's thermometer rise to 27°; but this heat was of short duration; for the change of the monsoon, which happened early in November, occasioned abundant rains, especially in the afternoon, which cooled the atmosphere in such a manner that the thermometer stood at no more than from 22° to 23° in the hottest part of the day.

† After proceeding about four myriameters, they arrived at Souda-kari, where they dined at the house of the chief of the village, who had prepared for them a sumptuous dinner, it consisted of different fish, dressed Buccaneer fashion, and of horse and buffalo flesh, which had been preserved for upwards of six months, after having been cut in very thin stripes, and dried in the sun. These dishes were all very highly seasoned with pepper, pimento, and ginger; and rice supplied the place of bread. A profusion of delicious fruits concluded the entertainment.

‡ In the course of the following days our adventurers visited the mountains of Panangounan, advancing to the territories of the emperor of Solo, into some large forests of teak-wood, under the shade of which the *pancretium amboynense* was growing in abundance. The guides were much terrified with the apprehensions of meeting with tigers declaring that they were numerous in the thickets bordering upon the rivulets; where they concealed themselves that they might be in readiness to seize the quadrupeds when they came to allay their thirst. In these different excursions, Labillardiere killed several wild cocks, whose variegated plumage and brilliant colours excited his admiration.

Poron, stood two colossal statues, which the Javanese call *retcio*, and which are held in great estimation. The natives address their invocations to these figures, in their greatest necessities. They are fabricated from a block of stone, and are about twenty-two decimeters high. They are represented in very ample garments, and the two heads have the same cast of countenance as the Moors. It seems probable that these statues have been erected in honour of some of those conquerors of the Moluccas, though the inhabitants are incapable of giving any information on the subject.

Riche and Labillardiere had formed the project of going to spend some time on the mountains of Passervan. They are very lofty, and remarkable for their fertility. Several species of fruit trees, brought from Europe, thrive extremely well on these heights, the temperature of the air there being very mild. As Riche and Labillardiere lived in the same house, they frequently went together to prosecute their researches: but on the 19th of February, 1794, at four in the morning, the commandant of the fort (Chateauvieux) followed by thirty Dutch soldiers armed, came and informed them, on the part of Dauribeau and the principal officers of the expedition, that they were under arrest. Shortly after, several of their shipmates shared the same fate, without being able to divine what could have given occasion to so arbitrary an act of authority. Soon after they were informed that some news, which had arrived from Europe, had induced Dauribeau to hoist the white flag, and put himself under the protection of the Dutch, who were then at war with France. He had probably, at this time, formed the project of selling the ships belonging to the expedition. And, in order to succeed with more certainty, he thought it necessary to get rid of those persons who were likely to disapprove of such conduct. Accordingly, seven of them, *viz.* Legrand, Laignel, Willaumez, Riche, Ventenal, Piron, and Labillardiere were delivered up to the Dutch as prisoners of war, and they were conducted to Samarang, being compelled to travel about forty myriameters along terrible roads, in the rainy season *.

At length, after having suffered much fatigue, they arrived at Samarang, on the morning of the 11th of March. The commanding officer of the fort immediately conducted them to the house of the Governor Overstraaten. The latter informed them, that the principal surgeon of the hospital, M. Albegg, had prepared a lodging for them, and he desired they would come and occupy it. On their arrival at the surgeon's,, they were astonished at being led into one of the wards of his hospital, where they were shewn seven beds, which had been purposely provided for them; the apartments of which were totally destitute of chairs or tables. In vain they expostulated with him on his strange conduct, protesting that they were not sick, and did not desire to become so in an hospital. His answer was, that the governor's orders were such, that he was not permitted to provide them any other lodgings.

Our sufferers were therefore under the necessity of having recourse to the governor, in order, if possible, to represent the harshness of such proceedings, towards men who had endured a long and fatiguing voyage for the advancement of the arts and sciences; and that they thought themselves entitled to a different reception among a civilized people. After a full investigation of this business, however, these unfortunate people were permitted to quit the hospital, and take up their residence near the center of the town. Some little time after, they were suffered to go a demi-myriameter from Samarang, but were prohibited from directing their steps towards the sea-side.

Our naturalist had remarked that, on the different heights of Java, a great number of cocoa-nut trees had been stripped of their leaves, and were dead as they stood; but he was, at length, informed, by several inhabitants of the hills, situated at a little distance to the north-west of Samarang, that they had been struck by lightning: that these people had been witnesses of the

tion. Their crowing, which was frequenely heard in the middle of the woods, induced him to imagine that he was in the vicinity of some habitation; but he soon knew how to distinguish it perfectly from that of the domestic cock. The comb of the wild cocks is of a whitish colour, mixed with a slight tint of violet, and assumes a darker hue towards the edge.

* "Dauribeau had stripped Labillardiere of all his collections: most of the ship's company were thrown into the prisons of the Tomogon of Sourabaya, from which they came out shortly after, some to be transferred to those of Batavia, and the others to remain with Dauribeau.

fact; and they further declared that the same thing happened on a great many other heights in the island. Indeed these tall trees, thus insulated, are particularly exposed to the effects of lightning; and the abundant sap, with which they are furnished, contributes not a little to attract the elastic matter.

On the 15th of April intelligence was received that a packet was speedily to sail from Batavia for Europe; and the Governor of Samarang permitted two of the Europeans to wait upon the regency of Batavia, to ask for a passage on board that vessel. They were all impatient to revisit their native country, but chance was to decide who were to be the happy persons: the lot fell on the Citizens Riche and Legrand, and they accordingly set off for Batavia on the 6th of May.

The dysentery, which Labillardiere had caught in the marshes of the strait of Bouton, he now expected a return of in the marshes of Batavia; the exhalations from which are still more insalubrious. Batavia is so pernicious an abode to most Europeans, especially in the first twelve months that they inhabit it, that, out of a hundred soldiers who arrive from Europe, ninety are expected to die within the year. The other Europeans, who enjoy all the comforts of opulence, do not indeed perish in so frightful a proportion. Piron and Labillardiere did not obtain permission to go to Batavia, till the moment of the departure of the Dutch fleet. Their companions in misfortune, Laignel, Ventenat, and Willaumez, set off to proceed thither; and the moment they arrived, they were sent to fort Tangaran, about two myriameters from the town. Riche and Legrand instead of procuring a passage in the packet which was speedily to sail, had been confined in fort Ankee; but they had the good fortune to sail, about two months after, for the Isle of France, in a vessel that was conducting prisoners thither.

Dauribeau not satisfied with having stripped Labillardiere of his collections, requested the Governor of Samarang to take from him the manuscript, containing his observations during the voyage in search of La Perouse. In vain he remonstrated against this violation of the most sacred property, Governor Overstraaten gave orders for examining his baggage, which he had caused to be sealed up a month before; but fortunately that journal escaped these researches.

Dauribeau, who had lately arrived to treat with the Governor, respecting the sale of the ships belonging to the expedition, died there on the 22d of August. The moment of the departure of the Dutch fleet was drawing near. Citizens Piron and Labillardiere set out for Batavia on the 1st of August. On the 2d of September they cast anchor in the road of Batavia. Having remained on board here about two days, the commanding officer in the road conveyed them on shore, and they were immediately sent to Fort Ankee, which is situated about a demi-myriameter to the westward of the town. It is surrounded by morasses, which render this abode exceedingly unhealthy.

These marshes serve as a haunt to enormous serpents of the species called *boa constrictor*. One of them came pretty regularly, every four or five days, and carried off some poultry, from the house of a publican in the neighbourhood of Fort Ankee, at whose house they had been permitted to make their meals. An old slave had been long suspected of stealing these fowls, and had frequently received fifty strokes of the ratten, whenever these feathered inhabitants were missed, without regarding his protestations of innocence; but the real thief was at length discovered to be a snake. This voracious creature had swallowed a remarkably large hen, and became so swelled that he was unable to return through the opening by which he had introduced himself. The slave then took his revenge for the blows he had received. The hen that was taken out of his stomach, had entered it head foremost, and had undergone no alteration. This snake was only four meters in length; but a Javanese killed one, a few days after, which was above ten meters long. It did not appear that he was in the practice of amusing himself only with poultry; they found, in his stomach, a kid that weighed a myriagram and a half.

The river which flows at the foot of Fort Ankee, is frequented by alligators: Labillardiere saw a large one advance among a group of children who were bathing in this river. The monster instantly seized one of them and disappeared.

During the last two months of our adventurers' residence at Ankee, four officers belonging to the *Modeste*, a French privateer, came to reside in the fortress where they were detained, which rendered their captivity more tolerable. They had

had been made prisoners of war on board a Dutch ship, a few days after they had been in possession of her.

The fort Major informed our navigators of the death of the purser of the Recherche, whose name was Giranden. It was now discovered that this person was a woman, as had been suspected from the commencement of the voyage; though she had a very masculine appearance. Motives of curiosity, it is said, determined her to undertake this voyage. She had left a very young child in France.

The Nathalie corvetta, with Citizen Riche on board, had been sent from the Isle of France to Batavia, to claim their ships from the regency; but on her arrival in the road she was detained for five months under the guns of two Dutch ships of war: and she could obtain no other satisfaction than that of carrying away the persons belonging to the expedition who were in confinement, and a few French prisoners of war.

At length, on the 29th of March, 1795, they set sail for the Isle of France. It was high time that Labillardiere should quit the morasses, which surround Fort Aukee, where he had, for upwards of a month, been attacked by a dysentery, and which was making a very rapid progress; but as soon as he breathed a pure air his complaint as rapidly diminished. On the 7th of May, he arrived at the Isle of France, and often visited its high mountains, paying particular attention to its diversified productions.

No opportunity presented itself of his returning to his native country, till General Malartie sent to France the *Minerva*, the command of which he conferred on Citizen Laignel, one of his companions in misfortune. He embarked on board this vessel, which set sail from the Isle of France on the 20th of November. On the 12th of March, 1796, they anchored off the Isle de Bas, and shortly after he repaired to Paris.

Labillardiere soon received information that his collections in natural history had been conveyed to England. The French government immediately claimed them. Sir Joseph Banks, President of the Royal Society of London, seconded his claim with great energy; and soon after he had the happiness, in receiving them, to find himself enabled to make known the natural productions which he observed in the countries he visited during the course of this voyage.

Names and Value of the New French Measures compared with the Old.

Linnear Measures.

	Toises.	Feet.	Inches.	Lines.
Myriameter	5130	4	5	4
Kilometer	513	0	5	4
Hectometer	51	1	10	1,6
Decameter	5	0	9	4,96
Meter	0	3	0	11,296
Decimeter	0	0	3	8,330
Centimeter	0	0	0	4,433

Measures of Capacity.

	Cubit feet.	Cubit inches.
Myrialiter	291,7390	
Kiloliter	29,1739	
Hectoliter	2,9174	
Decaliter	0,2917	
Liter		50,4125
Deciliter		5,0412
Centiliter		0,5041

Measures of Weight.

	lbs.	oz.	dr.	gr.
Bar	204	4	4	54
Myriagram	20	6	6	63
Kilogram	2	0	5	35
Hectogram	0	3	2	10,72
Decagram	0	0	2	44,27
Gram	0	0	0	18,827
Decigram	0	0	0	1,883
Centigram	0	0	0	0,188

END OF ADMIRAL D'ENTRECASTEAUX'S VOYAGE.

TRAVELS IN KAMTSCHATKA,

During the Years 1787 and 1788,

BY

M. DE LESSOPS,

Consul of France, and Interpreter to the Count De La Perouse.

AFTER accompanying the Count de la Perouse for upwards of two years, on his destined Voyage round the World, M. de Lessops was honoured by him with the conveyance of his dispatches, over land, from Kamtschatka to France. On the 6th of September, 1787, the king's frigates entered the port of Avatsha, or Saint Peter and Saint Paul*, at the southern extremity of the peninsula of Kamtschatka. On the 29th of the same month, he was ordered to quit the Astrolabe, and received his dispatches and instructions from the Count de la Perouse.

In the evening he took his leave of the commander, and his worthy colleague the Viscount de Langle. His regret at parting from them cannot be described: he was torn from their arms, and found himself in those of Colonel Kasloff Ougrenin, governor-general of Okotsk and Kamtschatka, to whom Count de la Perouse had presented him rather as a son, than an officer charged with his dispatches. At this instant his obligations commenced to the Russian governor, to whose amiable† disposition he was till then a stranger. In conducting our traveller to his house he spared no pains to divert him from his melancholy reflections, on being left alone in these half-discovered regions four thousand leagues distant from his native land; but the reception he met with from the inhabitants, and the civilities of the Russian officers, rendered him less sensible of the departure of his countrymen.

That event took place on the morning of the 30th of September‡: they sailed with a wind that conveyed them speedily out of sight, and continued favourable for several successive days. The governor had promised to conduct our traveller as far as Okotsk, which was the place of his residence, and he thought himself so happy under his guidance, that he could not hesitate about surrendering himself implicitly to his direction. Mr. Kasloff had affairs to settle, which, with the preparations for their departure, detained them six days longer.

The bay had been minutely and accurately described by Captain Cook, but some alterations had since been made, which are to be followed by several others, particularly with respect to the port of Saint Peter and Saint Paul. Instead of five or six houses, an entire town, it is supposed, will speedily make its appearance there, built of wood, and tolerably well fortified. Such, however, is the projected plan, which is to be ascribed to Kasloff, whose views are equally great and conducive to the service of his sovereign. The execution of this plan will increase

* The Russians call it Petropavloskaia-gaven.

† After repeated civilities to every individual engaged in the expedition, he was anxious to supply the frigates with provisions. Though oxen could not be procured without the utmost difficulty, he furnished seven at his own expence, and could not be prevailed on to accept of any equivalent, but regretted that he was not able to procure a greater number.

‡ Mr. Pinkerton, in his Modern Geography, ra[illegible] "this ingenious traveller," (M. de Lessops) "gives the most precise information concerning the manners of the Kamtschadales, and the Tchuks, the most remote people of Asiatic Russia. He travelled in the winter, when the snowy hurricanes were often so thick as to obstruct the view as much as a heavy fog." *Pinkerton's Modern Geog.* vol ii. 54.

the

the celebrity of the port, already rendered famous by the foreign vessels which have touched here, and by its excellent situation for commerce.

The port of Saint Peter and Saint Paul * is situated at the south of the entrance of the bay, and closed in by a narrow neck of land, upon which the ostrog †, or village of Kamptschatka is built. On an eminence to the east is the house of the governor, with whom Mr. Kasloff resided during his stay: near it stands the house of a corporal of the garrison, and a little higher that of a serjeant; who, next to the governor, are the only distinguished persons in this settlement. Opposite to the entrance of the port are the ruins of the hospital mentioned in Captain Cook's Voyage ‡. Below these, and nearer the shore, stands a building denominated a magazine to the garrison, which is constantly guarded by a centinel. Such was the state in which they found the port of Saint Peter and Saint Paul.

By the intended augmentation it will probably become an interesting place: the entrance was to be flanked by fortifications, and a battery was also to be erected on the neck of land which separates the bay from the lake. There is now on the point of a rock, a battery of six or eight cannon, lately erected to salute their frigates. The augmentation of the garrison forms a part of the plan, which at present only consists of forty soldiers or cossacs. In the time of service they have a sabre, firelock, and cartouch box; in other respects they are not distinguishable from the indigenes, but by their features and idiom. The narrow projection of land, which closes in the entrance of the port, is at present composed of between thirty and forty habitations, including winter and summer ones, called *isbas* and *balagans*. The present number of inhabitants, including the garrison, does not exceed one hundred.

The banks of the bay of Avatsha are rendered difficult of access by mountains, wood, and volcanoes §. Our traveller was astonished at the abundant vegetation of the valleys, the grass being nearly equal to the ordinary height of a man: and a grateful smell was diffused far and wide by the rural flowers, among which were wild roses and many other odoriferous plants.

The rains are heavy here in spring and autumn, and the blasts of wind are frequent in autumn and winter. The snow makes its appearance on the ground in October, and in April or May the thaw begins to take place. The summer is moderately fine: the strongest heats seldom lasting beyond the solstice. Thunder is seldom heard here, and its effects are never found injurious. Two rivers discharge their waters into the bay of Avatsha: they both abound with fish and water fowl; but the latter are so wild that you cannot approach them within fifty yards. These rivers cannot be navigated after the 26th of November, being always frozen about that time: in the depth of winter the bay is covered with sheets of ice, which are stationary there while the wind continues blowing from the sea, but are totally dispelled when the wind is blown from the land. The port of Saint Peter and Saint Paul is generally shut up by the ice in January.

The company departed from this port on the 7th of October; they consisted of Messrs. Kasloff, Schmaleff ||, Vorokhoff, Ivaschkin **, and M. de Lessops; besides four serjeants, and an equal number of soldiers, in the suite of the governor. The commanding officer of the port, perhaps as a token of respect to M. Kasloff, his

* The earliest navigators say, this is the most commodious port in this part of Asia: and ought to be the general depot for the commerce of the country. This would be the more advantageous, as the mariners which frequent the other ports usually think themselves fortunate if they escape shipwreck; and for this reason the empress prohibited all navigation after the 26th of September.

† An ostrog signifies a construction surrounded with pallisadoes. Its etymology may probably be derived from the entrenchments hastily constructed by the Russians to prevent the incursions of the natives. Ostrog is now the appellation given to almost all the villages in this country.

‡ Near this place was buried, at the foot of a tree, the body of Captain Clerk. The inscription placed on the tomb was in wood, and consequently liable to be effaced. La Perouse, anxious that the name of this navigator should be immortalized, and that no injury might be apprehended from the weather, substituted instead of it an inscription on copper.

§ About fifteen or twenty wersts from the port, there is a volcano, which was visited by the naturalists who attended La Perouse, and which has been particularly mentioned in his voyage.

|| Inspector-general for the Kamptschadales.

** M. Ivaschkin is the unfortunate gentleman whose distresses excite the compassion of every reader of sensibility; they are particularly related in La Perouse's Voyage round the World.

superior, joined their little troop, and they embarked upon *baidars** to cross the bay to Paratounka, where they were to be supplied with horses to proceed upon their journey. In less than six hours they arrived at this ostrog, where the rector resides, and where also his church is situated. They were hospitably received by the reverend divine, who entreated them to make his house their abode: but they had hardly entered when the rain fell so abundantly, that they were obliged to make the visit longer than they had intended.

The ostrog of Paratounka is seated on the side of the river of that name, at the distance of about two leagues from its mouth: it is not more populous than that of St. Peter and St. Paul. The small pox has made dreadful ravages in this place. The number of balagans and isbas seemed to be nearly the same as at Petropavlofska. The Kampschades reside in the first during summer, and repair to the last in winter. In order to bring them gradually to resemble the manners of the Russian peasants, they are prohibited from constructing any more *Yourts* or subterraneous habitations which are now all destroyed, except a very few vestiges which still exist in the northern part.

The balagans are elevated on a number of posts about thirteen feet high, placed at equal distances. This simple colonade supports a platform of rafters, joined to each other, and plastered over with clay: this platform may be considered as a floor to the whole building, which consists of a roof in the form of a cone, covered with thatch or dried grass, placed upon long poles fastened together and bearing upon the rafters. Thus the whole apartment is formed, and an opening in the roofs supplies the place of a chimney by letting out the smoke, when a fire is lighted to dress their victuals: their cookery is performed in the middle of the room, where they eat, drink, and sleep together, without disgust or scruple. The apartment has no windows, a low narrow door barely admits the light: the stair case is well assorted with the rest of the building, and consists of a tree jagged in a slovenly manner, so incommodiously contrived as to endanger the life or limbs of any one who ventures to ascend it. When the inhabitant is not inclined to receive visitors, it is usually signified by turning the staircase, with the steps inward†.

Their winter habitations are less singular, resembling those of the Russian peasants, but on a smaller scale. The isbas are constructed of wood, and are formed by placing long trees placed horizontally upon one another, and filling up the interstices with clay; the roofs resemble our thatched houses, and are occasionally covered with coarse grass, rushes, or wooden planks. The interior part is divided into two rooms, with a stove so conveniently situated as to communicate warmth to both, and to furnish a fire-place for their cookery. On two sides of the large room, wide benches are provided, on the chief of which a wretched couch is placed, made of planks, and covered with bear's skin. This is the bed appropriated to the chief of the family: and the women, who in this country are the slaves of their husbands, think themselves happy to be permitted to sleep on it. Here is also a table, and a number of images of different saints, with which the Kamptschadales delight to furnish their chambers. The windows are small and low: the panes consist of the skins of sal'mon, or the bladders of some animals: the fish skins are rendered transparent by dressing and scraping, and admit a feeble light into the apartment; but objects cannot be distinctly seen through them‡.

The rain continuing, the party were unable to proceed on their journey, but M. de Lessops embraced a short interval that presented itself in the course of the day, to visit the environs of the ostrog. He went to the church, which was built of wood, and ornamented in the Russian

* Baidars are boats somewhat similar to European ones: made of planks from four to six inches wide, fastened together with withies or cords; they are the only vessels used to sail to the Kurilles islands; they are usually rowed, but they will admit of a sail.

† As dried fish constitutes the principal nourishment of themselves and their dogs, it is necessary that they should have some place sheltered from the heat of the sun, and at the same time fully exposed to the air. Under the rustic porticos which form the lower part of their balagans they hang their fish, taking care to place them beyond the reach of their canine associates. Dogs are essentially serviceable to the Kamptschadales to draw their sledges, and they have no other kennel than what the portico of the balagans affords them, to the posts of which they are carefully tied.

‡ In every ostrog a chief resides, who is called toyon. This species of magistrate is chosen by a majority of the natives of the country. This toyon is a peasant, like those he is appointed to govern, and is not honoured with any marks of distinction. His duty is to watch over the police, and enforce the execution of the orders of government: under him an assistant is chosen, to execute a part of his functions, or occasionally to supply his place.

taste:

taste: he saw there the arms of Captain Clerke, and the English inscription respecting his death. The village is surrounded with a wood, which he traversed by proceeding along the river, and perceived a vast plain extending to the north and to the east. On the banks of the rivers that wind along this plain, frequent traces of bears are perceived; those animals being attracted by the fish with which these rivers abound: M. de Lessops was assured by the inhabitants, that fifteen or eighteen were frequently seen together upon those banks; and that, whenever they hunted them, they seldom failed to bring home one or two of them at least, in the space of twenty-four hours*.

The ostrog of Koriaki is situated in a coppice wood, on the border of the Avatscha: five or six isbas, and about double that number of balagans comprising the whole village; it is smaller than that of Paratounka, and has no parish church. The next day the travellers mounted their horses to proceed to Natchikin, an ostrog on the Bolcheretsk route. It was agreed on among them to stop a few days in the neighbourhood to inspect the baths, which M. Kasloff had constructed at his own expence. The road from Koriaki to Natchikin is tolerably commodious, and they crossed, without much difficulty, the little streams descending from the mountains, at the foot of which they were passing. Having travelled about three fourths of the way, they met the Bolchaia reka †: they proceeded on its bank till they came to a little mountain, which they were obliged to pass before they could reach the village. A heavy rain, which began at Koriaki, ceased a few minutes after; but the wind having changed to the north-east, a vast quantity of snow poured down upon them, and accompanied them till their arrival at their destined spot; at length they forded the Bolchaia-reka, and arrived at the ostrog of Natchikin; where they saw about six or seven isbas and twenty balagans. They did not stay here, M. Kasloff being desirous of hastening to the baths: equally induced by curiosity and necessity ‡.

They are situated about two wersts to the north of the ostrog, and a hundred yards from the bank of Bolchaia-reka; which must be crossed a second time before a person can arrive at the baths. A continued vapour ascends from these waters, which form a rapid cascade down a steep declivity, three hundred yards from the baths. In their fall they form a streamlet of a foot and half deep, and six or seven feet wide. Not far from the Bolchaia-reka, this little stream unites with another, and they both pass together into the river. At their conflux, which does not exceed nine hundred yards from the source, the water is so extremely hot that the hand cannot be endured in it for half a minute.

The party lodged near these baths in a place resembling a barn, covered with thatch; the timber work consisting of the trunks and branches of trees: but their habitation was found so insupportable during the night, on account of their being so extremely cold, they resolved to quit them four days after their arrival. They returned to the village, and were again accommodated by the toyon; but the attraction of the baths drew them back every day, and they hardly ever came away without bathing. M. Kasloff being desirous of ascertaining the properties of these

* The party at length quitted Paratounka and resumed their journey: twenty horses sufficed to convey them and their baggage, M. Kasloff having dispatched a part of it by water as far as the ostrog of Koriaki. The river Avatscha, having no tide, it is not navigable farther than this ostrog. With regard to themselves, they crossed the river Paratounka at a shallow, and winded along several of its branches; their horses, notwithstanding their burthens, advanced very briskly, and the weather was so fair that M. de Lessops began to think the account he had heard of the rigour of the climate had been exaggerated; but he was shortly after convinced that it was his lot to experience the most piercing frosts, and to contend with the violence of whirlwinds, and the most alarming tempests. The party was about six or seven hours in travelling from Paratounka to Koriaki, which did not exceed forty wersts*. When they arrived there, they were again obliged to shelter themselves from the rain, and to take refuge in the house of the toyon, who ceded his isba to M. Kasloff, and the night was passed under his roof.

* *A werst is one thousand yards.*

† Large river. *Russ.*

‡ The snow had penetrated through M. de Lessop's clothes, and, in crossing the river, his feet and legs were made extremely wet; he therefore wished to be able to change his dress; but on reaching the baths, he was informed that the baggage was not arrived. The company proposed drying themselves by walking about in the neighbourhood; and after some conversation on the subject, M. Kasloff had recourse to the bath, which quickly relieved him from all disagreeable apprehensions; but, not venturing to follow his example, M. de Lessops was obliged to wait the arrival of the baggage: he had imbibed so much of the damp, that a shivering fit attended him during the whole of the night. The next day he made a trial of the baths, and received much pleasure and advantage from them.

these waters, they were analysed, and M. de Lessops has inserted the process at large in his travels *.

The party having fixed upon the 17th of October for their setting off, the sixteenth was employed in preparations. Ten small boats, which were really nothing more than trees, scooped out in the shape of canoes, lashed together in pairs, serving as five floats to convey themselves, and part of their effects. What they could not take with them, they were obliged to leave at Natchikin, as they had already collected all the canoes that could be found in the village.

The dinner supplying the adventurers with renewed strength and spirits, they resumed their voyage, and had not advanced above a werst before two boats came to their assistance from Apatchin. They were instructed to repair the damaged boat, and to supply the place of those which were unfit for service.

The Bolchai-reka, in its windings, ran nearly in the direction of the east-north-east, and west-south-west. Its current is very rapid, but the stones and shoals obstructed the passage to such a degree, as to render the labour of their conductors truly intolerable. As they approached nearer the mouth of the river, it became wider and more navigable. dividing into several branches, and then uniting; after having watered a variety of small islands, some of which are covered with wood. Different species of water fowl divert themselves in this river; the surface being almost covered with ducks, plovers, and many others, but they are too cautious to admit the near approaches of man, their natural enemy.

Night coming on, it was not thought prudent to proceed any further, as during its obscurity the smallest accident might have proved fatal to them: this consideration induced our party to desert their boats, and to pass the night on the bank of the river, where Captain King and his party halted †. A good fire warmed and dried our adventurers, One of the floats contained the accoutrements of a tent; and while they were pitching it, they fortunately saw two of their floats advance, which had not been able to keep pace with them. The pleasure which this re-union afforded them, and their propensity to rest after the fatigue of the day, contributed to procure them a very comfortable night.

The next morning they proceeded to Apatchin, where they arrived in about four hours; but the water was so shallow that their floats ‡ could not come up to the village: they landed about four hundred yards from the ostrog, and accomplished the rest of the distance on foot. This village is smaller than the preceding ones by three or four habitations; it is situated in a small plain, on a

* While the party remained at the baths, and at the ostrog of Natchikin, their horses had brought, at different times, the effects which they had left at Koriaki, and they began to make preparations for their departure. In the mean time M. de Lessops saw a sable taken alive. At some distance from the baths, M. Kasloff observed a large flight of ravens all hovering over the same spot, skimming continually along the ground: the regular direction of their flight induced him and his companions to suspect that they were attracted by prey. They were indeed pursuing a sable which was perceived upon a birch-tree, surrounded by another flight of ravens. The gentlemen travellers had also an inclination to become possessed of this animal; but as they had left their guns at the village, they were at a loss how to effect their purpose: but a Kamptschadale happily drew them from their embarrassment, by undertaking to catch the sable. He adopted the following method. Having procured a cord from the caparison of one of the horses, he began to make a running knot with it, while some dogs, accustomed to the sport, surrounded the tree: the animal, from fear or stupidity, stood watching them, making no other motion than that of stretching out its neck when the cord was presented to him. His head was twice in the noose, but the knot slipped: the sable then threw himself upon the ground when the dogs attempted to seize him, but the nose of one of them was so horribly torn with his claws and teeth, that he was far from being pleased with his reception: Wishing to take the animal alive, the dogs were kept back by the travellers, and the sable ran up a tree, where the noose * was again presented to him, and the Kamptschadale succeeded. This easy method of catching sables is a pleasing circumstance to the inhabitants of this country, who are required to pay their tribute in the skins of these animals.

* *M. Kasloff, who was president of this chace, presented this sable to M. de Lessops, promising to procure him another, that he might take a couple with him to France.*

† Cook's Voyage, iii. 208.

‡ They embarked upon these floats early in the morning on the 17th. Four Kamptschadales, with the assistance of long poles, conducted their rafts; and they were frequently obliged to get into the water to haul them along, the stream in general being extremely shallow. After some time, one of their floats received an injury, which unfortunately happened to be that which was freighted with their baggage: at noon a more deplorable accident happened; the float which contained their cookery, sunk to the bottom before their eyes: such a loss they could not sustain with indifference; they were eager to save the wreck of their provisions; and, lest a greater misfortune should arrive; they wisely resolved to dine before they proceeded any farther.

branch

BOLCHERETZKOI, in KAMTSCHATKA.

branch of the Bolchaia-reka. Apatchin afforded nothing interesting: M. de Lessops left it to join the floats, which had passed the shallows, and were waiting for them. The farther they advanced, the deeper and more rapid was the river, and nothing impeded their course to Bolcheretsk, where they arrived in the evening accompanied by one of the floats, the rest having found themselves incapable of keeping up with them.

They were no sooner landed than the governor conducted M. de Lessops to his house, and politely requested him to accept of that accommodation while he continued at Bolcheretsk. He not only procured him all the pleasures and amusements in his pow*, but furnished him with all the information which his office permitted him to give.

Supposing he should continue some time at Bolcheretsk, from the necessity of waiting till sledges could be used, M. de Lessops amused himself by writing a description of the country, and a representation of the manners and customs of the inhabitants. He begins with a description of the town or fort of Bolcheretsk, which, he says, is situated on the border of the Bolchai-reka, in a small island formed by several branches of this river, which divide the town into three parts. The most distant division, which is called *Paranchine* contains ten or twelve isbas; the middle division has also a number of isbas, and a row of wooden huts, serving for shops; opposite to these stands a guard-house, which is also a court of justice; it is larger than the rest, and guarded by a centinel. The governor's house in Bolcheretsk is higher and larger than the rest, and is built like the wooden houses of Saint Petersburg. The church is simple, constructed like the village churches of Russia; on the side of which, three bells are suspended, covered with a timber roof. North-west of the governor's house, several dwellings present themselves, consisting of twenty-five or thirty isbas, and a few balagans. The whole of the wooden houses, exclusive of the shops, the chancery, and the governor's house, amounts to upwards of fifty. How this town acquired the additional appellation of fort, appears somewhat mysterious, as no traces are to be found of fortifications†.

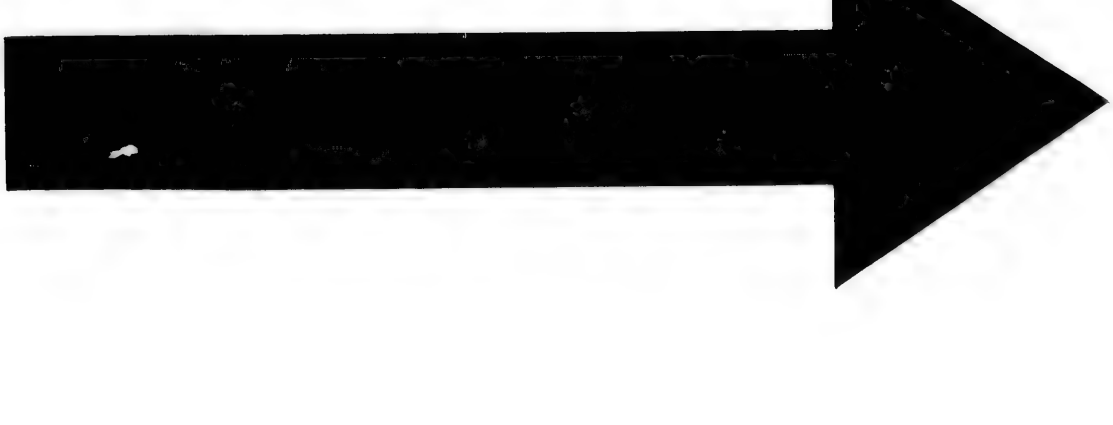
A vedro of French brandy here, containing from fifteen to twenty quarts, costs eighty roubles‡. The merchants are permitted to traffic in this article. The inhabitants of Bolcheretsk differ little from the Kamptschadales in their mode of living: but they are less satisfied however, with balagans, and their houses are a little cleaner. Their clothing is the same: the outer garment, which resembles a waggoner's frock, is made of the skins of deer, or other animals, tanned on one side: under these they wear long breeches of the same, and next the skin a short tight shirt of nankeen or cotton; the womens' are of silk. Both sexes wear boots, of goats' or dogs' skins in summer, and in the winter of the skins of sea wolves, or the legs of the rein-deer. The men usually wear fur caps: Their gala dress is an outer garment, trimmed with otter skins and velvet, or furs of the most excellent quality. The women are generally clothed like the Russian women.

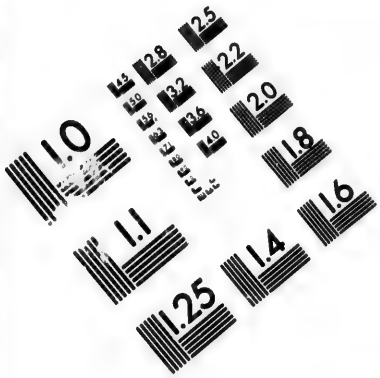
As their food consists principally of dried fish, the men are employed in procuring them; and the women, besides their domestic occupations, gather fruits and other vegetables, which, next to the dried fish, are the most esteemed provisions among the Kamptschadales and Russians of this country. When the women engage in making these harvests for winter consumption, it is a holiday with them, which is celebrated with intemperate joy, accompanied with the most extravagant and indecent

* M. de Lessops then relates the particulars of his generous treatment in an excursion to view the galliot from Okotsk, which had been unfortunately shipwrecked, and was attended with such insurmountable difficulties, that they abandoned their project, and returned to Bolcheretsk.

† The population of Bolcheretsk amounts to between two and three hundred. Among these there are sixty or seventy cossacs or soldiers; the rest of the inhabitants are composed of merchants and sailors. These people, Russians and Cossacs, combining with a mixed breed found among them, carry on a clandestine commerce: their industry and knavery are continually employed in cheating the poor Kamptschadales, whose credulity and propensity to drunkenness expose them to the mercy of such unprincipled plunderers. When they are found in a state of inebriety, these harpies obtain from them the barter of their most valuable effects, their whole stock of firs, frequently the fruit of the labour of a whole season. The fascinating sight of a few glasses of brandy deprives them of all prudence; for the momentary pleasure of gratifying their strange propensity in this particular, they will incur immediate and inevitable destruction. They cannot guard against their own weakness, and the cunning and perfidy of these traders; who in their turn swallow, in similar potions, all the profits of their knavery.

‡ Eighteen pounds sterling.

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scenes, giving themselves up to all the follies and absurdities which their imagination may suggest *,

The most common fish here are trouts, salmon, and sea-wolves: the fat of the latter is very wholesome, and also serves the inhabitants for lamp-oil.

Among the vegetables used by the Kamptschadales, are the sarana root, wild garlic, *Slatkaia trava*, or sweet herb, and other plants nearly similar to what are found in Russia. The sarana is known to botanists, and has been described at large by Captain Cook. Its farinaceous root supplies the place of bread: it is usually dried before it is used, but it is salutary and nourishing in every mode of preparation. From the wild garlic a fermented beverage is made, which the Kamptschadales are fond of. The *slatkaia-trava*, or sweet herb, which has been minutely described by the English, is highly esteemed by the natives, particularly the spirit distilled from it. Brandy is also distilled from this herb, which intoxicates more expeditiously than French brandy †.

The Kamptschadales are mild, honest, and hospitable; but having little penetration or suspicion, they are easily imposed on. They live together in the most perfect harmony, and their unanimity disposes them to assist each other, which strongly manifests their zeal to oblige, when the slothfulness of their disposition is taken into consideration. An active life would make them the most miserable of mankind, their whole happiness consisting in tranquil indolence: and the height of intoxication ‡.

M. Kasloff, and those who accompanied him, frequently gave balls, and other entertainments for the amusement of the ladies of this ostrog, who accepted such invitations with alacrity and joy. The women, whether Kamptschadales or Russians, have a strong propensity to pleasure, which their eagerness will not permit them to conceal or disguise. The precosity or forwardness of the girls is beyond conception, and seems to suffer no diminution from the coldness of the climate. The women of Bolcheretsk who attended these assemblies, and who were principally of a mixed blood, or of Russian parents, were not disagreeable in person, some of whom might indeed with justice be pronounced handsome. The bloom of their youth, however, is of short duration; but their disposition is extremely cheerful, and they sometimes engage in conversation beyond the line of decency; they omit no sally of gaiety that tends to amuse and delight the company: and the majority of husbands, whether Russians or natives, are not very susceptible of jealousy.

In their dances they sometimes imitate the animals they are fond of pursuing, from the delicious partridge to the unweildy bear: they represent the sluggish and stupid gait of the latter: its feelings and situations, his domestic amusements, and his agitations when pursued. They certainly have a perfect knowledge of that uncouth animal, they are so exact and so extremely natural in representing all his motions. M. de Lessops asked the Russians, who had often been present at the taking of these animals, whether their pantomime ballets were well executed, and they assured him that the cries and attitudes of the bear were as accurate as possible: but these dances are as fatiguing

* They cannot be accused of too much delicacy in the preparation of their food: they waste no part of the fish; for, as soon as it is caught, they tear out the gills, which they suck with great avidity: by a further refinement of sensuality, they also cut off some slices of the fish, which they swallow with rapture, accompanied with delicious clots of blood. The fish is then gutted, and the entrails preserved for the dogs. The rest is prepared and dried, and generally eaten raw, though it is occasionally boiled, roasted, or broiled.

But the food which extravagantly delights these epicures is a species of salmon, called *tchaoutcha*. When it is caught, they bury it in a hole, where it remains till it becomes perfectly putrified: in which infectious state, it highly regales the delicate palates of these voluptuous people. M. de Lessops wanted to overcome the aversion he had taken to this luxurious repast, but his resolution was unequal to it; he was not only unable to taste it, he could not admit it to approach his mouth; for, whenever he attempted it, the fetid exhalation which it emitted gave him an intolerable nausea.

† The inhabitants consist of three sorts; the natives, or Kamptschadales; the Russians and Cossacs; and the issue from intermarriages: The indigenes are few in number, the small pox having made great havoc among them; and the few which remain are dispersed in the different ostrogs of the peninsula. The genuine Kamptschadales are short, their eyes small and sunk, their cheeks prominent, and their nose flat: they have very little beard, and their complexion is tawny: this description will apply equally to the men or the women; they are not therefore very seducing objects.

‡ But, notwithstanding their defects, it is to be lamented that their number is not more considerable, for it clearly appears, from every information that M. de Lessops could collect, that, "if we would be sure of finding sentiments of honour and humanity in this country, it is necessary to seek for them among the true Kamptschadales; they have not yet bartered their rude virtues for the polished vices of the Europeans sent to civilize them."

to the European spectators, as to the performers; it is distressing to see them distort and dislocate their limbs, to express the pleasure they enjoy in these absurd diversions.

There are various modes of attacking the bear; sometimes they lay snares for him, but there is another mode, very much adopted in this country, which requires strength and courage to ensure success. A Kamptschadale, alone or in company, goes out to find a bear. He has no other weapon than a gun, a lance or spear, and his knife; and his stock of provision consists of about twenty fish. Thus equipped he penetrates the woods to explore the haunts of the animal: he usually posts himself among the briars, or the rushes bordering on lakes and rivers, and waits with patience and intrepidity the approach of his adversary: thus situated he will sometimes remain for a week together, till the quadruped makes its appearance. When it advances within his reach, the hunter fixes in the ground a forked stick belonging to his gun, which enables him to take a surer aim, and to shoot with greater certainty. It is seldom that he fails of striking the bear, with a small ball either on the head, or near the shoulder; but he must instantly charge again, because the animal, if not disabled by the first shot, runs at the hunter*, who has not always time to prepare a second shot: he then arms himself with his lance, and enters into a contest with the bear, and if he does not give him a mortal thrust, his life is in imminent danger†. In these combats, the man is not always the conqueror; but the inhabitants are not deterred from this practice by the frequent examples of the death of their countrymen‡.

Other animals are hunted nearly in the same manner, such as rein-deer, argali, foxes, sables, hares, otters, beavers, &c. but they have not equal dangers to encounter. The Kamtschadales sometimes suffer hunger for many successive days rather than quit their station, when there appears a probability of success; but they are amply repaid for fasting by devouring the flesh of the animals, and ruminating on the value of their skins.

The seasons for the chace are when the fur of the animal is in its greatest perfection; sable hunting begins with the winter. These animals usually live in trees, and are called by their respective names; a part of the fur nearest the skin corresponding in colour with those that are the most frequent, as the birch, the fir, &c. Foxes are hunted in autumn, winter, and spring; there are four different species. 1. The whitish red fox. 2, The bright red fox. 3, The fox with a mixture of red, black, and grey. 4, The black fox, having on the fur of the back a slight grey tint. There are also two other species, the blue fox, and the white fox§.

Rein-deer are hunted in winter, and argali in autumn: otters are scarce, but ermines are extremely

* Sometimes it takes to flight, notwithstanding the wound it has received, and conceals itself in thickets, where it is traced by means of its blood, and found either dead or dying.

† It is said that when a bear triumphs over his aggressor, he tears the skin from the skull, draws it over the face, and then leaves him; a mode of revenge which induces the Kamptschadales to believe that this animal cannot bear the human aspect.

‡ In the winter when the country is covered with snow a different mode of hunting prevails: the bear then retreats to the den which he has constructed during summer with the branches of trees; and there he remains, sleeping, while the frost continues. The Kamptschadales pursue him in their sledges, attack him with their dogs, arouse him and oblige him to defend himself. Rushing from his lurking place, he encounters sudden death; and if he declines coming forth, his fate is equally certain, by permitting himself to be crushed to death under the ruins of his den.

§ Mr. Tooke says, the best sables are found near Yakoutsh and Nershink; but those of Kamptschatka are most numerous, and several stratagems are employed to catch or kill the animal, without any injury to the skins, which is sometimes worth ten pounds on the spot. The black foxes are also highly esteemed, one skin being sometimes sufficient to pay the tribute of a village. The rock or ice fox, generally of a white colour, sometimes bluish, is found in great numbers in the eastern Archipelago. This animal rivals the ape in sly tricks and mischief. Other animals pursued for their skins are the marmot, the marten, the squirrel, the ermine, and others of inferior repute. The bear is destroyed by many ingenious methods. The Korials contrive a loop and bait hanging from a tree, by which he is suspended. In the southern mountains his usual path is watched, a rope is laid in it with a heavy block at one end, and a noose at the other. When thus entangled by the neck, he is either exhausted by dragging so great a weight, or attacking the block with fury he throws it down from the precipice, when it seldom fails to drag him to destruction. On the European side of the Uralian chain, where the peasants form the beehives in tall trees, the bear is destroyed in his attempt to seize the honey, by a trap of boards suspended from a strong branch, and slightly attached to the entrance of the hive: the animal finding this platform convenient for his purpose, undoes the slight fastening to get at his luscious repast, but is instantly conveyed to a great distance, and remains in the perpendicular of the branch, till he is discovered and shot by the contrivers. *Tooke's View.* ii, 43. *Pink. Mod Geog.* ii, 74.

tremely plenty. The Kamptschadales fish for salmon and trout in June, for herrings in May, and for sea wolves in spring, summer, and autumn; but principally in the latter. They generally use common nets, or a kind of harpoon: seines are used only for sea wolves. They have also a method of fishing, by closing up the river with stakes, leaving narrow passages for the fish, so constructed that when they once have entered, they find it difficult or impossible to retreat.

There are but few horses in Kamptschatka; but dogs* are numerous: they are used for all the purposes of carriage, and are fed with the offals of fish, or such parts as are rejected by their masters. In summer, when their services are not required, they are permitted to provide for themselves by visiting the sides of lakes and rivers; but they return with great punctuality at the time they are expected. When winter returns, their labour is renewed. These animals are not very large, but resemble such as are commonly used by shepherds. Hardly a single inhabitant, whether a Russian or native, has less than five. They use them for the conveyance of their effects, their provisions, or their persons. They are harnessed to a sledge, in pairs, like horses, with a single one before, serving as a leader, who is appointed to that honourable station from his superior sagacity, and one who perfectly understands the terms used by his conductor. The number of dogs employed in drawing is proportioned to the load; five are thought sufficient for a common team, which is called a saunka. The harness, which is made of leather, passes under the neck, and is joined to the sledge by a strap: bears' skin is sometimes used to decorate these collars.

The form of the sledge resembles that of an oblong basket, each end of which is elevated in a curve: it is about three feet in length, and one in breadth: the body of the sledge is made of very thin wood; the sides are of open work, embellished with straps. The seat of the charioteer is covered with bears' skins elevated about three feet from the ground: the charioteer is furnished with a stick, which serves him as a rudder or a whip; iron rings are suspended to ornament the stick, as well as to encourage the dogs by their jingle. The Kamptschadales are singularly expert in the management of their dogs.

The common mode of sitting in a sledge is sideways, as a lady rides on horseback. M. de Lessops, astonished at the dexterity displayed by the drivers of sledges, and thinking he should acquit himself tolerably well in that character, procured a carriage, and ventured to become the charioteer: a number of falls, which he successively received, from his inability to conduct that curious machine in a masterly style, did not discourage him from proceeding, and he at length became an amateur of the exercise, and acquired a degrée of reputation in it. From that moment he became his own driver, and almost abandoned every other mode of conveyance.

To fill up the additional time M. de Lessops was destined to continue here, he visited some of the environs, and amused himself much with the constructing of his travelling† sledges; but his principal delight was in the company of M. Kasloff, and the officers of his suite.

In adverting to the diseases of Kamptschatka, the small pox demands particular notice, as having committed great ravages. It appears not to be natural to the country, nor is it common. It made its appearance here in 1767, and 1768, being brought into the place by a Russian vessel. The Kamptschadales are probably indebted to the same party for their knowledge of the venereal disease, which happily is not prevalent. It appears to be exotic, and is attended with ruinous effects from the injudicious administration of medicines.

Surgery is in a state of barbarism at Kamptschatka, and physic does not appear to have made any considerable progress. They have had their impostors and empirics, which seem now to have lost all credit among them.

Women of this country have generally about four or five children, and seldom produce more than ten. They sometimes suckle their infants four or five years; whence it may be supposed

* They are castrated, like horses; but some of them do not survive the operation, and others become crippled and unfit for service; should they be permitted to remain in their natural state, it would be impracticable to harness them with females. All males, however, are not mutilated; a sufficient number is reserved for the preservation of the species, and these are frequently occupied in hunting.

† A close coach to sleep in, fitted to the sledge, not unlike a common carriage in Russia called *vezoki*: this was lined with a bear's skin, and covered with the skin of a sea wolf.

that

that Kamtschadale mothers have very strong constitutions. It is observed, however, that the natives of either sex, do not live longer than Russians *.

The district of Paratounka, includes seven ostrogs and the Kurilles islands. The number of inhabitants, in the whole, amounts to about six hundred and twenty. The rector of Paratounka is allowed a salary of eighty roubles, and twenty pounds of rye flour. He has no tythes, but receives a certain emolument attached to his church.

The current coins are the golden imperial of ten roubles, the rouble, and half rouble. A very few silver coins are under this value. Copper and paper money have not yet made their appearance in this peninsula. The pay of the soldiers is fifteen roubles a-year †.

Towards the close of November the cold grew suddenly severe, and in the space of a few days all the rivers were frozen; not excepting even Bolchai-reka, which generally escapes the severity of frost, from the rapidity of its stream. On each shore of the peninsula, a manifest difference is found in the atmosphere. A drought prevailed at St. Peter and St. Paul's, while frequent showers were complained of at Bolcheretsk. Very heavy rains produce much injury here, by occasioning great floods which force the finny race from the rivers, when a famine has been more than once the consequence in all the villages along the coast ‡.

The frequency of these tempests, and the deplorable accidents which they occasion, convinced the party of the necessity of deferring their departure. M. Kasloff was certainly impatient to arrive at the place of his destination, and M. de Lessops was equally anxious to prosecute his journey, that he might execute the trust reposed in him; but the other gentlemen condemned their eagerness, and clearly demonstrated that it would be the height of rashness to proceed. This reflection had its proper effect, and furnished M. de Lessops and M. Kasloff with an acquittal from all censure, for consenting to so necessary a delay §.

To enjoy this tumult more at his ease, M. de Lessops quitted his sledge for another of smaller dimensions, where he could better observe what passed. He rejoiced that no accident had happened, and was perfectly convinced that all this embarrassment had been occasioned by the inhabitants of Bolcheretsk, who voluntarily attended M. Kasloff to Apatchin, from motives of profound respect. Hardly had they arrived at

* The Christian religion was introduced here by the Russians, but the inhabitants know little of it except the ceremony of baptism. Slaves to their inclinations, they follow their impulse upon all occasions, and practice religious rites only when they accord with their own interest or convenience. There are eight churches in Kamptschatka, viz. Paratounka, Bolcheretsk, Ichinsk, Tigril, Vorckney, Plutchesskaia, and two at Nijenei: to which may be added the church of Jingiga, in the country of the Koriacs.

† The property of the Kamtschadales devolves, upon their decease to the next heir, or to whom the testator bequeaths it. The will is as much respected and adhered to as in any of the European nations. Divorces are not allowed. The penalty of death is never inflicted at Kamptschatka: the punishment of the knowt is now no longer practised. For petty, or capital offences, whipping is inflicted. Perhaps the offenders gain no advantage by the change in punishments; whipping being more simple and expeditious, recourse is had to it with less scruple, and it is liable to frequent abuse. The Kamptschadale idiom is uncouth, guttural, and difficult to be pronounced.

‡ The wind varied considerably while M. de Lessops resided at Bolcheretsk; the south and west winds are generally attended with snow. Hardly a day passed without his experiencing two or three violent tempests. "Woe to all travellers" exclaims this intelligent writer, "who are exposed to this terrible weather! Necessity compels them to stop, or they run the risk of losing themselves, or of falling every moment into some abyss; for how is it possible that they should find their way or advance a step, when they have to resist the impetuosity of the wind, and to disengage themselves from the heaps of snow that suddenly encompass them."

§ These gales of wind having ceased about the middle of January, they eagerly prepared for their departure, which was fixed for the 27th of the same month: they furnished themselves with brandy, beef, flour, and oatmeal. A quantity of loaves were provided for them, some of which were reserved till the commencement of their journey, and the rest were sliced and baked to be eaten as biscuits. Multitudes of dogs were collected, and provisions in abundance for their support. The party started at seven in the evening, their baggage not being ready till that time: it was moonlight, and the snow added lustre to its brightness. They started with *eclat*, having thirty-five sledges in the procession; a serjeant named Kabechoff superintended; and when he gave the signal, the sledges set off in file. Three hundred dogs were employed in drawing these sledges, all active and adroit: speedily the line was broken, and the utmost confusion succeeded; a spirit of emulation among the conductors produced a kind of chariot race, and the contention was who should drive fastest. The dogs resented this insult; and, partaking of the rivalship of their respective masters, fought with each other for the precedence, and many of the carriages were overturned. The clamour of the persons overturned, the yelping of the contending dogs, and the vociferous chattering of the guides, made "confusion more confounded," and nothing that was said could be understood.

this ostrog, when a tempestuous wind arose, which continued the whole night and the following day. Here a last farewel was taken of the inhabitants of Bolcheretsk; and M. de Lessops was particularly struck with their gratitude and attachment to M. Kasloff, and the regret they expressed at leaving our author; having entertained an idea that the famous Beniwousky, a supposititious Frenchman, had successfully represented that nation in an invidious light. M. Schmaleff quitted the party at break of day, to proceed to Figuil in his official character.

Leaving Apatchin almost at the same time, the small party of travellers became still smaller, and were rendered more capable of expedition. Having passed the plain in which this ostrog is situated, they met the Bolchai-reka, and followed it through many of its windings: they found it necessary, however, to quit this river, the current having put the ice in rapid motion; and, before they reached Molkin, they crossed the Bristraia, and arrived at the ostrog about two o'clock. Having no supernumerary dogs, they were obliged to halt here, to give their canine travellers a little rest to recruit their exhausted strength.

The toyon of Malkin respectfully met M. Kasloff, and offered him his isba: great preparations had been made for the reception of this little party, which induced them to pass the night at the ostrog. They were very hospitably treated by the toyon, but their repose was horribly disturbed by the incessant howlings of these clamorous steeds; yet M. de Lessops says, that after a few sleepless nights occasioned by their shrill incessant yelpings, Morpheus at length overpowered him, and he became insensible to all their noise. By degrees he became so inured to the cries of these animals, that he could repose in the midst of them with the most perfect tranquillity. The dogs are fed but once a-day, and dried salmon is their most common repast.

The ostrog of Malkin contains about five or six isbas, and a dozen balagans, and is situated on the borders of the Bistraia, surrounded with high mountains. From Malkin the travellers proceeded towards Gamel, but they met with several impediments on the road: the Bistria not being completely frozen, they were obliged to make circuitous marches and to cross the woods, where the snow, though deep, wanted firmness, and the dogs sunk in it. They were therefore induced to abandon this road and make again for the Bistraia; and when they again arrived at it, they found it in a more practicable state. The solidity of the ice seemed to promise good travelling, and they readily embraced the apparent advantage, following its course till they came to an ostrog on its bank, consisting of four isbas, and twelve balagans. After passing an indifferent night in the house of the toyon of Gamal, they set off the next day for Pouchine. The Kamptschatka passes near the lower part of this ostrog: the isbas here had no chimnies, having only, like the balagans, a narrow opening in the roof to aid the smoke in its departure, but which is often closed up to confine the heat: the interior of these isbas is lined with soot *.

The travellers slept at Pouschiné in the house of the toyon, and departed early on the following morning: the farther they advanced, the more were they obstructed by the snow. The conductors were constantly employed in keeping the sledge upright to prevent it from overturning: they were also obliged to exert their lungs to encourage the dogs, who frequently stopped, though blows were cruelly and lavishly bestowed upon them. These poor animals found infinite labour in disengaging themselves from the snow, which covered them as fast as they could shake it off.

The party next arrived at the ostrog of Charom, situated upon the Kamptschatka, where they passed a part of the night, and left it before the morning. In seven hours they reached Vercknei-Kamptschatka, thirty-five wersts from Charom: it is a very considerable place, having more than a hundred houses: the situation is commodious, and commands a pleasing prospect. Besides bordering on the river, it is

* But a most unpleasant odour is exhaled from a dismal lamp, serving to light the whole house; a rag rolled up in the middle performs the part of a wick, and the grease of the sea wolf or some other animal is the substitute for oil: when lighted a dark thick vapour seizes the nose and throat, and penetrates to the very heart. Another disagreeable smell is experienced in these habitations; it is the nauseous exhalation from the dried and stinking fish. The inhabitants of these dwellings exhibit a spectacle equally disgusting: a group of women, besmeared with fat, are seen wallowing on the ground amidst a heap of rags; some of them suckling their half naked children, bedaubed with filth from top to toe; others ravenously devouring different fragments of fish, principally raw and putrid. Several appeared in a *dishabille*, as disgusting as can be conceived, gossipping on the most indelicate domestic occupations.

adjacent to the woods, and has a fertile soil, which the inhabitants begin to cultivate. The church, though built of wood, deserves commendation. Here are a species of buildings, about the height of a balagan, constructed solely for the purpose of drying fish. A serjeant had the command at Vercknei, and inhabits a house belonging to the crown. This village is also the residence of the unfortunate Ivaschin, of whom mention has been already made.

The travellers remained but a short time at Vercknei, setting out from thence after dinner to Milkovaia Derevna, or Milkoff, at the distance of fifteen wersts. They passed a pretty large field inclosed with palisades, and, farther on, a hamlet inhabited by labourers, who are Cossacs, or Russian soldiers, employed in agriculture on government account: they had also eighty horses, belonging to the crown. M. de Lessops had some conversation with the Cossacs, relative to the productions of their canton; declaring his opinion that he thought every species of corn might be cultivated there with success; and they, in reply, assured him, that their last harvest had surpassed their hopes, and was not inferior to the finest harvests in Russia.

Arrived at Milkoff, the travellers no longer saw Kamptschadales or Cossacs, but a colony of peasants. They were selected in 1743 from among the primitive inhabitants of Russia and Siberia, and chiefly from among the husbandmen. The view of administration in sending them here was to clear the land, promote agriculture, and encourage the native inhabitants, by their example and success, to employ themselves in the necessary art: but unfortunately their example and instruction had no effect upon the sluggishness of these unaspiring natives *.

Wishing to go to Machoure, to pass a day with the baron de Steinheil, M. de Lessops left M. Kasloff at Milkoff, and set out twenty-four hours before him, that his journey might not be delayed. The roads, however, were in no better condition than what he had before experienced, and he could not proceed so rapidly as he intended. The first village he came to was Kirgan: the few houses which compose the ostrog, stand on the border of a river called Kirganik, which is formed by a variety of streams descending from the mountains, and uniting above the ostrog. The cold was so severe that, though he covered his face with his handkerchief, his cheeks were frozen in the space of half an hour: he rubbed his face with snow, (a common practice upon these occasions) and was speedily relieved, though an acute pain succeeded it, which continued for several days. But if his face was frozen, the rest of his body experienced a different fate: By conducting his own sledge, the violent exercise threw him into a violent perspiration, and fatigued him extremely †.

He made no stop at Kirgan, but reached Machoure about two in the afternoon: he alighted at the baron Steinheil's, with whom he became acqnainted at Bolcheretsk, and was so happy as to be able to converse with him in several languages. He passed the whole day with the baron, (4 Feb.) and in the evening M. Kasloff

* The habitations of these emigrants, situated on the Kamptschatka clearly shew that they live at their ease. Their cattle thrive from their exemplary care and industry, and their countenances display an air of satisfaction and content. Their labour, though advantageous, is not excessive. Every man ploughs and sows his own field, and having only a trifle to pay for it, he is abundantly rewarded for improving a fertile soil. This colony has no concern with the chace, Government having wisely taken care to prohibit it, that their labours might be devoted wholly to agriculture. Their chief is a *saroste*, selected from the old men of the village, who is required to inspect the progress of agriculture, and to regulate the operation of seed time and harvest; as well as to animate the zeal of the labourers, and stimulate the negligent to a rational performance of their duty.

† His dress usually consisted of an outward pargue or covering of deers' skin, and a fur cap, which would occasionally cover his ears and part of his cheeks. When the cold was more intense, he added two kowklanki, made of thicker skin, one of them having the hair on the inside, and the other on the outside. In the severest weather, another kowklanki still thicker, was put over all this, made of argali, or dogs' skin. To these kowklankis a small bib is fixed before, to defend the face from the wind: they have also hoods behind which fall upon the shoulders. His neck was guarded by a cravat, made of sable or the tail of a fox, and his chin with a similar preservation, fastened upon his head. His forehead, being very susceptible of cold, was covered with an otter or sable fillet, and over this his cap. He derived more warmth from his fur breeches, than from all the rest of his dress: he had double deer-skin spatterdashes, with hair on both sides, and he put his legs into boots of deer-skin. With all these precautions, his feet grew wet, after travelling two or three hours, either from perspiration or the penetration of the snow and if he stood motionless for a moment in his sledge, they instantly became frozen. At night he exchanged his spatterdashes for a pair of fur stockings made of deer-skin.

arrived

arrived as he had promised. The ostrog of Machoure was one of the most considerable in the peninsula, but the cruel ravages of the small-pox has reduced the number of its inhabitants to twenty families *.

At break of day M. de Lessops took leave of the baron de Steinheil, and travelled with his party sixty-six wersts upon the Kamptschatka, the ice of which was perfectly firm and smooth: in the evening at sun-set they arrived at the village of Chapina. Setting off the next morning, they found the snow extremely troublesome; it had fallen so abundantly that they were hardly able to proceed; but they made some little progress through woods of fir and birch. At length they met with two rivers; one of which was small; the other, however, was about sixty yards in breadth: the latter is called the great Nikoulka. Both these streams issue from the mountains, and, uniting here, pass in company to the Kamptschatka; neither of them was frozen, which may rationally be attributed to the extreme rapidity of their current. The quantity of firs that skirted these rivers, resembled so many trees of ice: a thick hoar frost, occasioned by some dampness, having given the whole a lucid chrystaline appearance.

Crossing a heath at some distance from Tolbatchina, our travellers perceived three volcanoes, none of which emitted flames, but columns of black smoke. The first, on a level with Machoure has its reservoir in a mountain of a conical shape, the summit being a little flattened; this volcano was long thought to have been extinguished, but it has lately resumed its ancient office. The crater of a second volcano, north-east of this, continually throws up smoke, but exhibits not a spark of fire: the third, which is north-east of the second, could not be distinctly seen, a high mountain somewhat intercepting the view.

Arriving at the ostrog of Tolbatchina, forty-four wersts from Chapina, the party were informed that a Kamptschadale wedding had been celebrated there in the morning: they regretted their not having been present at the ceremony, but they saw the parties; the bridegroom appearing to be about fourteen years of age, and the bride not exceeding eleven. Such marriages would be thought premature in any other country than Asia.

Being particularly desirous of seeing the town of Nijenei Kamptschatka, and supposing it would be an unpardonable offence to have left the peninsula without seeing the capital, M. de Lessops resolved to visit it, having first consulted with M. Kasloff to rejoin him at the village of Yelofki, where some government arrangements would detain him several days: he took leave of him, and proceeded to Kosirefsk; and from thence to Ouclkoff, a village containing one isba, and eleven balagans. A lake in the neighbourhood is so abundantly prolific in fish, that all the villages in the environs resort to it for their winter stock.

Leaving Ouclkoff, M. de Lessops travelled partly upon the Kamptschatka, and partly across extensive heaths, till he arrived at Krestoff, a small ostrog where he only stopped to change his dogs. The weather which had been fine since his departure from Apatchin, now suddenly changed. The sky became clouded, and a west wind produced a heavy snow, he could not therefore examine minutely the volcano of Kutchesskaia; it threw up flames which seemed as if they ascended from the midst of the snow, with which the mountain is covered to its very summit. On the approach of night he reached the village of Klutchesskaia, inhabited by Siberian peasants from the neighbourhood of the Lena sent to cultivate the land.

The ostrog is pretty large, extending principally from east to west: the church, which is built of wood, and in the Russian taste, is situated to the eastward; the houses are cleaner and better constructed than usual in this part of the country. The Kamptschatka which passes at the bottom of the ostrog, is never entirely frozen in this part: in summer it often overflows the houses, though all of them are built upon an eminence †.

M. de

* All the Kamptschadales of this village are chamans, or believers in the witchcraft of these supposed sorcerers. They pay a secret homage to their God Kouta, and address their prayers exclusively to him when they solicit a boon or blessing. When they engage in the chace, they abstain from washing themselves, and carefully avoid making the sign of the cross: they invoke their Koutka, and sacrifice to him the first animal they catch. It is also a part of their superstition to consecrate to the Koutka their new-born children, who from their leaving the cradle are destined to become chamans: their veneration for sorcery approaches to insanity, and is really to be pitied. The magicians, however, no longer decorate their garments with mystic rings, nor exercise their magic instruments.

† Leaving Klutchefskaia, our traveller proceeded through Kamina, Kamahoff, and Tchoka, and from thence to Nijenei;

M. de Lessops alighted at the house of an unfortunate exile, named Spafidaff, who had been banished to Kamptschatka in 1774. He had hardly entered, when an officer from M. Orleankoff came to congralulate him on his arrival. Many of the principal officers followed his example, and all of them made a very obliging tender of their services. As soon as he was dressed, he hastened to return his thanks to each of them separately, beginning with Major Orleankoff, whom he found busily preparing for an entertainment, in consequence of an approaching marriage *.

The next day he was invited to dine with the uncle of the bride, and partook of an entertainment similar to that on the preceding day, the fire works excepted. This gentleman is the protapope or chief in all the churches in Kamptschatka, who has the decision of all ecclesiastical affairs. He is an elderly man, with a long white beard, and has a truly venerable appearance. There are two tribunals at Nijenei, one respecting the affairs of government, and the other for regulating mercantile disputes, and each of these jurisdictions holds from the tribunal of Okotsk, to the governor of which it is answerable for its proceedings.

While M. de Lessops continued at Nijenei, he saw nine Japanese, who had been brought there the preceding summer, from the Alentienne islands, by a Russian vessel; many particulars of whom he circumstantially related; but to follow him through his narrative would be wantonly digressing from the abridgment that may be reasonably expected from us.

Having spent three days at Nijenei Kamptschatka, he left it in the afternoon of the 12th of February, to meet M. Kasloff, depending upon seeing him at Yelofki. He arrived at Tchoko early in the evening. The next morning he arrived at the ostrog of Kamini, where he took the road of Kartchina: He passed three lakes, the last of which was not less than five leagues in circumference; and slept at the ostrog, which was seated on the river Kartchina. He continued his route as soon as it was light, and notwithstanding the bad weather, travelled seventy wersts, which brought him to Yelofki, on a river of the same name, surrounded by mountains †.

M. Kasloff was surprised at our author's expedition, but he could not immediately accompany him in his departure. His business not being finished, they were obliged to prolong their stay; and they had a further expectation that M. Schasleff would soon arrive, and meet them at this ostrog. Five days were thus passed in fruitless expectation. At length M. Kasloff complied with the impatience of our author, and they agreed to set off on the morning of the 19th ‡.

The first business of their Kamptschadales was now

Nijenei; and had the pleasure of entering, a little before noon, that capital of Kamptschatka, which is neither very striking nor agreeable. It exhibits merely a cluster of houses, with three steeples soaring above them, and is situated on the border of the Kamptschatka, in a bason formed by a circular chain of mountains, which are however at a pretty considerable distance. The houses, which consist of about a hundred and fifty, are built of wood, in a wretched taste, small, and almost buried under the snow, which the hurricanes drive among them. Of the two churches which make their appearance in this town, one is ornamented with two steeples, and the other belongs to the fort; both miserable structures! The fort is near the middle of the town, in an enclosure of a square form. Here are also the Magazines, the arsenal, and the guard-house. The house of the governor, Major Orleankoff, is near the fortress: it is larger, but not more elegant than the other houses.

* The contracting parties were a Pole in the Russian service, and the neice of the protapope, or chief priest. The major not only politely invited our author, but attended in the morning to conduct him to his house, that he might not lose any part of this interesting spectacle. The strictness of ceremonial, the extreme delicacy, formality, and civility did not promise much mirth or pleasantry: the repast, however, was extremely sumptuous, consisting of an infinite variety of soups and other delicacies, on which the company fed heartily. Roasted dishes, and pastry composed the second service. The fruits of the country, which had been boiled up and mixed with French brandy, formed a principal part of the beverage. Making a little free from this, the guests by degrees assumed an air of good humour, the potency of the fumes having occasioned the grossest mirth to be circulated round the table. To the feast a ball succeeded, which was accompanied with decent regularity: the company were gay, and Polish, as well as Russian Dances, were introduced. The festival ended with fire-works, which had been prepared by Major Orleankoff. Our author enjoyed the astonishment of the spectators, who were little accustomed to such exhibitions, and exclaimed in full chorus at the amazing splendour of each squib. He was equally struck with the regret they expressed at the shortness of its duration.

† The villages have generally the same name as the rivers on which they are placed, except those that are on the Kamptschatka.

‡ They travelled gently in the morning, and in the afternoon were suddenly molested by an outrageous tempest from the west and north-west. Being an open country, the whirlwinds became so violent that there was no possibility of proceeding

now to dig a hole in the snow, which was here about six feet deep; others procured wood, a fire was kindled, and the kettle put on it. A light repast, and a glass of brandy to each, exhilarated the company; and, as the night approached, measures were prudently taken to facilitate repose. Each individual prepared his own bed, and they were not ceremonious on the occasion. Having dug a hole in the snow, they covered it with the small branches of trees; then, wrapping themselves up in a kouklanki, with the hood over their heads they lay down very comfortably. The dogs were unharnessed, and tied to some adjacent trees.

The wind abating, the adventurers proceeded on their journey, before the appearance of daylight: they arrived at Ozernoi at ten in the morning, but their dogs being excessively fatigued, they were obliged to pass the day and night there, hoping the tempest would subside. The ostrog has its name from a neighbouring lake; the little river Ozernaia runs at the bottom of the village. The toyon's residence was the only isba they saw; but there were two yourts, and fifteen balagans. The next day before noon, they reached Ouké, and waited there in expectation of a serjeant of M. Kasloff's suite, had been ordered to visit them there. Ouk tains but one isba, twelve balagans, and two yourts. One of the yourts had been cleaned for M. Kasloff, and the party passed the night in it.

At Khaluli, an ostrog on the river of the same name, there were but two yourts, and twelve or thirteen balagans. Nothing worthy of remark, occurred here: The adventurers also passed an old village of the same name, which had been deserted on account of its disagreeable situation: Inaschkin consists of two yourts and six balagans, situated on a small river of the same name: the adventurers slept at that village, and passed the greater part of the following day there, under terrible apprehensions of a hurricane.

They next proceeded to Dranki, a small ostrog, which they quitted at break of day. In the afternoon they crossed a bay fifteen wersts wide, and upwards of twenty-five deep. Karagui was the next ostrog they arrived at, seated on an eminence and affording a view of the sea. It has three yourts, and twelve balagans.

The travellers being obliged to wait here for a stock of dried fish, intended for the nourishment of the dogs in the desert, which they are now to traverse, M. de Lessops takes this opportunity of transcribing many particulars which he had registered among his memorandums from time to time. They are not placed in the order they were written, but they must be supposed to have been written with rapidity *.

The dress of the children resembles that of the Koriacs, consisting only of one garment, formed of a single deer-skin, which sits close to every part of the body; so that the children appear to be entirely sewed up. An opening at the bottom, before and behind, is covered with a piece of skin, which may be fastened and lifted up at pleasure †.

These

proceeding. The snow, which they drew up into the air at every blast, created a thick fog, and their guides declared they could not be answerable for misleading them, for they knew not how they were proceeding. They could not prevail upon them to conduct them any further. They proposed to lead them to a neighbouring wood, where some shelter might probably be found; a step which was assented to without hesitation, after they had collected their sledges, lest they should be separated and lost. Having accomplished this business, they happily gained the wood, at about two in the afternoon.

* Speaking of the yourts, which he attempts first to describe, he says "We have no sooner descended those savage abodes, than we wish ourselves out again; the view and the smell are equally offensive: the interior part consists of one entire room about ten feet high. A bench, five feet high, and covered with various skins half worn out, extends all round it. This bench is only a foot from the ground, and commonly serves as a bed for a number of families." He then informs his readers that he has seen in one yourt more than twenty persons, mixed together, eating, drinking, sleeping, and obeying all the commands of nature without restraint. The fire-place is either in the middle, or against one of the sides. In the evening they rake the coals in a heap, and shut the entrance that the smoke may not evaporate, and diminish the heat; a wretched image of some saint is perceived in one corner of the apartment, shining with grease, and blackened with smoke: To such images the Kamptschadales prostrate themselves and address their prayers. The furniture consists of seats and vessels, fabricated from wood, or the bark of trees. Their culinary utensils, which are copper or iron, are disgustingly filthy: The remnants of their dried fish are scattered about the room, and the women and children are almost perpetually employed in broiling pieces of salmon-skin, which they swallow with apparent glee.

† Having been informed that two hordes of Koriacs were at no great distance, M. de Lessops sent a messenger to request them to sell him some of their animals; in consequence of which two rein-deer were brought to him alive the same day, which proved a seasonable supply to his people, who began to apprehend a scarcity of provision: but as these Koriac,

These animals are employed by the Koriacs, as the dogs are by the Kamptschadales.

The long expected provisions at length arrived, under the guidance of the serjeant who had been long expected. Our travellers had prepared for their departure, but an impetuous wind, accompanied with snow, detained them. Their supply of food was not considerable, and as their necessities were so urgent that they were obliged to have immediate recourse to it, expedition was required, lest their stock should be consumed before they passed the deserts *.

All the men and women of this place smoke and chew tobacco; and, by a strange kind of refinement, mix ashes with their tobacco to add to its strength. Snuff was presented to them, which they applied to the mouth instead of the nose. Their pipes resemble those of the Chinese, and are made of bone. When they make use of them, they swallow the smoke with seeming gratification, instead of emitting it from the mouth.

All the toyons of the different ostrogs we had visited in coming from Ozernai, escorted the travelling party as far as Karagni, which was to manifest their respect for M. Kasloff. The second day after their arrival, they took an affectionate leave of him, expressing their sorrow that they had not been able to afford him a better reception in the course of their journey. They addressed themselves in the same friendly terms to M. de Lessops, and earnestly entreated him to accept some presents from them. Refusal made them the more urgent, and to oblige them he was under the necessity of receiving their favours.

The travellers left Karagui at one in the morning on the 2d of March; the weather was tolerably calm; but they found themselves unable to cross a bay, which the tempest of the preceding evening had cleared of its ice; they were therefore obliged to go round it. On the approach of night, they erected their tents in the open country, and the sledges were ranged around them; the spaces between being covered with linen or skins, accommodated their guides with shelter and beds. When the kettle boiled they took tea, and then prepared for supper, the only certain meal they partook of every day. The corporal acted the part of a cook: the dishes provided were neither numerous nor delicate, but he was expeditious; and keen appetites were very indulgent. He usually prepared a kind of soup, consisting of a biscuit of black bread, mixed with rice and oatmeal. It was manufactured thus: he put a piece of beef, or rein-deer into boiling water, having first cut it into thin slices, and the article was ready for eating in an instant. The evening before their departure from Caragyy they had killed their second deer, and regaled themselves with its marrow; they also had its tongue boiled, and thought it extremely delicious.

They pursued their journey in the morning, but found it impossible to travel far; the wind blew with extreme violence; and the dogs suffered severely; some of them were so much exhausted that they died of fatigue upon the road, and others were unable to exert their strength for want of nourishment: they had only a fourth part of their usual allowance, and not a sufficient quantity re-

Koriacs spoke neither Russian nor Kamptschadale, they found it impossible to treat about the price, till an inhabitant of Karagui kindly undertook the office of interpreter. There are Koriacs of two denominations: those who are regularly entitled to that appellation have a fixed residence; the others are wanderers, and are called rein-deer Koriacs; their flocks, which are numerous, are maintained by conducting them to those cantons that abound with moss; and when they are exhausted to convey them to others. Thus they wander about incessantly, encamping under tents of skin, and existing on the produce of the deer.

* The storm abated, but another tempest arose, and continued till the evening. To divert their attention therefore, they wished to be entertained with the abilities of a celebrated female dancer, who was a Kamptschadale. Her exalted fame excited the curiosity of our travellers, and induced them to send for her, but she positively refused to dance. Prayers and entreaties were repeated in vain; no consideration could induce her to comply. A bumper or two of brandy, however, seemed to effect a change in her inclinations: at the same time a Kamptschadale began to dance before her, challenging her by his voice and gestures. Gradually her eyes sparkled, her countenance became convulsive, and she seemed completely agitated. She answered the shrill notes of the dancer in similar accents, beating time with her head, and assuming extraordinary postures: her movements became more rapid, and she appeared unable to contain herself; she darted from her seat, and defied her partner with the most extravagant cries and distortions: her limbs appeared disjointed, she tore her cloaths, and fixed her hands to her bosom, which she attempted to tear also. Her transports were accompanied with more extravagant postures, and she appeared no longer as a woman, but as a fury. In her frenzy she would have rushed into the fire, had not her husband industriously prevented it. When he perceived that her head was disordered, and that she staggered in all quarters, he took her in his arms, and placed her on a bench, where she fell, and remained an inanimate clod. This scene, however, instead of affording amusement, was found disgusting to our travellers.

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mained as a scanty supply for the last two days. In this extremity they sent a soldier to the ostrog of Kaminoi to procure succour, and to send the appointed escort to meet them; which was a guard of forty men, sent from Ingiga, on the first intelligence of the revolt of the Koriacs.

Being only fifteen wersts from Gavenki, where they expected a supply of fish for their dogs, they ventured to encourage them with a double portion, the better to enable them to convey our travellers thither. They pursued their journey at three o'clock in the morning, and arrived at Gavenki about ten, where they saw two isbas falling to ruins, and six ill constructed balagans. It was not astonishing to hear, that, not long before, upwards of twenty of the inhabitants voluntarily quitted their country in search of a better abode*.

There is neither spring nor river in the neighbourhood: a lake supplies the inhabitants with water. In winter they break the ice on this lake, and carry home large pieces of it, which they cause to be suspended in a trough of about five or six feet high: the heat is found sufficient to dissolve the ice, and when any of the family are thirsty, they have recourse to the trough †.

Famine had now so probable an appearance, that our travellers apprehended such a fate in this desert. Having no fish left for the dogs, they were obliged to feed them with their own provisions; but small was the share allotted to them, prudence dictating the most rigid œconomy to be observed. They were in want of water; the only little brook they could find was a mere mass of ice, and they could only quench their thirst with the snow: Want of wood was another misfortune; not a tree had they seen during the whole journey, and they could hardly procure a shrub. There was no possibility of their warming themselves; and the cold was extremely rigorous. From the slow pace they travelled, they were almost frozen. They were also obliged to stop frequently to unharness the dogs, that were successively expiring ‡.

On leaving Gavenki, the western coast presented itself to view, about two wersts from Poustereisk. Our travellers had crossed the whole of this part of Kamptschatka, which is at least two hundred wersts; and they had travelled more on foot than in their sledges. Their conductors could not make their dogs proceed, without harnessing themselves to assist them in drawing. They also frequently encouraged them, by holding up a handkerchief, folded up to resemble a fish. By such contrivances as these, they were able to pass the mountain leading to Poustereisk. From the obliging manner in which the women received them, they thought themselves perfectly safe, as soon as they set foot in the hamlet. Six of them came to meet them, exhibiting enthusiastic transports of joy, and skipping and singing like so many maniacs. The rest burst out in loud bursts of laughter, to express their satisfaction at the arrival of these travellers, which they said was unexpected ‖

To

* Soon after the arrival of the travellers at Gavenki, a dispute arose between their serjeant, and two peasants of the village, to whom he had applied for wood: they refused to give him any, and a violent quarrel ensued. The Kamptschadales drew their knives *, and attacked them, but they were immediately disarmed. When M. Kasloff was informed of this violence, he ordered the guilty to be punished; and he went out himself to hasten that punishment. One of the culprits was about eighteen years of age, and the other bordering on thirty: being stripped, and laid prostrate on the ground, two soldiers held their hands and feet, and four others gave them a copious distribution of lashes. The severity exercised by M. Kasloff on this occasion, was extremely necessary, as our travellers began to perceive in this village, some symptoms of the contagious turbulent disposition of the Koriacs.

† Our travellers remained at Gaveston about thirteen hours, when they set off in the night for Povtaresk. On the first day they had little reason to complain of the river; the next they were much harassed by snow, and the gale were so impetuous, that their conductors were blinded. To

* *The length of these knives is about three feet, they are worn in their girdle, and hang upon the thigh.*

add to their misfortunes, their Gavenki guide was old and short-sighted, and, though he had an incredible knowledge of these roads, he was continually misleading them. At the conclusion of the second day's journey, the dogs' provision was reduced to a single fish, which M. de Lessops divided among them. The want of food enfeebled them, and rendered them unable to proceed: some of them sunk under the blows of their conductors, others declined their duty, and many of them expired on the spot: only twenty-three now remained of the thirty-seven dogs that were harnessed on leaving Bolcheretsk, and these were reduced to extreme poverty. M. Kasloff's stud was also much reduced.

‡ M. de Lessop's feelings in this dilemma, are thus affectingly mentioned by himself—"I cannot (says he) describe what my feelings were in this situation. My mind still suffered more than my body. The inconveniences that were common to us, I patiently shared with my companions; their example, and my youth gave me courage to support them. But when I thought of my dispatches, my constancy forsook me. They were continually in my hands, and I never touched them without shuddering.

‖ The travellers entered Poustereisk on the 9th of March, at three in the afternoon. They visited all the reservoirs of fish,

To this strange sight succeeded the distressing spectacle of those hapless dogs that beset their yourt; their leanness was truly affecting, as they could hardly stand upon their legs. By their incessant cries, they seemed to appeal to the compassion of their masters, and almost to reproach their incapacity to relieve them. Many of them approached the aperture in the roof of the yourt to let out the smoke; and feeling the benefit of the heat, drew nearer still; and at last, from faintness or inability to support themselves, they fell into the fire before their eyes.

Under all these distressing circumstances, M. Kasloff afforded them some consolation, by communicating to them the last expedients he intended to adopt. Hearing that a whale had been driven on shore near Potkagornoi, he had dispatched a messenger to that village, to bring as much of the flesh and fat of it as he could get. This resource, however, being uncertain, M. Kasloff proposed that each of them should sacrifice the provision intended to be reserved for their dogs, to be given to serjeant Kabechoff, who had promised to go to Kaminoi. Situated as they were, a feeble ray of hope was a sufficient inducement for them to risk their all: especially as the poor soldier, whom they had dispatched to Kaminoi, had failed of procuring succour. They embraced the proposal of M. Kasloff, confiding in the integrity and abilities of this serjeant.

Having received instructions for conducting his journey, and taken with him the whole of their provisions, he was directed to take up the poor soldier in his way, and proceed to the execution of his commission; the particulars of which must be deferred till after some observations, concerning Poustaretsk have been communicated *.

In catching rein-deer, they pursue the following method: they enclose a certain extent of land with palisades, leaving several openings, where they spread their nets or snares. They afterwards endeavour to drive the deer into them; but, by attempting to save themselves, the deluded animals run through the openings, and are caught by the neck or their horns. Some few escape by tearing the nets or leaping the palisades, but the hunters are generally successful.

The women, exclusive of their domestic occupations, are employed in preparing, staining, and sewing the skins of animals. The sinews of the rein-deer, stripped very slender, serve them instead of thread: their needles, which have nothing singular, are brought from Okotsk, and their thimbles are always worn upon the fore-finger †.

M. Schasmaleff joined them on the 12th, which gave our travellers much pleasure, as they had entertained very unpleasant apprehensions on his account. He had left them about six weeks, and a month had elapsed since the time he had appointed for meeting them. He had not much provision left, but his dogs were in as wretched a state as theirs. They embraced the opportunity which now presented itself of fetching their equipage which they had left upon the road, concerning which they had received no intelligence.

Letters were brought them from Kaminoi, informing them that they had no succour to expect from that quarter: the detachment from Ingiga were unable to come near them: they had been so

fish, but had the misfortune to find them empty. All their researches in pursuit of them were fruitless. The dogs had been, in the mean time, unharnessed, preparatory to their being tied up in troops, as is usual. No sooner were they fastened to the posts, than they began to devour their strings and harnesses, and the majority of them instantly escaped into the country, wandering about, and consuming whatever their teeth could penetrate: Some died, and became the prey of the rest; they eagerly rushed upon the dead carcasses, and feasted with avidity; every limb, when seized upon by one hungry dog, was contested by a number of competitors, and if he was vanquished in the combat, he became, in turn, the object of a new combat.

* This is a small village seated on the declivity of a mountain, washed by a narrow gulf of the sea: two yourts, containing about fifteen persons, forms the whole of its population. The inhabitants pass the summer in fishing, and preparing stock for the winter. But the country does not appear to abound much in fish, if a judgment could be formed from what our traveller remarked: their aliment, at that time, consisted of the flesh and fat of the whale, the bark of trees, and the buds steeped in the oil of the whale, or in the fat of any other animal. They seemed, upon the whole, to fare very wretchedly.

+ The pipes, which they use in smoaking, will scarcely contain more than a pinch of tobacco, which they renew till they are completely satisfied. They constantly swallow the smoke, instead of blowing it out, and gradually become so intoxicated that they would fall into the fire, if precautions were not previously taken to prevent it. The fit lasts them about a quarter of an hour, during which their suffering is beyond conception: a cold sweat covers their bodies, the saliva distills from their lips, and their breathing is short and convulsive. When they have experienced all these symptoms, they congratulate themselves on having entered into the true spirit of smoaking.

long at Kaminoi, that they had not only consumed their own stock of provisions, but also the supply that had been destined for them.

This intelligence destroyed all their hopes; the despondence of M. Kasloff was so extreme, that he seemed insensible of his promotion, an account of which was conveyed to him by the same messenger. He was advanced from the government of Okotsk to that of Yakoutsk. A more extensive field was now open for exercising his talents in the art of government. But his thoughts were otherwise employed than in calculating the emoluments of his new appointment.

In this critical moment an idea suddenly occurred to M. de Lessops of separating himself from M. Kasloff; and yet, upon reflection, he saw every thing in it that was disobliging to him, and mortifying to himself; he therefore endeavoured to drive this strange idea from his mind, but in vain. He even disclosed the purport of his scheme to the governor, who instantly pronounced it a wild project, and opposed its being adopted. Our author answered his objections, alledging that by continuing together, they deprived each other of the ability of pursuing his respective journey. They could not set off together, as there were only twenty-seven days remaining; with that number one of them would be able to proceed, and his departure would relieve the other from the difficulty of maintaining so many famished steeds.

At this moment their express from Potgagornoi arrived, and brought them a large quantity of the flesh of the whale. Our author rejoiced at this fortunate circumstance, and renewed his argument; and M. Kasloff, instead of opposing him, applauded his zeal, and complied with his solicitations; the 18th of the month being fixed on for the day of his departure. Every thing flattered him with the hope of success, and no obstruction was to be apprehended from the Koriacs. Their friendship was established by presents of tobacco and snuffs, as well as other articles which M. de Lessops had purchased during his sea-voyage, with what had been left him by the Count de la Perouse. But particular care was taken to make them as drunk as possible, that they might report favourably of their reception. It was of the utmost importance to consult their taste, and to indulge them with complete intoxication, which would be considered as the very essence of politeness.

Our author requested the Koriacs to take charge of his two portmanteaus: at first they expressed some unwillingness, objecting to the distance, which was as far as Ingiga; but entreaties, enforced by the purse, induced them to take them into their sledges. Having adopted this method of getting his baggage properly conveyed, he had nothing to think of but his dispatches. To the last moment of his stay, M. Kasloff, had been employed in preparing his letters; with these he delivered a passport to M. de Lessops, which contained an order to all Russian officers, &c. to assist him with the means of proceeding on his journey with safety and expedition.

The 18th arrived, and M. de Lessops took leave of M. Kasloff. In his travels he passes over the particulars, but admits that it was equally affectionate and distressing. He departed from Poustaresk at eight in the morning, in an open sledge drawn by seven dogs, which he drove himself: the soldier, who escorted him, had eight harnessed to his sledge. They were preceded by a guide, chosen from the inhabitants*, whose sledge was drawn by a team of twelve, which contained the remainder of the author's effects, and the provisions. He was accompanied by M. Schamaleff, and the officers of his suite; but instead of travelling together to Ingiga, as had been agreed, they separated a few days after.

On leaving Poustaretsk, they descended the gulf, and in a few hours arrived at the mouth; after which they travelled upon the sea, but were greatly interrupted by piles of ice, that had the appearance of so many rocks: they were continually under the necessity of attempting to surmount them, frequently at the risk of being overturned. M. de Lessops many times narrowly escaped from being dangerously wounded: his musquet, which was fastened to a sledge, was bent like a bow, and many of his companions were severely bruised. In the evening they arrived at a hamlet, containing two wretched yourts, and three balagans. A perso , who lived in one of the yourts, fled at their approach †.

* While they remained at Poustaretsk, the governor dismissed their Kamptschadale guides. Some of them belonged to Bolcheretsk and were four hundred leagues from their home. These poor creatures, most of their dogs having died of fatigue and hunger, were obliged to return on foot.

† All the wandering Koriacs avoided them in the same manner, fearing they might be obliged to assist them.

A Cossac

A Cossac had been sent forward previous to their departure from Poustaretsk, by M. Schmaleff, with orders to remain at this hamlet till they should arrive, and endeavour to explore some repositories of fish. This precaution had the desired effect: when they arrived, the Cossac conducted them to a cave, which contained a plentiful stock, and our author purchased a considerable quantity. Early in the morning on the 19th, the party pursued their route; but the road was so terrible, that the sledges would soon have been shattered to pieces, if the company had not determined to proceed on foot. M. de Lessops was compelled to this alternative, to guard against the danger of being overturned; but he only avoided one misfortune to fall into another. Finding himself much fatigued, he resolved to re-ascend his sledge; and a sudden jolt ensued which turned it upon its side. He could only drag himself on as well as he was able: his legs bent under him, a profuse perspiration came on, and a burning thirst added to his weariness. Unfortunately he saw a little river; absolute necessity conducted his steps to it; he broke the ice, and impatiently put a piece of it into his mouth, but he soon repented it. His thirst indeed was relieved, but his excessive heat was exchanged for the opposite extreme; an universal chill seized all his limbs. The sharpness of the night co-operated with the aguish sensation, and he became so extremely weak, that he was unable to proceed a step further. He entreated his companions to halt, to which they complied, from pure civility to him.

With much difficulty a few little shrubs were collected, and a fire produced which barely answered the purpose of boiling some water in the kettle, to make a decoction of tea. After taking a few cups of that beverage, he retired to his tent, where he laid down on a small mattrass spread upon the snow, and covered himself with plenty of furs to revive perspiration; but in vain: he did not close his eyes during the night: a burning fever, with all its concomitants, attended him, and when he rose in the morning, he could not articulate a sound. Supposing that a longer continuance in this place would be of no benefit to him, he determined to conceal the malignity of his disease from M. Schmaleff.

He was the first to propose going on, but before he proceeded, his sufferings became insupportable. He was obliged to drive himself, and consequently to be in continual motion: sometimes the badness of the roads compelled him to run by the side of the sledge, and to call aloud to the dogs to encourage them to proceed. By efforts that tortured his lungs, and exhausted his strength, he at last succeeded: but this painful exercise proved salutary to him; and gradually promoted perspiration; in the evening his breath improved, and the fever took its leave of him.

His depression of spirit was succeeded by the most lively joy: a supply of unexpected succour was conveyed by serjeant Kabechoff for him, and he was on the point of receiving a hundred and fifty dogs, well fed and trained. What a sudden and happy change in such a situation! The soldier who conducted these animals offered our author part of his provisions, but he refused them, not being absolutely in want, and the soldier had no profusion.

In pursuing their route, the travellers perceived a small river, bordered with some shrubs, and beyond it a chain of steep mountains; over which they were to pass before they could arrive at another river, called Talofka. They left the road at a distance from Kaminoi, to traverse an extensive heath, and afterwards a considerable lake. Crossing the river Pengina, almost at its mouth, they were astonished at the vast heaps of ice that covered it. They were under the necessity of hoisting their dogs, and even their sledges from heap to heap; a manœuvre which consumed more time than can easily be conceived.

They reached Kaminoi, however, on the 24th, before noon; and were received by the inhabitants with the utmost civility. In the absence of Eitel, another prince called Eila had the command; he conferred on them every mark of respect, and placed a centinel at their door to refuse admittance to any suspected person.

This was not in consequence of the report that had been spread of the rebellion of the Koriacs, which was evidently false: their behaviour to our travellers, and the reception they had prepared for the governor, plainly announced their present disposition. Nor can it be presumed that the arrival of the soldiers sent from Ingiga could have this effect; their wretched condition was ill calculated to awe men like the Koriacs, who know not what it is to be intimidated. The sight indeed of the cannon, and of the Cossacs in arms, who had entered the village without any hostile declarations,

rations, created some alarm. They called upon their leader to mention, whether he was come to strike a blow at their liberty, and extirpate them; adding, that if such were the intentions of the Russians, they would all die rather than submit. The officer politely assured them, that he was sent to meet M. Kasloff, which was an honour his rank demanded.

This explanation removed all their suspicions; and the Koriacs and Russians lived together on the most amicable terms; but the apprehensions of a famine occasioned such guests as the soldiers to be considered burthensome.

The ostrog of Kaminoi is situated on an eminence, at the mouth of Pengina, containing a number of balagans, and twelve very large yourts. These habitations occupy a considerable space of ground; and the palisades, which surround them, are fortified with bows and arrows, spears, and musquets. Thus wretchedly defended, the Koriacs suppose themselves impregnable. Here they repel the attacks of their enemies, and particularly the Tchoukchis, the most formidable of their foes. The population of Kaminoi is estimated at three hundred, including men, women, and children. Before he left the village, M. de Lessops saw ten or twelve baidars, or boats, of different sizes: many of them were well constructed, and some would commodiously hold about twenty five persons *.

He left Kaminoi at eight in the morning of the 26th, the weather being tolerably calm. At the distance of fifteen wersts, he traversed the mountains he had seen before, and crossed a river called *Chestokova* †. Gusts of wind came with great violence: the islands of snow so obstructed the air, that day-light could hardly be distinguished. In the course of this terrible hurricane he was eager to proceed, but the guides refused even to make an attempt: thus opposed, he sullenly retired to his tent; but was agreeably consoled by the arrival of seven *Tchoukchis*, in sledges drawn by reindeer. He received them under his tent, and they thankfully accepted his invitation to continue there till the storm subsided. Among these Tchoukchis was the chief called *Tumme*. He addressed himself to our author to express his gratitude for the reception he enjoyed from his indulgence, and declared that he desired nothing so ardently as his friendship and acquaintance.

They next adverted to general subjects, and particularly concerning the advantages of their respective countries. Not being able to conceive in what part of the world, M. de Lessops was born, they asked him if he did not come from the other side of the great river. He readily perceived that he was incapable of instructing them in this subject, and that they did not understand a word of a geographical dissertation which he addressed to them; they had had no accurate idea either of number or extension: to give them some conception of the subject, he took a sheet of paper, in which he drew a sort of geographical chart, wherein he marked the situation and distances of Russia and France, with respect to their country.

He was not perfectly understood; but he was gratified by the eagerness and attention with which they listened to him. He was astonished at the solidity of their understanding, and the anxiety they felt for the acquisition of knowledge. Superior in these particulars to the Koriacs, they seem to reflect more on what they say, hear, and see than they are accustomed to do: these two people have nearly the same idiom; but the Tchoukchis have a method of prolonging the final syllables of words; and their pronunciation is slower and sweeter than that of the Koriacs.

The attention with which M. de Lessops examined their dress, created a wish in them of seeing the French habit ‡, he therefore ordered his uniform to be taken out of his portmanteau; at the sight of which they were particularly delighted: Every one was desirous of touching it, every one was enraptured with its singularity and beauty.

* M. Schamaleff, perceiving that he could not accompany our author from this village, his presence and assistance being required towards the better accommodation of the detachment of soldiers, he resolved nevertheless to let him depart without him. He made him a present, however, of a confidential soldier, named *Ivgor-Golikoff* *; saying, "In this man I make you a valuable present;" and it afterwards appeared that he was not deceived. This generosity increased the reluctance he felt on leaving so good and gallant an officer.

† A subaltern officer who had been killed there, at the head of a detachment sent to keep the revolted Koriacs in awe.

‡ He was then in a Kamptschadale dress.

* *His escort thus consisted of four men; this Golikoff, the soldier who accompanied him from Poustaretsk, and two others taken from the detachment as his guides; he thought it necessary, however, to add a Koriac guide, supposing he must be better acquainted with the road.*

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His buttons, marked with the arms of France, were particularly inspected, and admired: after which they eagerly reached out their hands, and begged he would divide them among the petitioners. He consented, on their promise to preserve them, in order to shew them to all strangers, hoping that, among the rest, a Frenchman might arrive upon their coast.

After regaling them as well as he could with tobacco, they parted upon terms of the greatest amity. On leaving our author, the Tchoukchis said, he would probably soon meet their equipages and their wives, whom they had left behind that they might not be retarded in their progress. The weather becoming calm soon after the departure of these Tchoukchis, M. de Lessops pursued his journey.

The next day he perceived, by the side of a wood, a troop of rein-deer browsing on the top of a mountain. Examining them more attentively, he saw some men among them who appeared to be guarding them. Curiosity prevailing over fear, he advanced to learn the nature of the business. While he was surveying the men with the rein-deer, he was approached by two women walking about: the eldest accosted him in the Russian language, and informed him that he was within two hundred yards of the camp of the Tchoukchis, the view of which was intercepted by the wood: desiring these two women to conduct him thither, he submitted himself to their guidance. As they went on, he asked them of what country they were; when one of them informed him that she was a Russian, and had been induced to visit this country from a sentiment of maternal affection. She had braved dangers and fatigues to recover her daughter, who had been detained by the Tchoukchis as a hostage. The other woman also related an interesting story respecting herself; but as such details are inconsistent with our plan of brevity, they cannot be recited at large.

The histories of these women had so entirely engrossed his attention, that our author arrived at the camp before he perceived it. The joy of the people at seeing him was extreme, and they instantly surrounded him. They severally addressed him, to pass the night with them, and when he answered in the affirmative, they saluted him with transports and huzzas. Ordering his tent to be erected at the extremity of the camp, he invited the chiefs to visit him, and they eagerly obeyed his obliging summons. After the first compliments were over, they entered into general conversation, and talked in a summary way, of the respective manners and customs of their countries *.

The camp of these Tchoukchis was fixed upon the margin of a river, and behind the wood, as already mentioned. It consisted of about a dozen tents, ranged along the bank. Bundles of spears and arrows are fixed to guard the entrance of each: the tents are extremely hot, their covering being made of deer-skin, which the air cannot penetrate, and a stove is placed in the centre of each. The bed consists of small branches of trees, spread on the snow, like litter, and covered with deer-skins. Here a whole family will lie down and sleep together, regardless of sex or age: their filthiness surpasses imagination; they are not disgusted at seeing their food close to the most offensive objects, for words cannot describe their excess of indolence.

Among these Tchoukchis, who did not exceed forty in number, there were about sixteen women †, and nearly as many children. Every person of superior rank has valets in his service, to undertake the management of the deer, and guard them in the night against the intrusion of wolves.

The dress of the women is remarkable. It consists of a deer-skin fastened round the neck, where it has an opening both before and behind. When they travel, they have a *kouklanki* over their common dress, and their feet are covered with boots made of the legs of rein-deer. Their hair is black, sometimes turned up in tufts behind, but more frequently separated on the forehead, and hanging in long braids on each side: their ears and their neck are decorated with glass beads of different colours: and, when they find themselves cold, the hood of their pargue forms a suitable covering.

* M. de Lessops distributed tobacco among the most distinguished of these Tchoukchis, and afterwards entertained them with tea and rye biscuits. Their chief named *Chegouiaga*, of equal rank and power with Tummé, two of his relations, and two women who undertook to be interpreters, supped with him. The necessity of taking rest, at length, induced them to separate.

† Polygamy is tolerated among these people: and they are so singularly polite as to offer their wives or daughters to their guests. To refuse this offer would be an insult.

Their countenance is far from pleasing; their features are coarse though the nose is not flat, nor their eyes sunk in, like the Kamptschadales. In these particulars they resemble them less than the Koriac women: they are also taller, but not slender, and have a sluggish appearance; but they perform all laborious and domestic offices. The features of the men are more regular, and less Asiatic: Their complexion, like that of the women, is very tawny, and their dress, manners, and customs are similar to those of the wandering Koriacs. These Tchoukchis go annually to Ingiga: they leave their country early in autumn, arrive at this settlement in March, transact their business, and return; but they seldom reach their home till about the end of June. The merchandize taken with them is chiefly of sable and fox-skin parkes, and morse-teeth, for which they receive in exchange tobacco, kettles, lances, musquets, knives, and other instruments *

Not choosing to prolong their stay, our author took leave of these Tchoukchis, and received from them the most affectionate caresses; which he gratefully returned, as he could not too highly extol the reception of this hospitable people. He set off early in the morning, and having travelled about fifteen wersts, he passed two balagans and a yourt, and soon after arrived at Pareine. This ostrog is smaller than Kaminoi, though perhaps more populous: The first person he beheld in this place, was a woman of a mixed breed, with melancholy pourtrayed in her countenance; on enquiring the cause of her distress, she uttered a loud shriek, and tears fell abundantly from her eyes †.

While M. de Lessops was commiserating the woman's distresses, the inhabitants of Pareine assembled about him: Youltitka, their chief, approached to invite him to pass the night in the village, but being strongly prejudiced against him, as well from his character as his perfidious countenance, he intimated to him that he had no inclination to stop. On his refusal, the chief mentioned the impossibility of procuring dogs and provisions for him till the next morning. Our author construed his behaviour to signify some fatal intention, and resolved within himself that no consideration should induce him to stay. Youltitka alledged some new obstacle, and with a sarcastic smile, seemed to defy him to proceed.

Two hundred men, at least, now tumultuously pressed about M. de Lessops, to inspire him with terror, or to observe his embarrassment. In this perilous conjuncture he addressed them in the Russian language, hoping some among them might understand him, who might have less perfidy than their chief. His harangue was short but vehement; and after mentioning his unremitted endeavours to merit their kindness by his behaviour, and thanking them for the favours he had already received in the course of his journey, he added, that, "Except in the present instance, I have never had occasion to demand the succours of which I stood in need: far from waiting till I had produced my orders, they had shewed the utmost readiness to anticipate my wishes, before I could make them known ‡."

With a view of atoning for his improper behaviour, he invited our author to wait in his yourt, till the necessary preparations were made

* Like all the northern people, they have a strong propensity to drunkenness: their fondness for brandy is so extreme, that when any one permits them to taste of it, they must repeat their kindness till they are perfectly intoxicated or insults and violence would ensue. They smoke as much as the Koriacs, and use pipes of a similar construction.

† After a momentary pause, she informed M. de Lessops that she had left Ingiga, with her husband, her son, and some friends, to visit some relations at Pareine. Overtaken by a most terrible hurricane, they had unfortunately strayed from the road, and were totally separated from each other. The father and son were in the same sledge, and after wandering a long time, in pursuit of shelter, were at length completely lost. After two days search, their bodies were found buried in the snow, dead and frozen. More successful than her husband, this woman had found a shelter on the margin of a river, fifteen wersts from Pareine, where she and her companions had arrived, almost perishing with grief and fatigue. The tempest, she said, was so terrible that neither the heavens nor the earth could be perceived: the snow, frozen in the air, grew thicker as it fell, and seemed a shower of icicles. To complete the catastrophe, she grievously lamented her inability of returning to her native country, and again burst into a flood of tears. Our author having said every thing to console her that compassion suggested to him, quitted her with regret, as he had nothing to afford her any relief but useless pity.

‡ At the mention of the word *orders*, he perceived they cast a look of astonishment at each other; and being satisfied that he had been favourably attended to, he assumed more warmth and resolution. Then, taking his passport from his pocket, and viewing Youltitka with an air of displeasure he presented it to him, declaring it was his intention to depart in the space of two hours. The chief was disconcerted by this abrupt conclusion: Convinced that he was now compelled to comply with our author's wishes, or render himself criminal, by disobeying the mandate of the governor, he ordered the quantity of fish, which M. de Lessops wanted, immediately to be collected for him.

for

for his departure. He also invited them to dine at his table; to this he also consented; but shuddered at his imprudence, when he was conducted forty feet under ground to his yourt; yet as he was well armed, he thought he should be able to defend himself. Youltitka *, suspecting our author was not very well satisfied with his situation, endeavoured to excite his confidence, swearing that he had the highest esteem for him, and that he was in perfect safety; but he knew the chief too well to place any faith in his asseverations.

Though a tragic scene was doubtless intended to have been exhibited, this repast was attended with apparent convivial mirth: The dinner being ended, our author sent one of his soldiers to order the dogs to be harnessed; and, the provisions being also ready, he was prepared, in the course of ten minutes, to take leave of his Koriacs. Though they appeared to be satisfied with him, he knew not that they were really so: and was happy to escape from them. It was two o'clock in the afternoon, but conceiving it was incumbent on him to make up for the delay he had experienced, he did not halt till he was fifteen wersts from Pareiné. That day, and the next, he crossed a variety of rivers, though nothing worth reciting occurred.

His principal food had long consisted of reindeer; delicious as it was, it was always cloying; but the most alarming circumstance was, that our traveller's stock began to be almost exhausted: they fed on it but once a-day, their other meals consisting principally of dried fish. Fortunately our author had this day the good fortune to shoot a brace of partridges, which varied the uniformity of his daily food. The day was beautiful, and the sky prognosticated colder weather, which was devoutly to be wished, as the snow was so soft that the dogs sunk up to their bellies. Before he retired to his tent, our author perceived some ill-boding clouds, and communicated his conjectures to his guides: they considered their own knowledge on such a subject to be infinitely superior to his, and positively asserted that there was not the least reason to apprehend foul weather †.

Our travellers had proceeded but a few wersts, when they perceived, at a distance, a company of five Koriac sledges, drawn by rein-deer. The dogs, allured by the scent of these animals, advanced towards them with ardour: the Koriacs seemed to avoid them. It was at length discovered that the company they had seen were wandering Koriacs, returning to their families from Ingiga, where they had been to see their friends, and dispose of their deer-skins.

While our author waited the return of the soldier, who had been sent to gather intelligence respecting the company of strangers, he observed some clouds pass rapidly over their heads, which confirmed him in the idea that they were menaced by an approaching tempest. His confidential soldier, Golikoff, had defended the contrary opinion, but he was now convinced that this prediction would be verified; he said he had even mentioned M. de Lessops to the Koriacs, as a prophet, upon this occasion, and he should be sorry that he should be mistaken in the very first instance. This simple avowal diverted him, especially as his conductors were witnesses to it; and he, in return, intended to amuse himself with their simplicity.

To conduct this business with the greater certainty, he intended to have recourse to his compass, which would be an ample guide in the midst of the whirlwinds. He asked one of the most intelligent of his conductors to point out to him in what direction Ingiga lay, with many other questions relative to the task he had undertaken, and received very satisfactory replies. Having taken these precautions, he informed his people that he intended to proceed, and was determined not to stop, on any consideration. If they should at any time, suppose he had lost his way, they need only to mention it to him, and he would set them right. They started at each other with an air of astonishment, not caring to say, in absolute terms, that he was clearly out of his senses. The most intrepid of them, however, ventured to declare that it was impossible he could guide them, without the greatest danger of losing them; and he was certainly in jest. Without making any

* A more disagreeable countenance than that of Youltitka can hardly be imagined. Large and squat, his whole face seamed with the small-pox, and mutilated with several scars: a sullen countenance, black hair, and enormous lowering eye-brows, under which there was but one eye, and that sunk in his head; the other he had lost by accident.

† In the morning, by way of jeer, the guides again questioned M. de Lessops, respecting the weather. He persevered, however, in his original opinion, and requested them to wait till the evening before they dogmatically persisted in their obstinacy.

reply

reply, he ordered every one to his sledge, threatening punishment to those who should dare to disobey him, and instantly gave the signal to depart *.

Finding themselves so near Ingiga, they were no longer desirous of stopping; they even importuned our author to gain the river, and proceed instantly to the town. He complied, and they coasted along the bank till they arrived opposite to Ingiga, where they crossed the river before they could approach its walls. Answering the necessary interrogatories, as in all fortified places, they were admitted through the gates; when Major Gaguen, having heard of our author's approach, civilly received him, and offered his house for his accommodation.

The town is very large and populous, situated on a river of the same name, defended by a square inclosure of palisades, and wooden bastions, erected on piles. These bastions are provided with cannon, and contain a quantity of warlike stores. They are constantly guarded by centinels, as are also the three gates of the town, of which only one is kept open. The governor's house is situated in a square, and has a strong guard. The houses are of wood, and low, but very uniform. The church is a wretched edifice, and almost in ruins; a new one is under contemplation. The population is about five or six hundred inhabitants, who are either merchants, or engaged in the service of government. The commerce of Ingiga consists of furs, and particularly the skin of rein-deer.

In mentioning the customs of the Koriacs, M. de Lessops informs us that his chief source of information was a Koriac, with whom he became acquainted at Kaminoi: the facility with which he expressed himself in the Russian language, and his rectitude of mind, commanded his esteem; he also understood that he was a Koriac prince, called *Oumiavin*, and brother to a chief of the wandering Koriacs. During our author's stay at Kaminoi, his conversation was a source of instruction and amusement to him.

In many respects there is a strong resemblance between the fixed, and the wandering Koriacs: it is therefore surprising that there should be so little cordiality among them, as to occasion them to be considered as two different people; their country, however, is the same, and comprehends a vast extent. It was formerly extremely populous, till the number of inhabitants was considerably diminished by the ravages of the small-pox: their contests with their neighbours, and with the Russians have also contributed to reduce its population. The number of fixed Koriacs, even at this time, hardly exceeds nine hundred; and though it would be difficult to calculate that of the wandering Koriacs, they are not supposed to exceed that amount †.

A ferocious spirit is the consequence of such a state of war: attacking and defending creates

* At half after eight they had advanced about fifteen wersts, when the horizon was almost covered with dark clouds: the tempest unfolded itself, and the wind raised the snow in eddies; terror and confusion reigned among his companions, and they knew not what they were about. The violence of the hurricane deranged many of their sledges, and the conductors entreated our author to halt. He reminded them of his promise, and seemed determined to proceed. Then ordering the sledges to keep as close together as possible, he took his compass from under his fur cloak, that he might have it continually before his eyes, and began his task of directing the caravan. They travelled thus during the remainder of the day, in the midst of solemn darkness, not being able to see the soldier in the sledge, and hardly his foremost dogs.

Amidst the complaints and remonstrances of his people who requested him to stop, he strove to pacify them, and at a quarter before nine, a dark veil was visible before them, which gradually became blacker and more extensive. The next moment they perceived the trees, and exclaimed in raptures, "we are safe!"—It was indeed the forest of Ingiga: to be certain of which he sent them a little forward to take a survey, and they speedily returned, transported with joy, to inform him that they were close to the river. They admired his miraculous skill in predicting bad weather, when appearances manifested the reverse, and afterwards preserving them among all the horrors of the tempest: they could not recover themselves from their astonishment. It was in vain that he exhibited his compass, and endeavoured to explain to them his manner of deriving from it all his knowledge: They replied, that such a conjuring book was unintelligible except to persons like himself, skilled in the art of magic.

† The manners of the former, which are far from being estimable, announce duplicity, distrust, and avarice. They have the vices of all the northern nations of Asia, without the virtue: they are strangers to generosity, mercy, or benevolence: nothing can excite them to perform a meritorious action but the absolute certainty of a reward. From this perfidious and savage disposition, no durable connections could ever be formed with their neighbours: So unsociable a spirit, naturally created an abhorrence of all foreign dominion. Hence originated their insurrections against the Russians, their atrocious robberies, and their daily incursions on the people who surround them.

inflexible courage, which pants for perpetual combats and glories in contempt of life. Superstition gives a zest to this ardent thirst of blood, by imposing a new law enforcing them to conquer or die. Neither the bravery, nor the number of their adversaries can in the least intimidate them: in these situations they swear to *destroy the sun*. This terrible oath is discharged by murdering their *wives and children*, and burning their possessions. The vanquished never seek their safety in flight; honour forbids it; and not a Koriac will survive the slaughter of his countrymen.

The vicinity of the Russian settlements has produced no civilization among the resident Koriacs. Their only aim, in their intercourse with the Russians, is to acquire wealth or plunder. Insensible of the advantages of polished life, they consider their own manners and customs as absolutely perfect. Their regular employments are hunting and fishing, but they cannot always exercise those employments: at other times they practice the less difficult tasks of sleeping, smoking, and procuring intoxication. Enemies to industry, like the Kamptschadales, they live upon fish, and the fat of the whale or sea-wolf. The whale is usually eaten raw; the other is dressed like their fish, except the sinews, the marrow, the brain, and perhaps a slice of the flesh, which they devour raw with the utmost avidity. Reindeer is thought delicious among them: vegetables compose a part of their food, and they make a refreshing beverage of various sorts of berries*.

The extravagant price of brandy, and the difficulty of procuring it, has led them to adopt a potent drink extracted from a red mushroom, known in Russia as a strong poison, by the name of moukkamorr †. It is not from absolute sensuality, nor for the enjoyment they receive in drinking the liquor: they merely seek a state of oblivion, stupefaction, or a cessation of existence.

The features of the greater part of the Koriacs are not so Asiatic, but they might be taken for Europeans, did not their low stature, aukward form, and the colour of their skin proclaim the contrary. The other Koriacs exhibit the same outlines as the Kamptschadales: very few of the women, in particular, are without flat noses, sunk eyes, and prominent cheeks. The men are almost beardless, and have short hair. The hair of the women is neglected, and generally flows upon their shoulders.

Among the absurd customs adopted by the Koriacs, is the probation to which a young man subjects himself in order to get married. Having fixed his choice, he waits on the relations of his mistress, and becomes the *drudge* or slave of the family. The young lady is enveloped in a multiplicity of garments, which so completely conceal her, that the face itself is hardly visible: She is not permitted to be alone a single moment; her mother and several old matrons accompanying her wherever she goes. The lover's aim is to touch the naked body of the lady by any means he can devise: during which time he executes with zeal and submission, all the functions that the relations impose on him. After experiencing a variety of tribulations, vexations, and disappointments, and perhaps after the expiration of two or three years, he obtains his end. Elate with his victory, he communicates his success to the relations; the witnesses are summoned, and her hand is bestowed upon the conqueror; after this long preliminary step, he is admitted without restraint to his elected wife, free from all her cumbersome attire. The second stage of courtship is extremely short; the damsel, in the presence of her family, pronounces her consent, and nothing more is requisite to entitle him to all the claims of a husband. A nuptial feast is provided for the relations, and a general intoxication is frequently the consequence. Though a plurality of wives is not allowed among the Koriacs, M. de Lessops has "seen instances of its being practiced without scruple ‡."

The Koriacs acknowledge a supreme being, the creator of all things, who inhabits the sun, and

* It is used in Russian houses to destroy insects.

† The rivers near this ostrog are so small as to be frozen up as soon as the cold sets in, and, for upwards of half the year, the inhabitants can only drink melted snow or ice.

‡ On the death of a Koriac, his relations and friends assemble to pay him their last visit of respect: they erect a funeral pile, on which they place a small portion of the wealth of the deceased, and a stock of provisions, brandy, and whatever he may be supposed to require for so long a journey, and to prevent his starving in the other world. If the deceased be a wandering Koriac, his deer conduct him to the pile; if a resident Koriac, his dogs convey him thither, or his relations. The body is exhibited in its best attire, lying in a kind of coffin. There it receives the last best wishes of the attendants, who, with torches in their hands, deem it an honour speedily to reduce their friend to ashes. The funeral pomp terminates in a scene of intemperance, where the fumes of their tobacco and strong liquor obliterate the

and whose burning orb they consider as the throne or palace of the lord of nature *. They neither fear nor worship him; neither do they address any prayer to him. Goodness, they say, is his essence; all the good that exists in the world proceeds from him; and it is impossible that he should do an injury. The principle of evil they consider as a malignant spirit, who divides with the immaculate being the empire of nature. Their power is equal. One is intent on procuring happiness to mankind, the other endeavours to render them unhappy. Diseases, famine, tempests, calamities of all kinds, are the instruments of his vengeance. To pacify his wrath, they sacrifice their personal interest, and have recourse to devotion: the terror of this menacing deity fills every heart, and draws forth expiatory sacrifices. They offer to him various young animals, as rein-deer, dogs, &c. the first fruits of their hunting and fishing, and whatever they possess that is most valuable. There is no temple set apart for his votaries: this fantastic God is equally worshipped in all places, who conceive that they render him propitious by piously getting drunk in their yourt: for drunkenness is a religious practice with these people, and the basis of all their solemnities.

The idiom of the Koriacs is foreign from that of the Kamptschadales; the pronunciation is slower and more shrill, but it is free from those hissings, which are as difficult to be uttered as to be written.

M. de Lessops was anxious to quit Ingiga, but his dogs were fatigued, and there were but few to be procured in the town; and those few, not in the best condition: he therefore proposed to take rein-deer instead of dogs, hoping to travel much quicker by that mode of conveyance; he naturally expected greater risks, more fatigue, and less repose than he had before experienced; but he was particularly desirous of trying this fashion of conveyance, to enable him to pass a decisive opinion on the speed of these animals.

Every difficulty and impediment being removed, his departure was fixed for the 5th of April. M. Gaguen caused every preparation to be made for that important business: a quantity of small wheaten loaves, were made under his inspection, and a necessary supply of biscuit. A great variety of food, intended for his own consumption, was, contrary to his remonstrances, added to our author's baggage. Many other presents were presented to him in so fascinating and friendly a manner, that he had not the resolution to refuse them: his kindnesses were indeed so numerous to our author, that he was unable to mention half of them; and to his care he was principally indebted for the re-establishment of his repose and health.

Though prepared to depart on the 5th of April, none of his conductors were to be found: the next day a new obstacle arose: it was Sunday, and therefore an improper day for travelling; this objection was the effect of superstition, rather than of devotion: It was not the sanctity of the day that operated upon them, but the idea that some misfortune would be the consequence. After a variety of ineffectual entreaties to prevail on them to set out, to no purpose, our author was obliged to stay and dine with M. Gaguen, who politely congratulated himself on the delay. Perceiving, however, that M. de Lessops was really desirous of starting, he proposed to cure the conscientious people of their imaginary fears: he defied him, and he accepted the challenge. He ordered brandy to be profusely dealt out to all our author's attendants, Russians as well as Koriacs. Their heads became speedily warmed, and in the full flow of their spirits, they no longer regarded the pretended danger: every one was alert in harnessing the deer, and the sledges were ready for travelling in an instant †.

Our author walked out of the town, escorted by

the remembrance of the solemn scene. Their grief indeed is so transient upon these occasions, even for the loss of persons most dear to them, that it is an evident proof of their indifference about life, the brevity of which neither astonishes nor afflicts them. After a few months widowhood the women are permitted to marry again.

* The also believe in inferior deities: some of whom they consider as household Gods, the guardians of their rustic habitations. These idols, rudely carved and blackened with smoke, are hung up conspicuously in their yourts, dressed like the Koriacs, and adorned with bells, rings, and other iron and copper trinkets. The other inferior deities they consider as inhabiting mountains, woods, rivers, &c. M. de Lessops frequently saw the remains of dogs and rein-deer, suspended on stakes, and testifying the devotion of the sacrificers.

† A pleasant scene occurred during this interval: Oumiavin, merely out of compliment to M. de Lessops, became completely inebriated; to shew the height of his respect for that gentleman, he practiced many absurdities, which he called taking leave. He went out, and instantly returned, officially attempting to assist in every thing. The sledge being

by most of the inhabitants, who delighted in doing honour to the only Frenchman that had ever visited them. M. Gaguen, and the officers of the garrison, conducted him to the gates, where, having repeated his thanks for their politeness, they separated.

Of the four soldiers who attended our author when he left Kaminoi, only Golikoff and Nedarezoff remained with him: the others were left at Ingiga, which was the place of their residence. But, on the recommendation of M. Gaguen, he accepted the services of a young merchant, who desired to accompany him to Okotsk.

Fearing some fatal accident might happen, if M. de Lessops was permitted to drive his own sledge, remonstrances and petitions were addressed to him, not to presume to engage in so dengerous an undertaking; or, at least, they enjoined him not to attempt the experiment the first day. When he came to his vehicle, he saw his guide already seated in front, and took his place without particularly observing him; but, on looking round, he saw it was a Koriac prince, named *Eviava*. He eagerly expressed his joy in having the honour to conduct him, and then assumed his situation.

They travelled very slowly till the evening; but M. de Lessops felt a great inconvenience in not having an interpreter, to enable him to enjoy the conversation of the princely guide. They stopped at seven o'clock. It was thought necessary to gain a mountain, well known to our Koriacs, in our first stage; the convenience of a traveller is not considered in the choice of a resting place; that of the rein-deer only is consulted, and a spot abounding with moss is constantly preferred. When half way up the mountain, the steeds were unharnessed, and no other attention paid to them than tying them with leathern thongs. The animals instantly scraped away the snow, under which they knew they should be able to find their food. At a short distance the travellers made a fire, a frugal supper ensued; the Koriac prince being permitted to mess with our author, he appeared to be highly flattered by that honour. M. de Lessops was then permitted to repose about two hours in the snow, and when that time was expired, he was ready to proceed on the journey.

The Koriacs are accustomed to travel, four, five, or six days incessantly, almost without repose. The rein-deer travel day and night, being unharnessed every two or three hours, and allowed an hour for feeding, after which they go on with equal ardour; and they persevere in the same method till the conclusion of the journey. De Lessops might therefore consider himself as fortunate, when night arrived, to be indulged with two hours uninterrupted sleep; but this favour could afterwards be only conditionally granted, for he was generally obliged to submit to the practice of his inflexible conductors *.

On the left of the road, he saw Karbanda, a small village on the sea coast, ninety wersts from Ingiga. Three wersts farther on, he saw two yourts and six balagans, which are only inhabited

being ready, he pretended to lift it, that he might form a judgment of its weight; but, unable to keep himself from staggering, the good Koriac fell, and in falling broke the point of M. de Lessop's sabre. The poignancy of his grief at the sight of this accident was astonishing: he threw himself at the feet of that gentleman, which he embraced and bathed with his tears, conjuring him not to depart 'till he had forgiven him. Our author endeavoured to raise him, and assured him of his most cordial friendship: but he persisted in his posture, and his eyes continued deluged with tears: it was half an hour, at least, before he appeared to be pacified.

* Before our author remounted his car, Eviava told him he was under the necessity of rendering their vehicles less ponderous, the continual weight of two persons exceeding the ability of their steeds to draw. He wished him to make the experiment of being his own charioteer, and take one of the empty sledges, with which he was furnished as a resource in case of accident. This proposal was so consonant to his wishes, that he instantly accepted it, seized the reins, and commenced his new apprenticeship. He found the task extremely arduous: from inattention or inexperience, his legs became entangled, and the violence of his fall induced him to relinquish his hold of the reins, that he might apply his hand to it. The deer, finding no longer the same restraint, advanced more rapidly, and became more irritated in proportion to his efforts to get free. Dragged along in this alarming manner, with his head sweeping the snow, and frequently striking against the skate of the sledge, his sufferings were inconceivable. He was no longer capable of crying out, and gave himself up as lost; when, by a motion purely mechanical, he extended his left hand exactly on the reins that floated by accident. A sudden jolt of the sledge suddenly obliged him to draw back his hand, and this involuntary check instantly stopped his deer.

A swoon succeeded, but his senses returned in a few minutes and he recovered his strength: He sustained no other injury than a contusion on his legs, and a head-ach, which were attended with no material consequences. Rejoicing at his narrow escape from danger, he again ascended his sledge, and placidly pursued his journey.

habited in summer. Proceeding through a small wood, watered by the Noyakhoua, he came to a wretched hamlet, consisting of a single yourt, and three or four balagans, inhabited by ten or twelve Koriacs, who civilly produced him shelter. The following day afforded nothing interesting; but in the evening, Eviava, who knew not perfectly the yourt of Oumiavin's brother, proposed to him to ascend a mountain to the left, hoping to find his countryman to assist them. More than an hour was consumed, when no trace of a habitation could be perceived. Observing that our author was weary, and little disposed to go any farther, Eviava seemed displeased; M. de Lessops desired he would make the search without him, and he would repose himself on the spot they then occupied till his return. In about three hours he came back exulting, and informed our author, that he had found his friend, prince Amoulamoula, and all his herd. They requested him not to quit the place where he was before the morning, as they all intended to come to meet him. He was not sorry for the event, as it procured him almost a night's repose.

At the dawn of day his visitors appeared: the chief approached him first, to accost him in the Koriac mode: his compliments were accompanied with a beautiful fox-skin, or *sevadouschka*, which he presented to him and compelled him to accept. In return for this civility, he entertained them with brandy and tobacco, which he had brought with him from Ingiga. Having thanked them for their kindness, he respectfully took his leave; being furnished with the necessary information to enable him to direct his course.

Though the snow was deep and soft, the deer ran with ease and celerity: having broader feet than the dogs, they sink less below the surface than the dogs; but though this may be considered as an advantage; let it be remembered that the dogs are not so soon tired, and the traveller is not under the disagreeable necessity of stopping every two or three hours. In their way our travellers killed a number of partridges, and saw an amazing quantity. Some rein-deer fled rapidly from their presence; and happily the abundance of their provisions was no incentive to commit slaughter. About noon they perceived the Stoudenaia-reka, and about an hour after they arrived at the yourt of Oumiavin's brother.

The new host, as head of the family, advanced to meet M. de Lessops: the satisfaction displayed in every countenance within the mansion, was perfectly understood. The address of the old prince was short, but replete with cordiality and politeness. Every thing was at his disposal, and he was courteously requested to command the services of himself and family.

When M. de Lessops entered the yourt, his first care was to discharge the debt he had incurred to prince Eviava. After making a proper estimation, according to the agreement, he acknowledged to owe him seven roubles, forty hopecks. In receiving this sum, his good conductor accused him of an excess of generosity, and that it was more than he was entitled to; and that to pay him for an obligation conferred upon himself, was, in his opinion, an act of sublime virtue. They sat down to a jovial dinner, and fared sumptuously; a profusion of brandy was not withheld upon the ocasion. A farther account of our Koriac host may not be unacceptable *.

The deer is the only source of riches to this wandering people; the chief of a horde has seldom less than two or three hundred, and some of them are possessed of three or four thousand. Oumiavin's flock, when M. de Lessops was with him, amounted to about nine hundred. Multitudes of these animals are seen on the top of a mountain, near the Stoudenaia-reka, collected together, or scattered into parties, seeking under the snow for moss: they seldom wander from the flock, and are regained without much difficulty. On the

* His name is Oumiavin, but he is distinguished from his brother by the addition of Simeon, a name which he received in baptism when an infant: like all the Koriacs, he is small and sallow: his countenance declares his frankness and benevolence, and the whole of his figure commands strong prejudices in his favour. His short hoary locks, and symmetry of features, give him an air of dignity and distinction. He is lame of his right arm, in consequence of an obstinate contest with a bear: his companions, declining the encounter through fear, he was left alone to oppose the monster; and though he had no other weapon than his knife, he defeated and slew him. The chase is his favourite amusement: equally skilful and intrepid, he is regarded as a very fortunate huntsman. But the strength of his mind renders him most estimable and interesting: he formed a project, which, if it had been permitted to be carried into execution, would have been a lasting monument of his superior sense and profound reflection, though it arraigned the court of Russia for a tyrannical abuse of power.

evening

evening of our author's arrival, he saw a pleasing confirmation of this fact: they had been assembled, on his account, that a selection might be made for his use. On a particular cry of their keepers, the tame deer came forward, (the young ones and those exempted from labour going off in a different direction,) those that were wanted were easily caught, by means of a noose, thrown over them with singular dexterity. The choice being made, those which were destined for our author's use, were forcibly detained *.

A young deer was killed, by the order of Simeon Oumiavin, and cut up for the use of our author: half a wild deer was added to it, the flesh of which appeared more succulent. To this present was added four beautiful skins. De Lessops then entered the yourt, where he passed the night on a mattrass.

There is no kind of resemblance between the habitations of the wandering, and the underground dwellings of the fixed Koriacs, though the appellation is the same: the Russians indiscriminately give the name of yourt to all the lodgings of these people. The primitive signification of the word *yourt*, is a subterraneous apartment; but the yourts in question are merely tents or huts placed on the surface of the ground. Round it a number of poles are erected at equal distances, which, uniting at the top, strengthen and support each other. This rustic timber-work is covered with tanned deer-skins, extended from the base to within half a yard of the summit, which is left open to admit air, and to serve as a passage for the smoke. The family, and the servants, who superintend the flocks, sleep under *pologs*, which are a kind of inferior huts, ranged in distinct apartments round the wall of the yourt and resembling the square tents of the Tchoutkchis.

This species of habitation is adapted to the convenience of these wandering people: the removal of their dwelling being no very laborious task, they feel no reluctance in occasionally changing their quarters. On any inconvenience being discovered, they remove to a more commodious place; their sledges are always kept loaded by the side of their habitations, and the provision and other articles resorted to when they are wanted.

Twelve sledges were by this time prepared for our author, and Simeon Oumiavin assured him that he would himself be his guide, and accompany him, if necessarry, as far Yamsk; but, after gratefully thanking him for his polite attention, he declined the acceptance of that favour: In the morning of the 10th of April, he therefore took his flight, and at noon reached Tavatoma, desirous of seeing a hot spring, which Oumiavin had pointed out to him in the neighbourhood. Accompanied only by M. Kisselioff, he travelled two wersts to reach the spring; which is said to be composed of a number of others, issuing from a mountain at the left of the river, and which unite as they descend. A thick smoke appears in the clouds above these waters, but it has no offensive smell: they are extremely hot, and continually bubbling. Their taste being sharp and disagreeable, they are supposed to contain sulphurous and saline particles: the stones the party picked up along the stream had all a volcanic quality: but the effect of the water was astonishing: M. de Lessops washed his mouth with it, and M. Kisselioff his face; the latter had the skin of his face taken off by this application, and the former had his tongue and palate flayed, and was for a long time unable to eat any thing hot or high seasoned.

Their curiosity being satisfied, they prepared to join the rest of the company. To effect this they imagined they were to pass a mountain opposite to that on which the hot spring issued. Their rackets made them retreat instead of advancing, which induced them to take them off, and ascend by the use of their hands, and

* The female deer is not usually employed in labour, being reserved for the propagation of the species: they are coupled in autumn, and foal in the spring. The young males, which are intended for draught, are castrated. There are always three or four deer in a flock that are trained for the chace. The instinct of these animals is astonishing, for they are hunting even while they are feeding. When a tame deer perceives a wild one, he imitates the gait and manner of the other, who sometimes approaches him without suspicion: they soon begin to play together; their horns become entangled, they part, join each other again; and these sportive amusements are continued till the tame deer gradually draws his prey within musquet-shot of the hunter. With a well-managed deer, sometimes the companion may be seized alive, but when too many artifices are practiced for that purpose, the wild deer sometimes suspects the trick, and escapes the danger by precipitately galloping away.

When a Koriac leaves his yourt in the morning, the deer gather about him in expectation of their favourite beverage, which is human urine; for this delicious treat they manifest the keenest gratitude, by instantly swallowing up whatever quantity is administered to them.

knees. Apprehensive that they had mistaken the road, and overcome with fatigue, our author intreated his companion to endeavour to gain the summit, from whence he supposed he might probably perceive the rest of the party. He succeeded, and after anxiously waiting about an hour and a half, he saw the good Koriac advancing with a sledge to his assistance. They had in reality taken a wrong direction, and were several times on the point of perishing before they discovered the party they had deserted. *

He was tormented by a burning thirst; and though the mountain was covered with snow, he could not procure fire to dissolve it, as not a single shrub could be perceived: at length he observed some small cedars, and a fire having been kindled, he allayed his thirst. It was now two o'clock, and at seven they all assembled: Oumiavin met with no accident, but he was so extremely fatigued that it was nine before he could proceed.

The next day's labour was troublesome; especially to the deer; the snow was so deep and loose, that the animals were buried in it up to their necks: many of them refused to draw, and were consequently left behind. Great inconvenience attends a reliance upon the efforts of deer, when a long journey is required to be performed with only short intervals of rest: as soon as they are tired, the traveller must abandon them or stop; it is no longer possible to make them move.

Our traveller, and his companions, were proceeding towards Toumané on the morning of the 14th, and were within ten wersts of it, when a violent gale of wind, accompanied with snow, had almost blinded them; but they reached the village about four in the afternoon. It is situated south-west of Ingiga, at the distance of four hundred wersts, in a wood through which the river Toumané flows. It contains three yourts, three wooden magazines, and about a dozen balagans. Though this river abounds with fish, the inhabitants feed principally upon the bark of the birch tree steeped in the oil of the whale.

The deer were now incapable of drawing our travellers any further, on which account Oumiavin appeared extremely melancholy, as he found it impossible to conduct our author, as he had intended, as far as Yamsk. By his advice, however, he entreated the inhabitants to supply him with what dogs they had, but he could only procure a small number. There was no other method of making up the quantity required, than that of harnessing young dogs, and females in a state of pregnancy. On the 17th, after two days of bad weather, the wind abated, but the sky was covered with black menacing clouds. Having taken leave of Simeon Oumiavin, and his Tourmané, M. de Lessops departed in the afternoon, with his escort, and all his baggage, in five open sledges; each team consisting of eight or ten dogs: he had also hired a servant extraordinary, to serve him in the capacity of a charioteer, being no longer able to undertake that office himself.

Approaching the sea, it was thought advisable to proceed upon that element, in order to avoid seven mountains: when they had advanced about fifteen wersts, partly upon the ice, and partly upon the coast, they were under the necessity of returning, as the snow fell so abundantly, and the wind blew with such impetuosity, as to make the sledges totter, and the dogs recede. Our author's guides informed him of his danger, and, fearing to mislead the travellers, they proposed to seek refuge in a deserted yourt in the neighbourhood, with the situation of which they were perfectly acquainted.

This deserted shelter was situated on a small river called Yovana, about twenty wersts from Toumané: when they approached it they were covered with snow. Eager to descend into this asylum, that they might escape the remainder of the tempest, they attempted to find an aperture;

* They had determined on the 11th to endeavour to ascend the mountains of *Villequinshoikrebout*, but the task was impracticable: on the following day they appeared to be within a few wersts of them, though they were still at a considerable distance. Having at length passed this place, they crossed a small river at the bottom of these mountains, when they came to that of Villeguy, which is the loftiest, and gives its name to the rest. At first sight it seemed inaccessible, but a narrow passage presented itself; and, confiding in his noble conductor, they entered it. In four hours they arrived at the peak, after climbing an enormous and almost perpendicular mass of the height of two hundred yards, with rocks and stones projecting in a variety of places. When "arrived at the summit," M. de Lessops says, "I became giddy upon looking down the precipice I had climbed, and my heart shuddered at the danger I had escaped." He was far from thinking himself safe, as he was still to undergo the task of descending; but his obliging Koriac explained to him the methods he might safely take, and enabled him to arrive securely upon firm ground.

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but they soon discovered that the entrance was stopped up with snow about four feet deep. They arranged their sledges, and making the rackets supply the place of shovels, they began to open a passage. This part of the business employed the assistants about an hour, but they were still in want of a ladder; however the most hardy among them leaped down, and the others were not long in following him. They fell upon the carcasses of several sea-wolves, entirely frozen, some of them in part devoured, most probably by wild beasts that had chosen this subterraneous habitation for their den. A leathern seine in a corner of the yourt was the only indication that this wretched mansion had ever been visited before by human beings *.

The next day the wind was changed, but continued equally violent; it was the more troublesome to our travellers, as it drove the smoke so forcibly into the yourt that they were almost blinded and suffocated, and endured the extreme cold, without a fire; except to prepare their meals, rather than support so horrible a smother. Our author, wishing to remedy this inconvenience, erected a kind of fence sufficiently high to procure a free passage for the smoke, From that moment they enjoyed a fire; both night and day, without intermission: but they soon perceived that a dampness began to prevail, which was as insupportable as the cold: the fire gradually melted the surrounding ice, and a constant dribbling descended upon their heads; a stream of water at the same time accumulating under their feet. To increase their difficulties the sea-wolves began to thaw and diffuse an unpleasant odour; a proposal was therefore started and assented to, that, to purify the air, the dogs should be fed with them while they continued in that deplorable situation. This proposal was the more readily complied with, as the scantiness of the dried fish, rendered it necessary to consult œconomy †.

On the 21st there was a possibility of proceeding; though the sky was obscured with clouds, and the snow fell heavily, the wind had ceased, and our author, and his party resolved to set off in spite of their apprehensions of another hurricane. They directed their course towards the sea, upon which they travelled the distance of two wersts from the shore; but in the evening they approached nearer in order to halt. The ice being perfectly smooth, their little camp was easily erected. The next morning they made for the main ocean, in order to avoid the curvatures: they had observed several bays, and they crossed that which was the most extensive, though unfortunately a gust of wind prevented them from examining it; but they were informed by the guides that it was named from the river Iret, which falls into it. On the approach of night they came on shore, and halted till the morning on the banks of the river Iret.

Nothing remarkable occurred on the 23d. The wind indeed assailed them with much violence in the middle of a large plain: the sky cleared up, and they met a serjeant with dispatches from Okotsk. They saw the river Yamsk, and, pursuing its course came to the ostrog of Yamsk. The biscuits being nearly consumed, M. de Lessops was not only obliged to sleep there, but also to continue

* While the travellers were employed in removing the sea-wolves, that they might have room to lie down, the conductors fastened the dogs *, and furnished them with their allowance of food. During which time a fire was kindled: the company warmed themselves, and partook of a supper: after which M. de Lessops extended himself on the leathern net he found in the yourt: he placed a sea-wolf under his head for a pillow. Some of his companions imitated his example, and, all circumstances considered, the night was passed with some degree of comfort. An entire corner was appropriated to the Koriacs of our author's suite, who huddled together, and were unable to stretch themselves at their length; but they did not complain, or seem to suffer the least inconvenience. They sat down with their elbows resting upon their knees, and seemed to sleep profoundly, and at their ease.

* *The snow came down in such abundance, that these poor animals were almost buried under it: but, being accustomed to such weather, they crowd together, and holding their noses in the air, the heat of their breath, by penetrating their cold covering, creates a free passage for respiration. They have also the sagacity to shake themselves when the snow becomes too heavy.*

† The weather becoming calmer and milder on the 20th, preparations were ordered to be made for their departure: the dogs were harnessed, and they were issuing from the yourt, when a gust of wind deranged all their measures; the snow came on with renewed violence, and they were obliged to retreat, thinking themselves happy that they were within the reach of shelter. A sudden illness at this moment seized M. de Lessops: the zeal of the soldiers displayed itself in their endeavours to restore him; one of them deluged him in water, while the other chafed his temples with such immoderate kindness that he rubbed off part of the skin.

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there a considerable part of the next day, to procure a supply of provisions. The serjeant who commanded the garrison, received him with politeness, and furnished him with necessary information. Yamsk consists of twenty-five wooden houses, a part of which, where the church is situated, being surrounded with palisades.

Two days previous to our author's arrival at Yamsk, a troop of wandering Toungouses had quitted this settlement; but to console him under his disappointment, he was favoured with a sight of the full dress both of the men and the women, which our author has described in his performance; a repetition of which would probably afford but little entertainment to the readers of this abridgment.

The force of the sun this day announced an approaching thaw, M. de Lessops therefore resolved by the advice of the people in the country, to travel in the night, and to rest in the day when the sun had greater power. He quitted Yamsk at eleven in the evening; the caravan consisting of nine large sledges.

At dawn of day our travellers found themselves at the foot of a mountain, at the distance of fifty wersts from Yamsk. The Koriacs call it *Babouschka*, or Grandmother. The summit is said to be the tomb of an old sorceress, equally famous and formidable. The superstition of the people has induced them to call this the loftiest mountain in the world; but travellers are of a different opinion. Arrived at the top of this mountain, the adventurers placed iron cramps under their feet, in the form of tripods, and adopted many other precautions, as the descent is supposed to be extremely dangerous *.

Our author could hardly avoid laughing in the face of the timid prophet; but, on considering that he might probably require the assistance of these people, he affected to shew respect to their absurdity, and assumed a becoming gravity. The dread which the Koriacs entertain of this Babouschka, most probably originated in the following manner; as a natural effect of their prejudice, they feel themselves disposed to gratitude the very moment they consider themselves out of danger. These offerings were therefore the result of their gratitude for benefits received.

The travellers proceeded to Strednai, a village on the border of the sea, at the entrance of a deep bay. The Koriacs who inhabit it, received M. de Lessops with great cordiality: he rested himself a few hours in a yourt belonging to that ostrog; another building of the same denomination, and some magazines, constituting the whole of it. The yourts are constructed like those of the fixed Koriacs, with this difference, that they are not subterraneous, and the entrance is by a door on a level with the ground. Muscles, which abound on these coasts, are the principal food of the inhabitants.

In the morning of the 26th they arrived at the ostrog of Siglaun, the last in the Koriac territory, on a river of the same name; it is neither large nor populous, and contains but one yourt. They departed from Siglaun at five in the evening, and crossed a bay known by the name of that village: is was large and well defended. Farther on they found another curvature, called the *Bay of Ola*, though they proceeded with velocity, they were ten hours in passing over the widest part of it. The 27th, in the afternoon they stopped at Ola, a Toungoose ostrog, situated at the mouth of the river Ola, which affords a small harbour, to the extremities of which the Toungouses retire in severe weather. They had just quitted it, and taken possession of ten yourts, in which they reside during the continuance of warm weather †.

When M. de Lessops arrived at Ola, he was visited by a number of women; some dressed in the Russian fashion, and others in that of the Toungou. Expressing his astonishment at seeing

* Having escaped this danger, and arrived safe at the bottom, the Koriacs who attended M. de Lessops, instantly hung up their respective offerings, consisting of tobacco, pieces of iron, scraps of fish, &c. on the summit, where they suppose the sorceress takes her repose of a night. Others had before left on the same place, iron, arrows, knives, &c. Our author perceived a Tchouktchi javelin, decorated with ivory, and advanced to take possession of it, that he might preserve it as a curiosity, but he was instantly deterred by the exclamation of one of the conductors ——"What (said he) do you wish to ruin us all? So sacrilegious an act would draw down upon us the most horrible calamities, and you would become incapable of pursuing your journey.

† These yourts are not formed under ground, like those of the Kamptschadales, and some of the fixed Koriacs: besides they are longer and more ingeniously constructed. The winter yourts are round, and built on the ground like the summer ones. The walls are formed of large beams, placed perpendicularly, and the covering is inclined like the French roofs, with a hole at the top for the evaporation of smoke. They have also a bottom door upon a level with the foundation.

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them so fine, he was informed that it was a village feast; and it was also customary with them to appear in their best attire before strangers. Among their ornaments, embroideries of glass beads seemed to take the lead; and some of them were not deficient in point of taste.

A striking resemblance is observable between the Russians and Toungouses; they have the same language, and similar features. The men are strong and well proportioned; and some of the women have an Asiatic appearance, but without the flat nose and broad face of the Kamptschadales, and many of the Koriacs. These people are very mild, hospitable, and anxious to oblige. On leaving this village, the travellers proceeded on the sea; they were much embarrassed in the course of the night by the ice; and the frequent cracks which they heard under them, were not much calculated to dispel their fears.

At the dawn of day they arrived on land, intending to surmount a steep promontory, which they found attended with great difficulty and danger: they ventured, however, to ascend it, and after their descent, it was rumoured among the guides that it was not possible to proceed any further; in consequence of which De Lessops sent his soldier Golikoff and others to examine the nature of their situation, who quickly returned with very unwelcome tidings: Golikoff, earnestly recommended that they should return, and endeavour to find a way by-land; but this counsel was rejected by his guides. After some consultation and reflection they proposed that the adventurers should abandon their sledges, and taking the most valuable part of their property, cross the bay by leaping from one sheet of ice to another: but the current had so forced them into motion, that the sea was covered with insular pieces. M. de Lessops felt no inclination to adopt this mode of travelling, though he knew not what other plan to pursue. At length he resolved upon the exploration of some practicable path along the shore.

Insuperable difficulties now seemed to present themselves: with infinite danger he gained a perilous situation on the shelve of a rock, the sea then beating against it, about ten feet below its surface: emboldened by the solidity of this appendage to a rock, he advanced in a side-long direction, with his face turned towards the rock; and in the space of three quarters of an hour, during which time the most trivial slip or accident must have destroyed him, he arrived in a place of safety on the other side of the rock. Having thus surmounted his danger, he began to think of his dispatches. He had left them under the care of his soldiers, but he now thought himself capable of saving them himself. Emboldened by success, and proud of his discovery, he did not hesitate to return the same way.

He took up his port-folio, and the box that contained his dispatches; his two soldiers Golikoff, and Neradezoff, consented to accompany him; without assistance it would have been impossible to save this precious deposit: they carried it in turn. At every stride over the gaps of the path, our author thought he saw his box ready to fall into the sea: twenty times it was on the point of falling from his own hands, and he shuddered as if death itself had been gaping under his steps; he knew not a moment's ease, till he had deposited this charge in a place of safety; and his joy was then as vehement as his anxiety had been *.

These crossings backwards and forwards occupied seven hours of incessant labour and apprehension. No sooner were the travellers out of danger, than they returned thanks to the almighty for their miraculous preservation: they repaired their sledges, and immediately proceeded on a flinty strand, the breadth and solidity of which relieved them from all anxiety. A few hours after, near the ostrog of Armani, they met a number of empty sledges returning to Ola, and earnestly wished them success.

The village of Armani, which is eighty wersts from Ola, consists of a summer yourt and a winter yourt, situated on a river of the same

* Inspired with confidence by this second success, the travellers thought it possible to transport their dogs and sledges in the same extraordinary manner. However incredible it may appear, the reader may venture to rely on this assertion, that it succeeded beyond the most sanguine expectation of the adventurers. It may be proper, however, to remark, that when they returned a second time to fetch the dogs, the poor animals seemed more sensible of their danger than their commanders: they barked and drew back at all difficult passages: they were not to be cheered or flattered by the voice to the performance of their duty; it was necessary to strike severely, and pull them forcibly. Four of the dogs from awkwardness or terror, could not leap like the rest: one of these perished instantly; and another, after having remained some time suspended by his fore-feet, was extricated from his peril.

name. M. de Lessops passed on to the house of a yakout, three hundred paces farther, where he expected to find a more commodious lodging: it was a yourt in a wood of large fir trees, which he had occupied for thirty years. In his absence his wife received our author cordially, and tendered him some milk, with an acid beverage made principally of mare's milk, called *koukouiss*. It was far from disagreeable, and his Russians in spite of their superstitions for any thing proceeding from a horse, seemed to relish it highly. The husband, by this time, arrived, who had the appearance of a healthy venerable old man. Having been informed of the nature of this journey, by his wife, the host instantly cleaned the most distinguished place in the room that our author might repose himself. He was awaked by the lowings of the herd which were admitted into the yourt: eight cows, a bull, and some calves divided the apartment with him; but though such were his companions, every thing about him had the appearance of cleanliness, and the air was sweet and wholesome. This yakout does not, like the Kamptschadales and Koriacs, employ himself wholly in catching and preparing fish: hunting, and the management of cattle, demand his chief attention, and gratify all his wants. Exclusive of his herd, he has ten or a dozen horses, which he employs for various useful purposes. Every thing about the premises indicated prosperity, happiness, and tranquillity, and the repast, though simple, was thought sumptuous by the partakers of it.

They separated the same evening, perfectly satisfied with each other, and De Lessops travelled the whole night: he arrived at Taousk the next morning, being a distance of forty-two wersts. This ostrog is situated on the river Taon, and contains a church, twenty isbas, and a building for the reception of tributes, surrounded by palisades. Twenty yakouts, two chiefs, and some other Koriacs compose the whole of the inhabitants. The garrison consists of fifteen soldiers, commanded by a serjeant named Othotin, at whose house our author took up his abode till the evening. At night he passed through Gorbe, peopled chiefly by yakouts, and in the morning lost sight of the sea. During the first and second of May, he and his companions, travelled through fields, and upon the river Kava, without perceiving a single habitation.

On the 3d a gale of wind arose, accompanied with a heavy snow: his tent suspended over the baggage, afforded shelter to the party; but a fire was also required. His conductors undertook to procure wood, which they could not effect without being buried as high as their waists in snow: in the afternoon the wind changed, and the sky became clear. May the 4th our travellers passed over the mountain of Ineè, which may be compared in height to that of Babouschka: on the summit they were so severely pierced with the cold, that they stopped to kindle a fire. In a few hours they came again to the sea, which they left at a short distance from Inè, where they arrived in the evening.

This ostrog is peopled by Russians and Yakouts, whose habitations are isbas and yourts. Here M. de Lessops proposed to change his team, and set off immediately; but he was detained by the difficulty of procuring dogs: the chief of the place was so completely intoxicated, that he could not assist upon this occasion. Twenty-five wersts from Inè, our author passed two yourts inhabited by Yakouts and Toungouses; the name of this hamlet is Oulbé. Coming again upon the coast, he travelled forty-seven wersts, without quitting it, where he saw several sea-wolves, and a whale driven upon the shore.

Having crossed, with some degree of trepidation*, he entered Okotsk on the 5th of May, accompanied only by Nedarezoff. He alighted at the house of Major Kokh, invested with the command in the absence of M. Kasloff, whose arrival with M. de Lessops had been long expected. The governor's letter had communicated to him, the cause of their separation, and our author had briefly related to him the circumstances attending it. He hastened to pay his . pects to Madame Kasloff, and deliver some packets addressed to her; but she was absent in the country, and M. de Lessops was too weary to attend her on that day. An express was immediately sent off with the letters, and a day appointed for his visit. Presuming that he required repose, the Major conducted him to the apartment destined for him in the house of M. Kasloff, and he found every comfort and convenience he could wish. In

* The ice was so thin that it bent under the sledge at every motion.

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the space of three hundred and fifty leagues, he had not, except once at Yamsk, had the indulgence of sleeping in a bed *.

M. Kokh † invited and conducted our author to his house to dinner, and communicated several plans of amusement to him, in order to induce him to stay some time with him; but his eagerness was so great for the rapid progress of his journey, that he resisted the urgency of his invitations, and the fascinating pleasure of his society, for the faithful execution of the trust reposed in him. Of these facts he informed M. Kokh, who, yielding to his reasons, became satisfied with his eagerness to quit him.

The rains had been so incessant during his arrival, that the roads were thought impassable, at least for dogs. From the best information there appeared no possibility of advancing farther, without having recourse to rein-deer. M. Kokh therefore sent an express to a horde of wandering Toungouses, to procure our author a supply of these animals.

Having performed this necessary part of his duty, the Major accompanied him to Boulgin, the country residence of Madame Kasloff, who politely received him as the friend of her husband, and the companion of his dangers. The object of her affections engrossed the whole of their conversation. The lady demanded an account of all their difficulties at the time of their separation. He attempted to soften such circumstances as might probably tend to impress themselves too forcibly: she therefore supposed the most disagreeable particulars were only slightly noticed, from an unwillingness to give her uneasiness; a caution which only alarmed her the more. M. de Lessops knew not how to console her, as he himself experienced the utmost anxiety for the fate of this valuable man: but, assisted by M. Kokh, he assumed an air of serenity, and the Major proposed a number of consoling expedients: at last they restored tranquillity to the mind of this affectionate lady, by encouraging her to expect the speedy arrival of M. Kasloff: This lady was born at Okotsk, and, among other female accomplishments, spoke the French language with elegance. In her present solitary retreat, she is principally amused in educating an amiable daughter about three years old.

The next day an express arrived, informing our author that the Tongueses were separated and dispersed through the country, and that no rein-deer could be procured. After mature deliberation, and taking the advice of M. Kokh, who endeavoured to dissuade him from it, he came to a resolution to set off the next day without the rein-deer which he had expected. M. Kokh, finding his opposition useless, no longer advised him to the contrary, but promised to give the necessary orders, that every preparation might be made for his departure. M. de Lessops spent the remainder of the day in taking a survey of the town, which he describes in the following manner, or to that effect ‡.

* Soon after he rose in the morning he received the visits of Major Kokh, and the principal officers and merchants of the town. M. Allegetti, surgeon to the expedition of M. Billings, was among them. His meeting with that gentleman was a fortunate circumstance, as the pain in his breast had returned: he consulted him without hesitation, and afterwards acknowledged, that to his skill and care he was indebted for the perfect cure of his complaint.

† M. Kokh was a German by birth, but he spoke the Russian language as fluently as his own: he had long retired to this settlement with his wife and three children, where he lives comfortably with his little family, rich in the public esteem, and happy in the opportunity which his situation afforded him of doing good.

‡ The town of Okotsk is nearly in a direct line from east to west; the sea at the south, being within a hundred yards of the houses, and the interval between consists of a flinty strand: at the north the walls are washed by the Okhota. The habitations are only isbas, a few of which are larger and more commodious than the rest, being destined for the use of the officers. M. Kokh resided at the other end of the town: the governor's house, and the Sessions-house, are both under the same roof, and form a part of the square. Here is also the guard-house, and the parish-church; but these buildings have not a very splendid appearance. A street behind, extending almost to the river, is inhabited by tradesmen, whose shops are regularly arranged on each side of the street. The port is very insignificant; seven or eight vessels or galliots were to be seen, part of them belonging to the crown, and others to merchants, who trade with America for furs.

M. Kokh having made preparations for our author's departure, and his sledges being loaded and harnessed, he took leave of that gentlemon and the rest of the officers on the evening of the 10th of May. His company was augmented by two men, who were to act as pilots on the river Youdoma: he travelled all night, without regarding the wretched state of the roads, though they were covered with water, and in some places reached the bellies of the dogs: the wind continued south, and strongly indicated a continuance of the thaw. In the mean time having crossed the river Okhota, he arrived at Medvejé Golova, or *Bear's Head*, a village inhabited by Russians and Yakouts: he entered it early in the morning, but the dogs were so weary, that he was under the necessity of passing the day, and even the night in that ostrog.

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He hoped to reach Moundoukan the following day, which is twenty wersts from Bear's Head; but, when he had proceeded about half way some of the dogs refused to draw, and the company reluctantly ventured upon a river that seemed to be the preferable expedient. They had not advanced many paces, when they heard a sudden crack under their sledges; and the next moment De Lessops felt himself gently sinking, but a piece of ice still kept him up. It broke a second time, and his skates were hardly to be seen. All endeavours to extricate himself would have been useless, as the least motion would have plunged him into the water. Fortunately it was but four feet deep, from which embarrassment his people relieved him, till they were nearly as much in want of assistance themselves.

Deaf to the remonstrances of his conductors, he still wanted to proceed; but their mutual aid became necessary to enable them to gain the bank. In the mean time, the snow continuing to melt rapidly, the dogs only paddled in the water, without making any progress, and fell upon one another exhausted with fatigue.

Among our author's guides was a serjeant, whom M. Kokh had strongly recommended. His reputation for courage and experience taught him to regard him as his monitor and guardian: he therefore observed his motions and studied his countenance, which had hitherto been inflexibly composed. While the rest of the company murmured, he uttered not a word, nor altered a muscle of his face. Encouraged by his silence and seeming unconcern, our author almost abandoned his fears, and yielded to a kind of tranquillity. But how great was his astonishment when this serjeant stopped suddenly, protesting he would not proceed a step farther. He urged him to explain himself. "I can no longer be silent," replied he: "but the more I admire your intrepidity, the more I feel myself authorised to inform you of the obstacles which may surround you: many of the rivers indeed are thawed, and could you so far succeed as to pass them, the floods would speedily overtake you. Where will you then find a resource? Perhaps you may seek an asylum on a mountain, or in a forest *, should you be fortunate enough to meet with either. Can you erect yourself a cabin on the tops of the trees, and rest securely there three weeks, or perhaps a month till the inundation shall subside? And are you certain that, even thus exalted, the waters will not reach you, and force you down, together with the tree you rely on for protection. Are you sure that your stock of provisions will, during this interval, be sufficient to preserve you from the miseries of famine? If you are not intimidated by any of these considerations, proceed; you are your own master. I have done my duty, and I shall take the liberty of quitting you †.

He accordingly set out, and reached Bear's Head the same evening, where he remained till the afternoon of the following day. From thence to the river Okhota, he experienced no other inconvenience than that of travelling very slowly; but in crossing the river, new perils and new alarms arose. The instability of the ice, which was moved up and down by the current, made him apprehensive that it would not bear the weight of so many passengers, and he was continually in fear that an abyss would open, and swallow up some of the party. Having at length gained the bank, they counted over the company, and had the happiness to find that not a single person was lost in the tremendous danger. They arrived at Okotsk, about noon on the 14th.

So speedy a return produced some pleasantries on the part of M. Kokh, and the other officers: but our author was less concerned at the folly of the attempt, than at its failure. He could not avoid contrasting the tediousness of his passage, with the common mode of accomplishing such a journey: Eight months had already elapsed, and he was no farther on his route than Okotsk; but he had not selected any particular season, and had been necessarily detained three months at Bolcheretsk: he had also to contend with tempests, and a thousand other obstacles; and all these delays had been equally involuntary and

* As similar accidents are not uncommon to those who travel in this season of the year; the unfortunate travellers usually ascend the loftiest trees, where they fabricate with the branches a kind of hut, called *labazis*; but it sometimes happens that these torrents do not abate, in which case they perish for want of food.

† This resolute remonstrance strongly operated on the mind of De Lessops, and induced him to consider, that if he attended to the monitions of prudence, he could not do better than return immediately to Okotsk, from which they were but fifty-five wersts distant.

unavoidable

unavoidable. But though these circumstances might all be pleaded in his justification, he still thought it in the highest degree distressing that he had not been able to execute the trust reposed in him. Such were the reflections which agitated his mind, and poisoned the pleasures which every one was desirous of procuring him. At length, however, the attentions he experienced, and the amusements which courted his participation on all sides, totally dispelled his chagrin.

Loftsoff, inspector-general of the garrison, was particularly obliging to M. de Lessops. He immediately directed that the best of their wretched horses should be collected from the environs, and kept in readiness for departing at a moment's warning.

An express arrived from Ingiga which gave infinite pleasure to our author: it brought intelligence of M. Kasloff's arrival in that settlement; but alas he had brought no letter from the governor. This consideration occasioned much anxiety. Every one questioned the messenger by turns, and they would hardly be convinced of his safety; but the probability, and the invariable uniformity of his account, persuaded them at length that their fears were unfounded.

The river Okhota had usually been free from ice by the 20th of May; but, to the astonishment of the inhabitants, it did not begin to float this year till the 26th in the afternoon. It formed a curious exhibition for the town, and M. de Lessops was invited as to a party of pleasure; but supposing it to have been similar to what he had seen at Petersburg, he was not much inclined to repair to it; but, being further importuned upon the subject, he went to the river. Multitudes were there assembled, who expressed their astonishment, in loud vociferations, at the sight of the enormous sheets of ice, which were lifted up by the rapidity of the current. The next moment loud shrieks assailed his ears, and he endeavoured to discover their cause: he approached with trepidation, supposing some unfortunate child was in danger of being drowned, but he was mistaken in his conjecture.

A society of about a dozen dogs excited this lamentation. Their master, either from avarice or compassion, thus bewailed the fate of these poor animals whose loss now seemed inevitable. Seated tranquilly on the ice which supported them, they gazed with astonishment at the crowd collected upon the bank, whose utmost clamours could not move them from their station. Two only had the sagacity to attempt to save themselves, and with difficulty arrived on the opposite side; the rest almost instantly disappeared, and were probably conveyed into the ocean, where they infallibly must have perished*.

To these fishing enterprises, which daily becomes more successful, the hunting of water-fowl succeeded: these winged visitors were so abundant as to cover the surface of the water, and furnished a new means of subsistence for the famishing inhabitants. The season now rapidly advanced, and in spite of the frequent fogs, they had fortunately some fine days. They were the more acceptable, as the snow had fallen two inches deep on the 29th, and the cold was remarkably severe. The waters gradually abated, but no appearance of vegetation was perceived: some rotten grass, indeed, from the last efforts of nature at the close of autumn, was all the earth could afford to the horses, till the return of a resuscitating spring.

Our author was so anxious to be gone, that though he was no stranger to the miserable state of these animals, he intreated M. Kokh to order those intended for him to be collected, as he should certainly leave Okotsk on the 6th of June. His orders were punctually obeyed, and by the kindness of Mrs. Kasloff, with the additional liberality of his friends, he found himself amply provided with bread and biscuit. But the idea that he was to support himself with the sacrifices of friendship, was hostile to his feelings, and it was not without much pain that he was obliged to keep

* These dogs were the only victims of the departure of the ice: but its effects have been sometimes so tremendous, as to have occasioned the removal of the houses near the river. The thaw at length being ended, and a famine beginning to prevail, as the stock of fish procured in the preceding summer was nearly exhausted, M. de Lessops ordered the seine to be immediately used. He was present with a large party, and saw a most agreeable spectacle: it is impossible to convey an idea of the pleasure, the transport of the spectators upon the first cast of the net. An immense quantity of small fish were the produce of one haul, and the joy was loud and vociferous on the occasion. Those who had begun to feel the pressure of famine were first served, and shared among them the blessing of this fortunate beginning. Our author could not restrain his tears when he saw how ravenous these poor creatures were: whole families were crowding and contending for the fish, which were devoured raw before his astonished eyes.

what no refusals could prevail on them to take back.

The day preceding his departure, he had been informed that M. Loftsoff intended to go with him to Moundoukany, and that Lieutenant Hall was to accompany them; M. Allegretti also informed our author that he had prepared every thing to conduct him, as far as the cross of Yuodoma, and that personal attachment was the sole motive of his journey. Of his two soldiers, only Golikoff attended him; Nedarezoff remained at Okotsk; but our author took his father to serve as a pilot on the river Yuodoma. All his preparations being completed, he tore himself from the arms of M. Kokh. Many of the inhabitants did him the honour of attending him to the gates of the town, where the horses waited for them, and where, after mutual good wishes, they separated. On beholding the horse he was to mount, our author drew back with horror and concern: never had he seen before so poor and wretched an animal; the other horses, engaged for this expedition, were equally lean and despicable. In this pitiful plight, the caravan began to march. To console themselves during this cavalcade, each was merry at the expence of his steed. Twelve wersts from Okotsk, a salt-work was pointed out to our author on the sea-coast, in which only malefactors were employed. Beyond this house they left the sea, and travelled for some time on the banks of the Okhota. If the breaking of this river is alarming to the inhabitants of the town, its overflowings must be more fatal to the environs. In overflowing the banks, it not only inundates the adjacent country, but becomes a torrent that swells as it extends itself, and has been said to rise two feet above the tops of the highest trees.

Not far from Medvejégolova, De Lessops' horse fell under him, and there appeared no probability of getting him up again: fortunately, however, he had quitted the saddle, and therefore received no injury. The animal was left upon the spot*, but could not survive many hours. Eleven horses still remained, and our author was remounted in an instant, and reached the village without any further accident†.

Arriving at Mandoukany, when the horses were much fatigued, the party passed the night there, and all the following day, which was the 8th of June. At the dawn of day M. de Lessops separated from M. Hall and M. Loftsoff, who were to remain in this place. M. de Lessops ascended a high mountain called Ourak, the summit of which was still covered with snow: a river of the same name appears at the foot of the mountain, which is wide, deep, and rapid, and on its bank a yourt is situated inhabited by watermen. At present, however, they were all absent; and being tired of waiting for them, the party launched the best of the boats that were fastened on the bank, and after diligent search they found some oars. They unloaded and unsaddled their horses, and put the baggage in the boat, which in turn conveyed us to the other side: the steeds remained behind, and our author trembled with fear lest the animals should not be able to swim across: the Yakouts seemed perfect in this part of their business; by whipping them they forced them into the water, and the boat preceded them to guide them. One of the conductors remained upon the bank they started from, exclaiming, hooting, and throwing stones to fright them, in order to prevent their turning back. In about half an hour they were safely conveyed over, where they were instantly saddled and reloaded‡, and they pursued their journey.

They halted about twenty-five wersts from

* The Yakouts do not seem much concerned at the loss of these animals, and have little idea of affording them any assistance. When they refuse to go on, or fall down from fatigue, they are abandoned to their fate, and their carcases are left to be devoured by bears: who never relinquish their prey while any flesh remains upon the bones. Every ten steps these skeletons were seen: more than two thousand of them have been passed between Okotsk and the cross of Yuodoma.

† Setting out at nine the next morning, the company forded the river Okhota, the course of which they were no longer to pursue: They perceived some scattered yourts at a distance from each other, but hardly ever saw any considerable number of them together. They live in this isolated manner from a motive of self-interest: horses being their principal source of wealth (some of whom possess upwards of a thousand) if the proprietors should build their habitations nearer to each other, how would they be able to procure nourishment for their numerous studs? Hence it would be necessary to send multitudes of them to a considerable distance, as the neighbouring pastures must be soon exhausted.

‡ The Yakouts are so much accustomed to this exercise, that they might defy the most expeditious groom: they tie the horses three and three to each other's tails, and a single rope serves to lead them all.

Moun-

Moundoukany, to which they were invited by the appearance of some pasture, and few traces of bears were discoverable. From a fast of about six months, the voracity of these animals was greatly to be dreaded. Departing their dens they prowl about the country, and ravenously attack any animal they can discover, and particularly horses. When the travellers arrived at their destined spot, the horses were eased of their burthens, and permitted to graze at liberty. Fires were then lighted at equal distances round their little camp, and our author frequently discharged his musquet at the entrance of his tent; knowing the report and the smell of the powder would effectually drive away the bears. At day-break their horses are summoned to assemble; and, should any of them be dispersed, they come at the cry of the Yakouts, who, like the Koriacs with their rein-deer, possess eminent talents for this purpose*.

To make the most of his time, he restricted himself to one regular meal in the evening, taking no refreshment in the course of the day but some rye-biscuit. Sometimes indeed he and his party subsisted on the fruits of his success. But if he happened to kill any small animals, they fell to the lot of his Yakouts, except the skins which were returned to him. Golikoff had prejudiced him against this kind of food, by representing them as extremely nauseous; but being once tempted by the whiteness of the flesh to taste one of these little animals, he found it less disagreeable than he had been induced to believe: though they retain the flavour of the fir, he should think them very acceptable in a time of scarcity.

Their principal food, known by the name of *bourdouk*, was more offensive to him: it is a kind of thick frumanti, made of rye-meal, water, and fish-oil; the quantity they devoured of this composition shocked him, though he was informed that in general they are not very great eaters: it was however said, that sometimes, by way of treat, they roast a whole horse, which is speedily demolished at a meal, by a very small number of guests; and the intestines of the animal, are not considered as the least delicious.

Our author was awaked at an early hour by his guides, who came to inform him that the river had considerably abated during the night. A number of horsemen had also just arrived, who had been detained on the opposite side, and who had crossed without difficulty, which inspired them with the fullest confidence. They were reduced merchants who intended to try their fortune as factors of a man of property, whose speculation had obtained the approbation of the court, and all the succours which they required. Its object was the fur trade, particularly that of sables, caught by the Koriacs and Tchouktchis. They were allowed four or five years for their undertaking; and they were not only to collect furs by way of purchase, but also to hunt the animals that furnished them. Fearing no other obstacles than the hostilities of the natives, they were provided with ammunition and arms to repel their insults.

When our author had passed the river, he asked the guides if it was the last he should have to cross; they replied in the negative, and assured him that he would meet with three others in the course of the day. This intelligence alarmed him, and the dread of his horse's falling with the box made him shudder. Emerging from a thick wood, he found himself on the bank of a rapid torrent, the breadth of which was about two hundred yards; at a little distance this stream was received by the Ourak. Conceiving it to be fordable, he spurred his horse to make him descend: in the middle of the river he felt his legs tremble; he encouraged him: he proceeded, and the water did not reach above his knee. Emboldened by this circumstance he pushed on, and soon approached the opposite bank; to ascend which a ridge of ice was to be surmounted. The declivity was steep, but no better landing-place presented itself: he directed the animal towards the perilous ascent; and, though he had gained a position for his fore-feet, he fell backward into the water; the horse and the rider floating in

* Having often seen tufts of horse-hair suspended to the branches of trees, our author asked the cause of it, and was informed that they were offerings made by the inhabitants to the Gods of the woods and highways; a species of superstition that has at least one good effect, as the offering may serve to identify the road to travellers. In the course of the preceding day our author crossed various branches of the river Ourac; and about five in the afternoon met that river again: its width was not considerable, but as the rain had swelled the current, and the principal guide represented it as dangerous, the resolution formed of passing it was not persisted in: he pitched his camp in the neighbourhood, where the horses fortunately found some provender to eat.

different

different parts of the stream; they were both carried along by the violence of the current, and our author insensibly grew weaker. Approaching the spot where the two rivers joined, a voice suddenly assailed his ear, exclaiming, "Catch at the bridle of your horse, or it is over with you!"—The sound, the idea of the danger reanimated him; he strick forward with all his might, stretched out his hand, and seized the rein. Providentially, at the same moment, his horse obtained a footing. Our author seized the upper end of the bridle, and threw his arms round the neck of the animal; remaining, as if he had been suspended between life and death, and calling aloud for assistance. His faithful Golikoff had endeavoured to follow him in his misfortune; but the vigour of his horse did not correspond to the zeal of the rider: he was the person that had given him the salutary and terrible advice of grasping at his horse; and when he perceived its happy effects, he hastened to ascend the shore, to land, to run towards him in order to preserve his life*.

The party again mounted their horses, but M. de Lessops declared his blood froze in his veins whenever he approached a river; and he was now become so cautious that he sent one of his guides before, and was not willing to venture till he had received a signal from the opposite side. He arrived in a reasonable time at Oratskoi-plodbische; which was the first habitation he had seen since the yourt belonging to the watermen, and he continued there the remainder of the day. The Ourac flows at the foot of this hamlet; here are only five inhabitants, each of them being a soldier, and has an isba: they are appointed to guard a magazine for the reception of effects belonging to government†.

Wishing to travel quicker, our author entrusted the baggage to the care of old Nedaresoff, and passed on before with M. Allegretti, Golikoff, and a Yakout. A pond, of the depth of about a foot presented itself; into which M. Allegretti rode, and Golikoff followed, holding our author's box on his saddle. After a few paces the horse stumbled, and threw him off sideways; but more intent on his deposit, than his own preservation, he fell upon the box, in consequence of his extreme caution not to relinquish his hold. He immediately alighted to assist him; but having fallen into the mire he had received no injury; though the box was evidently wet, the water had not penetrated to the inside. The horses were so fatigued, that their riders alighted and led them by the bridle, while the Yakout was lashing them behind. They travelled the remainder of the day, except where the new grass‡ began to appear, when a pause was made to console the poor beasts with a little refreshment.

In the afternoon they arrived at the Cross§ of Yuodoma. On an eminence, secure from the overflowings of this river, a number of magazines appear in view, guarded by four soldiers, and which are also considered as an asylum to them, when their common habitations by the side of the Yuodoma are flooded: these soldiers also act in the capacity of watermen. On seeing our author's passport, they submitted entirely to his guidance. Unfortunately all their boats were in a wretched condition, and he had neither materials nor workmen to refit them.

Of the four boats that were on the strand, our

* After having leaped on the neck of his deliverer, his first care was to tear off the port folio which was fastened to his girdle; and he had the satisfaction to find that the two important packets, which La Perouse had particularly recommended to his care, had not received much injury. He had lefs his box on the other side; but the uneasiness on that account was soon dispelled, by the arrival of M. Allegretti and his other companions, who safely returned it to its owner, and congratulated him on his miraculous escape.

† The next morning the travellers crossed the river Orak in a boat; its source is at no great distance: it proceeds from an immense lake where they halted in the evening: it is about seven wersts in circumference, and is said to abound with fish. A scene took place this day among the Yakouts, concerning a horse that it was thought necessary to leave upon the road. Accountable for horses committed to their care, it it usual when they lose any of them from the excess of fatigue, &c. to cut off the tail and the ears, which they must produce to the proprietor to exculpate themselves, or pay the value of the animals. A dispute now arose, whether they should terminate the life of this poor unfortunate beast. Our author proposed a more simple and less cruel way of effecting this end, and promised them a certificate that should attest the loss, and supply the usual proofs, by taking the blame of their failure in this respect upon himself. They acquiesced in his proposal, which was considered as an unequivocal proof of their deference and respect.

‡ The progress of vegetation was every day perceptible; the trees, which had so long continued bare, gradually recovered their foliage, and the country soon appeared like an immense meadow, enamelled with rural flowers. What a delightful spectacle for a man whose eyes had, for the space of six months, seen nothing but frozen rivers, and plains and mountains covered with perpetual snow!

§ There is really a cross on the bank of the river.

author

author chose the best and the narrowest; which was twelve feet in length, and six in breadth: he caused it to be caulked, and tarred, and an additional plank to be placed at the head, to enable it to resist the force of the waves: with some nails from an old boat, and the assistance of one of the soldiers who had been a carpenter, he proceeded; but without mentioning the difficulties he had to encounter, and his adroitness in overcoming them, let it suffice to say, that at three in the afternoon their repairs were completed, the helm fixed, and the oars adjusted, and M. de Lessops ordered his people to be ready by the next morning.

When they were on the point of setting out, a caravan of Yakoutsk merchants appeared: they were proceeding to Okotsk, and our author desired M. Allegretti to accompany them: their separation took place about nine o'clock, after the sincerest professions of reciprocal and everlasting esteem. Our author engaged two of the soldiers to row him, one of whom had before made this voyage: Nedarezoff was at the helm, and Golikoff and our author were to relieve him when he became weary. The rapidity of the current carried them on with such violence, that they required no oars; their velocity hurrying them on at such a rate, that they would probably have reached the famous cataract before night, which was upwards of eighty wersts from the place of their departure.

The conversation of the rowers turned solely upon the dangers they should have to encounter; and being prepossessed with the idea of their inexperience, our author began at last to be alarmed himself, and resolved to act with the utmost care and prudence, that he might not have any reason to reproach himself. Towards the evening, a west-north-west wind produced rain, in consequence of which he halted, and ordered his tent to be pitched over his boat, not choosing to run any risk in bad weather.

After four hours navigation the next day, he perceived the cataract: accompanied by his two pilots, he went to reconnoitre the spot. At a short distance from it, he saw a little stony island, which is only visible when the waters begin to fall. The soldiers advised him to pass, if the waters were sufficiently high to admit of it, by the canal at the right; though they admitted that the descent was very rapid, they assured him it was much less so than that of the cataract. Approving of this advice, he returned to the boat, and resolved to put it in practice: then, encouraging his people as well as he could, he took the helm: Nedarezoff sat by him, and Golikoff assisted one of the rowers, as they had only two oars among them. They proceeded thus till they reached the conflux of the two streams, one of which led to the canal, and the other was devoured by the cataract. The impetuosity of the latter would have drawn them into the abyss, had not the strength and skill of the rowers prevented it: and they were at length so fortunate as to get extricated from the treacherous current, and enter into the canal*.

To avoid this accident, care must be taken to pass exactly in the middle of the stream, without attending to the waves which rise and seem to break against the rocks. At the bottom of this podporojenei, another river empties itself, the clearness and smoothness of which forms a striking contrast to the turbulence and agitation of the Yudoma, that the two rivers are easily distinguished. At the left of the Yudoma, another formidable arm appears, which is called *Tschortosskoi-protok*, or Devil's Arm. It falls into the Yudoma. It is well known by the number of rocks and dead trees which obstruct its entrance: those who are not careful to steer constantly to the right, are drawn in here by a rapid current, and ruin is inevitable.

M. de Lessops found himself indisposed by the attack of a fever, but did not much attend to it:

* They had still a difficult pass to make, which terrified the adventurers: it is called *Podporojenei*, or the ebb of the Cataract, and is at the distance of about a werst from it. Their object was to make choice of the deepest side, which was pointed out by the blackness of the water, and our author steered towards it. A multiplicity of high swoln waves tossed them about with more violence than if they had been in the open sea. Suddenly their boat was pitched upon a rock, which was on a level with the water, and which had not been perceived. They were thrown down by the force of the shock; and, supposing themselves to be irretrievably lost, had not the resolution to raise themselves.

In vain were they importuned to row on—they were deaf to the repeated exclamations of our author—he caught hold of the helm, and, perceiving that the boat had sustained no injury, he animated their drooping spirits, and prevailed on them to resume their stations. The moss on the rock preserved them from imminent destruction; the boat gently touched it on its passage, and glided along with wonderful facility.

he only laid himself down in the boat, and observed no other regimen than that of drinking cold water. Notwithstanding the assertions he had heard, he could not easily be induced to believe that the Ourak was more rapid than the Yudoma.

He entered the Maya on the 22d, the banks of which are not so deep and dreary as those of the preceding, though at intervals there are mountains and rocks. The difference of the current was very perceptible, as they only sailed four wersts an hour. The gnats became so troublesome as to be almost insupportable: they could only be kept off by the smoke of rotten wood, with which it was necessary to support an incessant fire *.

He discharged his guides, who continued their course on the Aldann: they were a werst from him, when he repented the having dismissed them. The Yakouts, who were the proprietors of the horses, apprehending they would be too much fatigued, heard with regret that he intended to make use of them. Not daring openly to refuse him, they endeavoured to escape by stealth; but being pursued they were prevailed on to come back. To secure them, they were all shut up in one isba, from which they were not permitted to come out, till they had consented to convey him to Amgui: a selection of ten of the best horses, had in the mean time been made for his use.

After a night's repose, which relieved our author from his slight indisposition, he cheerfully mounted his horse, accompanied by the Yakouts; who had been reprimanded by Golikoff, and were become more manageable. They were now in perfect good humour, and sang with the greatest glee: but their vocal music is not very agreeable, as it principally consists of a perpetual and monotonous shake in the throat. They are, however, great improvisatori. Their subject is derived from whatever passes before them, or whatever occurs to them, but does not display a ray of genius; it is little more than a tiresome repetition of the same words.

In the midst of an extensive wood, M. de Lessops saw, on the border of a lake, two fishermen providing for their winter consumption: their habitation was merely a roof constructed from the bark of trees: when the summer is on the point of departing, they seek among their relations, a warmer and less exposed retreat. A great deal of rain fell on the 25th, particularly while our author halted, which was from four till eight in the afternoon. The Yakouts, in order to defend themselves from it, placed a bear's skin on their shoulders in the form of a cape: the tail of a horse, attached to the handle of a whip, served as an useful instrument to keep off the flies, with which they were so much molested, that our author was frequently induced to have recourse to this fly-trap.

On the evening of the 25th, the travellers arrived at the border of the river Amgai: it was too deep to be fordable, and the boats were all on the opposite side. They called in vain for assistance: no person appearing from these reiterated shouts, one of the Yakouts stripped himself, and swam over to procure a boat. The crossing of the whole caravan consumed almost the whole of an hour; the travellers then mounted their horses to proceed to the habitation of a Yakout prince, named Girkoff. In their road they saw a number of yourts, but all at a considerable distance from each other. Golikoff went on before to that belonging to the prince, to pave the way for a good reception. To do him justice, it must be admitted that he treated our author with the greatest civility; he not only offered him his yourt, and entertained him with excellent milk and butter, but declared the best of his horses should be devoted to his service †. Being informed that he had much occasion for repose, he pointed out the habitation that was intended for him; and while it was preparing, he politely shewed him the conveniences of his yourt, which was one of the most complete that he had seen.

The size of these houses is usually regulated by the wealth of the proprietor, and the number

* On the 23d M. de Lessops quitted the river Maya, for one larger and more rapid, called the Aldann; but he only crossed it to visit a habitation on the other side, opposite to the mouth of the Maya. He there found some marines belonging to M. Billings's expedition, who advised him to embraced the opportunity which presented itself of furnishing himself with horses of burthen, which on their return would convey him as far as Amgui. According to the itinerary, he was to go by water to Belskaia-pereprava, which is in the usual road from Okotsk to Yakoutsk, but by going the way of Amgui he would considerably shorten it. This certainty, together with the happy chance that provided him with horses, induced him to alter his former plan.

† He had a stud of two thousand horses in very good condition, though he had lost a considerable number by the conveyances occasioned by M. Billings' expedition.

of

of his family. Beams placed by the side of one another, and plastered with clay, form the walls, which are not perpendicular. Inclining towards the top, they supported a roof. The house, which has but one door, is divided into two apartments. The cleanest is the residence of the family, who sleep in distinct huts, distributed against the walls; every couple having a hut to themselves. The other part of the yourt, destined for the cattle, is no more than a kind of stable *.

In the idolatry of the Yakouts are united all the absurdities of the ancient Kamptschadales, Koriacs, Tchouktchis, and other neighbouring inhabitants: but they have some more solid principles, and amidst all their fictions and superstitious practices, may be traced some exalted ideas of the supreme being, and of future rewards and punishments. They delight in fables drawn from their absurd mythology, and they relate them with all the confidence of credulity itself. M. de Lessops has given two specimens of their allegorical ingenuity in his travels at large.

Remains of ancient tombs of the Yakouts were frequently pointed out to our author in the woods; they were clumsily put together, and suspended on the branches of trees. But, from some motive, they have renounced this custom of exposing their dead in the open air, and remote from their habitations. Their mode of interment is now similar to that of Christians.

The pomp displayed at funerals is more or less magnificent, according to the wealth and quality of the deceased: if a prince, he is decorated with his most splendid habit, and his exalted arms. The body, placed in a coffin, is conveyed by the family to the tomb, amidst their most solemn groans: his favourite horse, and another which is the best of his stud, both richly caparisoned, are led by the side of the corpse. When arrived at the place of interment, they are fastened to two stakes near the grave, and while the body of the master is conveying to the abode of clay, their throats are cut over the corpse. This sanguinary libation is the homage paid to his attachment to these animals, who are supposed to follow him. They are then flayed, and the hides fixed horizontally on the branches of trees near the grave. A fire is kindled, and the favoured animals are roasted and eaten on the spot; after which the company disperses. If the deceased should happen to be a woman, instead of horses they sacrifice her favourite cow: In other respects the ceremonial is the same.

The Yakouts are generally large and robust; strongly resembling the Tartars in their features. Their dress is simple, and almost the same in summer as in winter. Over their chemise they wear a large striped waistcoat with sleeves. Their breeches only extend to the middle of the thigh; but their boots, called *sarri*, reach above the knee.

Polygamy is admitted among these people: as they are accustomed to take frequent journies, a-

* A leathern trough is fixed in one corner of the yourt, into which they daily put mare's milk, and stir it about with a stick somewhat similar to what is used in churning butter. Every person who enters the apartment, more especially the women, stir the milk a few minutes before they attend to any other business. It is thus they procure that acid pleasant beverage, called *kounouiss;* which, if permitted to ferment, becomes a very potent liquor.

As his host spoke the Russian language with tolerable fluency, he drew from him some information respecting the manners, customs, and religion of his countrymen.—When summer commences, they quit their winter habitations, and with their families, and some horses collect fodder for the consumption of the frost season. In their absence, the other horses are left to the care of the servants, and the neighbouring pastures furnish an ample maintenance for their herds. Our author sincerely lamented that he was not present at their festival in the month of May, in which was celebrated the return of spring. They assemble in the open country, where they roast both oxen and horses; and, having provided a large quantity of fermented kounouiss, they eat and drink immoderately, dancing and singing at intervals, and terminating with necromances. In these festivals their chamans preside, and deal out their rodomontade predictions.

These sorcerers are more revered than in Kamptschatka. Regarded as interpreters of the Gods, they grant their mediation to the Yakout, who solicits it with fear and trembling, but never appears remiss in paying for it. Our author has seen these dupes make a present of their finest horse to convey a chaman to his village. Nothing can be more terrible than the magic exhibitions of these impostors. Knowing nothing of them but from report, he was desirous of being present, and he thus describes the chaman that exhibited before him—Dressed in a habit which was ornamented with bells and plates of iron, which made a horrible noise, he also beat upon a kind of tabor with so much violence that it was terrifying. He then ran staring about like a maniac, with his mouth open, and his head turned about in frantic motions. His black dishevelled hair concealed his face, and from beneath it alternate groans, tears, sobs, and peals of laughter, rapidly succeeded. These are the usual preludes of these revelations.

Yakout

Yakout has a wife in every place where he stops: but though they have this licence, they are extremely jealous, and the inveterate enemies of whoever shall dare to violate the rights of hospitality.

M. de Lessops found, when he awoke, nine excellent horses ready saddled, for which his best thanks were due to prince Girkoff. He requested he would ride his favourite horse, which ambled with the most perfect ease to the rider. Grateful for his favours and civilities, he left him early on the 27th, hoping to meet with more habitations than usual, that he might more frequently rest himself, and get a regular supply of steeds. In the evening he alighted at the house of another Yakout prince, who had just repaired to his summer habitation *.

On the 28th our author approached the river Sola, and rode upon its banks. The heat and flies incommoded him much; and he experienced such extreme thirst that he stopped at every yourt he saw, to get a supply of koumouiss. The next morning he reached Yarmangui, two hundred wersts from Amgui, and on the border of the Lena. By crossing this river he would have been at Yakoutsk; but by order of the governor, every traveller was required to wait here till he had permission to enter the town. He had reconciled himself to this regulation, when a snbaltern officer requested him to go a little farther, where he would find the inspector-general, and a lieutenant belonging to Mr. Billings. They were informed of his arrival, and received him with a countenance of joy: he represented to them that the threatened delay would counteract his views; in consequence of which they gave immediate orders for his being conducted to the other side of the river. About noon he entered the boat provided for him, and was four hours in crossing the Lena, the width of which appeared to be about two leagues.

On his landing, an officer of the police conducted him to the apartment which he thought proper to fix upon for his residence. Requesting to be directed to the house of M. Marklofski, the governor, he received the necessary information, and waited on him immediately. He received him with the utmost politeness, conversing entirely in French, and invited him to stay a few days at Yakoutsk, to recover from his fatigue. Among his obliging attentions, he requested our author to sup with him and Mr. Billings the same evening: having a strong desire to be acquainted with the latter, he waited with impatience till the hour arrived. Their profession of travellers gave them a degree of familiarity the moment they met; but they were both silent and reserved on the subject of their respective missions, carefully avoiding, in conversation, every circumstance that might lead to it.

Having been extremely fatigued with riding, our author was advised to sail up the Lena to Irkoutsk: approving of this advice, M. Billings assisted him in procuring a boat, ordered two sails to be made of his tent; and gave him a trusty soldier for a pilot; taking care also to furnish him with every thing that might be thought useful in his passage. The five days which our author remained at Yakoutsk were principally employed in preparations for his departure; but he had leisure to remark, that this town was the most pleasant and populous of any he had seen in the country through which he had passed.

Yakoutsk is built on the western side of the Lena; and the houses, which are large and commodious, are formed of wood. The churches are principally of stone. The port is formed by an arm of the river †, that flows under the walls of the town. Barks are the only vessels that trade here, and are principally used for transporting the provisions sent by government. The merchants hire these boats to convey their commodities from the neighbourhood of the source of the Lena.

This town is principally inhabited by Russians, the Yakouts seldom appearing in it but when their business demands their attendance. Having supplied

* It may not be deemed impertinent here to describe their *ourassis*, for such is the name appropriated to these picturesque dwellings. Like the yourts of the wandering Koriacs, they are circular, spacious, and constructed with poles, ranged in the same manner, and kept asunder by a kind of hoops at the top; the whole covered with the bark of the birch tree, formed into pieces, placed in a downward direction. These pieces are edged with a ribband, made of bark, and shaped into festoons; and the inside of the yourt is ornamented in the same manner. The nature of these ornaments, depends upon the taste or caprice of the proprietor. The chairs and beds are also thus embellished for the heads of families. The domestics sleep on mats upon the ground, and the fire is lighted in the middle of the house.

† The Lena crosses Siberia, almost in its widest part, and pours itself afterwards into the Frozen Ocean.

plied himself with a fresh stock of provisions, M. de Lessops left Yakoutsk on the 5th of July, at one * o'clock in the morning. Already the twilight announced the approach of the sun, and the sand banks which line this river as far as the first stage, could be distinctly seen. As they could not always be avoided, the men who conducted the boat were continually requesting all those who were in it, to place themselves in the water, and assist, like the conductors, in hauling it over the shoals. An account of every day's navigation will not be given, the observations it furnished not being sufficiently interesting.

The stages are estimated by stations, and are frequently thirty, forty, fifty, sixty, or seventy wersts. Hence a judgment may be formed of the labour of those who are condemned to this service. For twelve hundred wersts this severe employment is the punishment inflicted on convicts and malefactors. They share this labour with the horses. These culprits have no other relief than a small quantity of flour allowed by government. Many of these wretched beings are married, and retire with their families in ruined isbas, scattered along the right bank of the river. Seeking shelter from the rain, our author one day entered a miserable residence of this description, but was nearly overcome by the noxious air. Words cannot convey an idea of the shocking picture of misery that struck his eyes.

Fishing and hunting occupy the leisure hours of these outlaws, but they still preserve their vicious propensities. On the approach of a boat, they usually have recourse to flight, to escape the laborious service imposed upon them by government.

The travellers arrived at Olekma, on the 14th of July. This town was the first that our author had seen since his departure from Yakoutsk, though it is seven hundred wersts from it. It is a small ill-constructed place, situated at the mouth of a river of the same name. Leaving it in about two hours, a canoe came up to them, with only one man in it: He offered for sale some bark of the birch tree, which he had stripped in the neighbouring woods. This trader was a Toungouse, whose family was settled on the left bank.

Wishing to be better acquainted with these people, our author ordered his boat to be fastened on the right bank, and accompanied only by Golikoff, he entered the canoe of the Toungouse, who, as well as himself, was highly pleased with the favour of a visit which he intended to make to his relations †.

The Toungouses, like the wandering Koriacs, live in an unsettled manner. Their yourts are smaller, and are covered with the bark of the birch: in other respects there is no difference. Every family has a separate yourt. A small wooden idol is the chief ornamental piece of furniture; it is of the human shape, but has an enormous head, and is decorated with rings and bells. It is named Saint Nicholas, in allusion to the patron saint of Russia. The Toungouses are not so large as the Yakouts; but their eyes, flat nose, and broad face, resemble those of the Kamptschadales: they are hospitable, ingenious, and good-natured. In religion, they have the stupid credulity of the Koriacs.

After fishing and hunting, which oblige these people to be more settled, their attention is engrossed by their rein-deer. These animals constitute all their wealth, and provide them with food and clothing: Obedient to the hand that guides them, they permit their governors, whether men or women, to mount and ride them wherever they please‡. They train them up to carry in this manner, and yield obedience to the motions of a bridle twisted about their horns.

Our author's navigation became more agreeable when he had reached Pelodoui, a village inhabited by Russians. There he was relieved from the dangerous exiles, and was attended only by honest and assiduous peasants. Vitim was the next village he arrived at, but as it resembles all the Russian hamlets, it requires no particular

* In the northern latitudes there is hardly any perceptible terval between day and night for more than a week.

+ He was struck with the form and lightness of their noes, but the bottoms were so nearly circular as to present but little surface to the water, and consequently they e easily overset. The Toungouses were so exceedingly reiced to see him: they surrounded and welcomed him so illy, that he knew not how to answer their profuse professions of friendship. A young deer was killed and laid at his feet; and in making him this acceptable present, they lamented that their poverty deprived them of the ability of doing more. Our author, like these Toungouses, was not at that time able to be very bountiful in presents, but he testified his gratitude by leaving them some of his cloaths.

‡ Their journeys extend to the frontiers of Tartary and China.

description. Birds are numerous in the environs, and on the borders of the Lena. The clouds of gnats which cover them invite them thither.

As the bank became wider and more sandy, M. de Lessops and his party were frequently drawn by horses: the ropes were weak, but the pleasure of advancing inspired him with confidence. In the night of the 29th, his vessel touched upon a rock, which the darkness had concealed. The rope broke with the shock, the boat was in an instant full of water: with much difficulty it was drawn on shore by him and his assistants. Immediately our author mounted one of the horses, placing his box before him: he soon arrived at a village, where he was accommodated; and, his boat being refitted in the course of the day, he proceeded on his route the next morning.

His boat was afterwards broken a second time, and as hastily repaired: another day his rudder, which often struck against the bottom, was carried away. He took horses at Toutoura, and having passed through the village of Verkhalensk, he arrived the 5th, at two o'clock in the afternoon, at that of Katschouga. In this place travellers are provided with *kibiths**, or Russian, four wheel carriages, which are conducted by exiles, and occasionally by the Bratskis. Between this place and Irkoutsk an uncultivated district presents itself, inhabited solely by these Bratskis, who are only a colony of shepherds, said to be descended from the Tartars, whom they very much resemble. Their appearance is savage and ferocious, and they are extremely addicted to theft and robbery: their numerous flocks consist of oxen, horses, and sheep.

In passing over mountains, and through the most terrible roads, the faithful Golikoff was frequently obliged to cry out from the bruises and anguish he experienced, by the continual jolting of their infernal vehicle. At length Irkoutsk became visible, and the adventurers crossed a small arm of the river without coming out of the carriage. There he was detained by a centinel, who was so perfectly satisfied with the name and office of our author, given in writing, that he permitted him to go before him. It was in the evening of the 6th of August, that he entered this capital, having travelled, since he left Yakoutsk upwards of fifteen hundred wersts.

Alighting at the office of police to enquire for a lodging, the superintendant conducted him to a house, but the master of it, instead of obeying the orders which enjoined him to receive him, did not condescend to rise from his seat to mention his refusal. The officer was much irritated at this behaviour, and seemed determined to avenge his insulted authority; but, almost at that instant, the commandant of the place, Major Dolgopoloff arrived: he had heard of our author's arrival, and of the mortification he had experienced, and after making a thousand apologies for his being so indecently treated, conducted him to a very elegant apartment, furnished and ornamented with peculiar taste and splendour.

The next day the commandant presented our author to the governor, major-general Arsenieff, to whom he delivered the dispatches of M. Kasloff, as the governor-general was then at Petersburgh. M. Arsenieff received him with the most polite attentions, and insisted upon his having no other table. Finding the governor so willing to oblige him upon all occasions, he embraced this favourable opportunity of warmly recommending to him the soldier Golikoff. The service which this brave fellow had rendered his master, and his fidelity and zeal on a variety of trying occasions, sufficiently pleaded for him, and M. Arsenieff was anxious to secure himself so good a subject. But poor Golikoff† had not a wish beyond that of being incorporated in the garrison of Yakoutsk, where his father lived, and where he should be able to shew his attachment to M. Kasloff, under whose orders it would be his happiness to obey‡.

* These conveyances resemble a large cradle, but they are not hung upon any thing; a person, indeed, may lay down in them, but he feels every jolt of his cradle.

† During M. de Lessops' stay at Okotsk, M. Kokh, at his request, had conferred on him the rank of corporal. This unexpected favour made so strong an impression upon him, that on his return from the parade, he seemed to be almost frantic with gratitude and joy.

‡ This town, which is the capital of the government of Irkoutsk and Kolivania, is situated near the mouth of the Irkout. Within its extensive circumference many stone edifices are contained, and churches built of brick; the wooden houses are large and commodious; its population is numerous, and its society brilliant. The modes and customs of Petersburg are introduced here. Every person in office has an equipage, and rank and quality regulate the number of horses which are destined to their respective carriages. This town is the see of an archbishop.

He had no preparation to make for his departure, except that of purchasing a kibitk: and he was no longer concerned about provisions, knowing he could readily procure a regular supply of sustenance at every stage. The governor had supplied him with a *poradajency*, or Passport, as far as Petersburg. Having taken leave of M. Arsenieff, his son and M. Dolgopoloss insisted on conducting him to the first stage. When the travelling party were seated in their carriages, Golikoff approached him with tears in his eyes, and begged he might be permitted to accompany him as far as these gentlemen, as it was the noblest recompence he could bestow on him. He was so affected with this last instance of attachment in complying with his request, his pleasure was equal to that of Golikoff.

Our author crossed the river Angava in a ferry boat, and soon arrived at the place of their separation. While he repeated his thanks, and took leave of his two friends, M. Kasloff concealed himself behind the carriage, and endeavoured to conceal his tears, earnestly recommending our author to the care of the soldier who succeeded him. He fell at his feet, and seized the door of the carriage; nothing but force could tear him from it, and never did our author's sensibility experience so violent a shock. He departed with a very wounded heart, as he could not flatter himself that he should ever see him again.

Here the ingenious writer apologizes for the brevity which will be but too manifest in the future account of his travels, partly on account of the same country being already fully described by ingenious and impartial writers; and partly from inability, in point of leisure, to furnish a more ample detail of particulars. From this period, his observations are principally directed to what more immediately concerns himself.

He then proceeds to inform his readers, that he passed through a small canton inhabited by Bratskis. Beyond Oudinsk he arrived at Krasnoyark, where the axletrees of his carriage were repaired. He afterwards entered the desert called *Barabinskoi-step*. The post-service is performed by exiles. These unfortunate wretches exist like those who conducted M. de Lessops from Yakoutsk to Peledoui, and are equally indolent and ferocious. Accustomed to the fertile country about Irkhout, their eye cannot survey this barren waste without concern: perhaps this melancholy contrast may be ascribed to the sloth of the perverse inhabitants. The earth to which justice has banished them, seems reluctant to support them; its withered bosom refuses to assist their impious culture.

Our author crossed the Oka, the Yenisei, the Tom, and the Obi, which are the principal rivers of this province; on the last he narrowly escaped drowning. Before he arrived at Tobolsk*, he passed the Irtisch twice, the last time near the mouth of the Tobol. This capital, situated between the two rivers, would have been one of the handsomest towns in Siberia, had not a tremendous fire reduced the greater part of it to ashes. In quitting this town he passed the Irtisch a third time to reach Catharinebourg, where he remained till his carriage was again repaired; during which time he visited a neighbouring gold mine, and the place appropriated to the copper coinage. Our author then refers to several travellers for a description of the colonies of Tcheremisses, Tchouvaschis, Votiaguis, and Tartars. He only adds respecting these last, that the neatness of the inside of their houses astonished him These Tartars, who lead a tranquil life, are husbandmen, having a profusion of corn and cattle. They profess the Mahometan religion†.

The necessity of having his passport examined by the governor of Casan, and the difficulty of procuring horses, kept him in that town till break of day. The Wolga, which washes its walls, adds to the beauty of its situation. The houses are chiefly of wood, and the churches of stone. Beyond the Wolga, which is a river famous for its navigation, and which falls into the Caspian sea, our author passed between Rouzmodemiansk and Makarieff. The latter, though but a village, is celebrated for its linen manufactures. At a

* Mr. Pinkerton says Toboltsk contains about 15,000 souls, and is esteemed the capital of Siberia. Being mostly built of wood, it was nearly consumed by fire about 1786. *Mod. Geog.* ii. 57.

† The head-dress of the Tcheremisses is a small shell of wood, placed on the forehead near the root of the hair: this is fastened with a knot, and covered with an embroidered handkerchief, in which the most glaring colours have the preference. The handkerchief is large, and hangs loosely behind, edged with a broad fringe or lace of gold or silver, proportioned to the rank or opulence of the wearer. The rest of their dress resembles a robe de chambre.

small

small distance from it, he had just crossed an ill-constructed bridge, which trembled under his carriage, when his impatience had almost terminated his life. His postillion, animated by his repeated requests, drove him with great rapidity*. Hearing a sudden and violent stroke against the box of his kibith, he pushed his head forward and instantly received a blow which forced him back in his carriage. A cry, uttered by the courier who rode within, informed him that he was wounded.—A stream of blood ran down his forehead; the carriage stopped, and he alighted. It appeared that the circle of a wheel had broken, the edge of which had struck him with additional force in consequence of the speed. Applying his hand to the wound, he found it large and deep; and, supposing the skull was injured he considered himself as a dead man.

He now began to reflect on the cruelty of his fate: after surmounting so many obstacles, so many perils; and at the very gates of Petersburg, where he ardently longed to behold the best of fathers; on the eve of entering his native country, of acquitting himself of his embassy, by delivering his important dispatches, and to be struck by a mortal blow! The reflection overcame him, and he swooned. Recovering, he armed himself with courage, tied a bandage about his head, and causing the wheel to undergo a temporary repair, he proceeded.

He left his kibith in this village to the care of his soldier; and while his post-carriage was harnessing, he entered a public house, and had some brandy poured into his wound: a compress was also placed upon it, which enabled him to proceed to Nigenei-novogorod.

The surgeon major being absent from home, he was conducted into a filthy habitation to wait for him. Impatient of suffering, without being professionally informed respecting the nature of his wound, he asked if no other person could be found to administer relief. A *podleker*, or surgeon's mate, was recommended, who, after many difficulties, came to assist him. His address gave him no favourable opinion of his talents and sobriety; his bluntness and tottering gait pronouncing him a drunken man. In his alarming situation, though feeling some compunction at trusting himself in such hands, he consented to be probed, but the wretch had forgotten his instruments. A pin, however, was the probe borrowed for the purpose; and, after examination, he declared that his skull was laid open, but not fractured in the least; and that, with the application of brandy and water, he might proceed on his journey. This place has nothing particular in it to render it essentially different from any of the Russian towns. When our author passed through it, it boasted of the honour of having a company of comedians.

Arriving at Moscow, M. de Bosse wished to have our author's wound examined by the most eminent surgeons, whose report gave him confidence, though the pains in his head were very acute. His carriage being much shattered, he left it at Moscow, and travelled in the common post carriages; but they were small and incommodious. He passed by Iver, Vonischhei-volotschok, Novogorod, and Sophia near Tsarskocelo, and entered Petersburg on the 22d of September, having travelled six thousand wersts in forty days.

Conforming to the instructions of the count de Perouse, he delivered his packets into the hands of the court de Segur, minister plenipotentiary from the court of France to the empress. This minister not only received him most graciously, but interested himself in his health by the strongest marks of attention and affection. Charged with his dispatches, M. de Lessops left Petersburg the 26th. At Remer, as the weather was foul, he was eight hours in procuring watermen, to take him across an arm of the sea, called Courich-haff. He slept at Berlin; and at length arrived at Versailles on the 17th of October, at three o'clock in the afternoon. He alighted at the house of count de la Lucerne, and had the honour of being afterwards presented by him to his Majesty, who graciously condescended to interrogate him respecting various circumstances of his expedition, and rewarded him the next day by appointing him consul at Cronstadt.

* In no country are travellers driven with such rapidity as in Russia; the reason is plain; the postilions are always tipsy. In the villages, after harvest, it is necessary to take them forcibly from the public houses.

END OF LESSOP'S TRAVELS IN KAMPSCHATKA.

A

VOYAGE ROUND THE WORLD;

BUT MORE PARTICULARLY TO THE

NORTH-WEST COAST OF AMERICA.

Performed in 1785, 1786, 1787, and 1788.

IN THE

KING GEORGE AND QUEEN CHARLOTTE,

BY CAPTAINS PORTLOCK AND DIXON.

ABRIDGED FROM THE NARRATIVE, DEDICATED TO HIS MAJESTY.

BY CAPTAIN NATHANIEL PORTLOCK.

THE Dedication to his Majesty, prefixed to this performance, after descanting in the usual complimentary strain, on the essential use of Voyages of Discovery, adds, "To a people, whose renown and whose safety are derived from their shipping and navigators, the Voyages of Discovery, which your Majesty successively projected and atchieved, may be regarded as highly useful to your subjects, and beneficial to mankind. English seamen have been always celebrated for their bravery: your Majesty has, by those Voyages made them more skilful. They have ever been adventurous, but your Majesty has made them more safe."

Before the adventurer concludes his dedication, he judiciously adverts to the salutary methods recommended by the sovereign for the preservation of the health of seamen. "Your majesty has taught them," says this illustrious navigator, by your salutary intimation, "how to preserve their health in every climate."

SECTION I.

Observations on the Fur Trade—The King George's Sound Company established—Two Vessels purchased—Their Crews, and Names of the Officers—Passage to Portsmouth—Departure from Portsmouth—In Danger near the Caskets—Various Refreshments procured—Proceed on the Voyage—Arrival at St. Jago—Falkland's Islands—Method of extracting Oil from the Blubber—Arrive at Owhyhee.

THOUGH Captain Cook, with all his skill and perseverance, did not obtain the great object of his voyage to the western coast of America, the discovery of a practical passage from the North Pacific to the North Atlantic Ocean, he added many additional facts to philosophy, and opened to commerce several very extensive prospects. The voyages of this reign were prosecuted with disinterested views, and were liberally exposed to the world without reserve.

If Great Britain has formerly received information from the discoveries of France, the French are much indebted to them for having lately opened the whole globe to human eyes, and to human industry. But no sooner were the voyages of Cook, of Clerk, of Gore, and of King accomplished, and their respective narratives published, than a new expedition was, in 1785, dispatched from France, under the conduct of Perouse and De Langle, to glean on this ample

field what the misfortune of Cook had left unattained.

As early as 1781, Mr. Bolts attempted an adventure to the North Pacific Ocean, from the bottom of the Adriatic, under the emperor's flag; but this feeble effort of an imprudent man, failed prematurely, from causes which have not yet been sufficiently explained. The project of Bolts was afterwards adopted by the British subjects who are settled in Asia: they were naturally struck with the suggestion of Captain Cook, that an advantageous trade might be carried on from America to China for furs. A brig of sixty tons, with twenty men, under the command of James Hanna, was dispatched in pursuit of this flattering object, from the river of Canton in April 1785, and arrived in the subsequent August in Nootka Sound, the American mart for peltry. Whatever Hanna's success might have been in 1785, he performed a similar voyage in a larger vessel in 1786. In this year, the merchants of Bombay sent two vessels, under the direction of James Strange; and the traders of Bengal dispatched two vessels, which were commanded by the Lieutenants Mears and Tipping, to the American coast for furs, in the hope of Indian profits. These several adventures incited to similar pursuits the torpid spirit of the Portuguese at Macao, whose progenitors had been the discoverers, the conquerors, and the monopolists of the east*.

To carry this design into execution, the King George's Sound Company purchased a ship of three hundred and twenty tons, and a snow of two hundred tons; having thus a size and a burden which Captain Cook recommended as the fittest for distant employments. These vessels were immediately put into dock, that they might be fitted for so long a voyage. It was not, however, till the 8th of July that they were moored at Deptford: the best provisions were purchased, as being in effect the cheapest; and great attention was paid in providing such articles as would tend to preserve the health and comfort of the crews.

In the mean time the owners appointed their humble servants Nathaniel Portlock commander of the larger vessel, and George Dixon of the smaller; both of them having accompanied Captain Cook in his last voyage into the Pacific Ocean; and were therefore thought equal to such engagements. Other officers of competent talents were also selected, that they might be the better qualified to decide upon their respective merits. The novelty of this enterprise attracted the attention of many persons, eminent for talents or station, who countenanced this voyage, and strengthened the company by their approbation. When Sir Joseph Banks and Lord Mulgrave, Mr. Rose, and Sir John Dick came on board, the Secretary of the Treasury named the largest vessel the *King George;* and the president of the Royal Society gave the smallest the appellation of the Queen Charlotte. Besides the profits of traffick, or the advantages of discovery, this voyage was destined to other national objects. Several gentlemens' sons, who had manifested an inclination to a naval life, were put under the care of Captain Portlock, for the purpose of being early initiated in the knowledge of a profession, which requires long experience, as well as a supereminence of genius to arrive at perfection †.

Having most of their stores on board, they proceeded down the Thames to Gravesend on the 29th of August. The next morning the crews were

* These enterprises have proved important to the world by enlarging the limits of discovery, and rendering navigation more safe in the North Pacific Ocean: and by familiarising the South-Sea Islanders to European persons, manners, and traffic. In the present times the British, the French, and the Spaniards have at the same moment, busied themselves in searching every coast and creek, with the glorious purpose of benefiting the human race, by adding to their happiness. In May 1785, Richard Cadman Etches, and other traders, engaged in a commercial partnership, under the title of the King George's Sound Company, for conducting a fur trade from the western coast of America to China. This enterprise alone evinces what English copartnerships and English capitals could undertake and execute, were they less opposed by prejudice, and restrained by monopolists.

† List of the officers and men on board the KING GEORGE. Nathaniel Portlock, Captain; William Mc. Leod, John Christleman, Samuel Hayward, Mates. Surgeon James Hoggan. Assistant traders, Robert Hill, William Wilbie. Boatswain, Archibald Brown Carpenter, Robert Horne. Seamen and boys 50. Total 59.

On board the Queen Charlotte. Captain George Dixon. Mates, Ewen Carew, James Turner, George White. Surgeon, William Lauder. Assistant Trader, William Berresford. Steward, Henry Forrester. Boatswain, John Gatenby. Carpenter, John Sadler. Seamen 24. Total 33.

Mr. Evans, and Mr. Woodcock, two pupils from the Mathematical school in Christ's Hospital, were employed in taking views of remarkable lands, and in constructing charts of commodious harbours.

were paid their river wages, with a month's advance, and the ships came to anchor the same evening in the Margate Roads.

Adverse winds detained them for several days, but they arrived at Guernsey on the 20th of September, where they took in a considerable quantity of spirits, wine, and cider. At five in the morning of the 25th, they unmoored, and after encountering a heavy gale, they proceeded without any memorable occurrence, and arrived safe at St. Jago on the 24th of October, where they were amply supplied with water and refreshments.

After waiting on the commander of the fort, who is styled the "Captain Moor," and paying a port charge of four dollars for each vessel, Captain Portlock visited the two wells in the neighbourhood, both of which afforded excellent water. Having set the people busily to work in filling water-casks, and rafting them off to the boat, he again waited on the Captain Moor, accompanied by Captain Dixon. He knew not that he had given any cause of offence, but from the haughty and disrespectful manner in which he now conducted himself, he was convinced that he had by some means been disgusted. He seemed inclined to thwart him in every reasonable request, and though the day was extremely sultry, he appeared unwilling to grant him a little water to drink: but, when the captain intimated a resolution of waiting on the governor, who resided at some distance from Praya, to inform him of this improper treatment of the subjects of a friendly power, he thought proper to relax a little, and civilly permitted him to trade with the inhabitants. The remainder of the day was employed in purchasing hogs, sheep, goats, and oranges, with which the market was tolerably supplied.

The watering of both the ships being completed, the captain resolved to continue here two days longer, to give the crews an opportunity of recreating themselves on shore; being convinced that such a measure would have a salutary effect on them, especially at a place where no great quantity of spirituous liquors was to be procured.

The business at this place being at length completed, and the crew in excellent health, the captain proposed sailing the first opportunity. At day-light on the 29th they unmoored, and pursued their voyage.

Saint Jago, though generally mountainous, appears to be a very fine island; but the professional duties of our navigators would not permit them to make excursions into the interior parts: the vallies seem fertile, and well calculated for producing sugar cane. Cotton is raised here; and some of the natives appear to be industrious, but they are exceedingly oppressed by the Portuguese soldiers, who impose an exorbitant toll on the unhappy countrymen who bring their commodities to market. Refreshments of all kinds are tolerably plentiful, and might be purchased at very reasonable prices, were it not for those oppressions, which seem to be without remedy from an inattentive government*.

On the 15th of December, they passed a great number of spermaceti whales; a large piece of bark, which seemed to have been recently separated from the tree, was observed floating in the water; and albatrosses, with a number of birds entirely white, were seen flying about in every direction. During the forenoon of the 20th the water was very much discoloured, but as there is no known land near the situation they were in, they did not choose to interrupt their progress by sounding. They saw a shark, many silver-coloured birds, and several whales.

From this time to the 2d of January 1786, they had very tempestuous weather, attended with violent squalls: they were often induced to sound, but never got any bottom with 120 fathoms line. Early in the morning of the 2d, they got soundings in 72 fathoms water, and immediately afterwards saw Falkland's Islands, about seven leagues distant.

On the 4th of January they came to anchor at Falkland's Islands, where they found a tolerably good harbour, and other conveniences for watering, with a sandy bottom in twelve fathoms water. Here all hands were permitted to go on shore, and had a double allowance of brandy; some fresh pork being also killed on the occasion. Some of them made excursions into several parts

* On the 15th of November David Gilmore, a boy about ten years of age, fell overboard from the weather main shrouds, and, being unable to swim, dropped astern. Every effort was a long while ineffectually put in practice for his preservation; but a boat at length picked him up, when he was about two hundred yards from the vessel, and had been eight or ten minutes in the ocean; fright and fatigue had almost deprived him of existence.

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of the country, and discovered the ruins of a town, surrounded with garden-ground; where many sorts of vegetables were observed; such as horse-radish, shallots, celery, and small potatoes; but many of these articles appeared to be somewhat in a degenerate state: our navigators also saw a hog, but they found him too wild and active to suffer himself to be captured.

From this time till the 14th, the ship's companies were engaged in several necessary employments. A number of seals and sea-lions were killed, for the sake of their skins and blubber; and liberty was given to the people to go on shore at every opportunity.

At nine in the evening of the 15th, a sloop arrived in the harbour, and anchored off the town. The next morning Captain Coffin came on board the King George, and informed Captain Portlock that his sloop is named the Speedwell, and is tender to a ship called the United States, commanded by Captain Hussey, now lying at Swan Island, in company with the Canton, Captain Whippy: the United States having 300 tons of oil on board, and the Canton about half that quantity.

The principal part of their oil is procured from animals which they call sea elephants; these are certainly amphibious, as they usually frequent sandy bays. A large animal of this kind yields about half a ton of oil, which is produced without boiling, the blubber is so exceedingly free. From the description given by the late Captain Cook of an animal he saw at New Georgia, it was clearly a sea-elephant; and there is every reason to suppose they may be found in that island in great plenty*.

Every essential business being now completed, the captain was determined to get to sea immediately; but having occasion to send one of his mates on board the Speedwell, he returned with a message from Captain Coffin, informing him that Captain Hussey had, on board the United States, six or seven thousand fur seal-skins, which would be disposed of at a moderate rate. Not willing to neglect an opportunity of making an advantageous purchase, Captain Portlock sent immediately for Captain Dixon to consult him on the business.

After some deliberation Captain Portlock accompanied Captain Dixon to the Speedwell, to have some conversation with Captain Coffin respecting the skins; but the information he then gave them respecting them, amounted to little more than what he had before said of them in the message. The day being far spent, and their distance from the ships considerable, they remained on board the Speedwell all night. Captain Portlock embraced the earliest opportunity which presented itself, of having some conversation with Captain Hussey respecting the purchase of his fur seals; but they perceived that he was not disposed to part with them, dropping an intimation that he meant them for an Eastern market†.

Having furnished themselves with what necessaries they could procure at Falkland Islands, with a fine southerly breeze, they weighed anchor, and came to sail on the 23d of January. They run clear of Ball Island, which is situated on the west side of the entrance into Swan Island Bay, and then shaped their course for New Island. Captain Hussey communicated the following intelligence to Captain Portlock, "—that most of the springs at New Island are rendered brackish by a very heavy sea, which constantly sets in with a westerly wind, the spray of which flies over the beach, and mixes with the fresh-water springs."

In the afternoon of the 26th, they saw Staten's Land very high, bearing south, distant about six leagues. At midnight they tacked, and at two in the morning of the 27th, they again saw Sta-

* The feathered tribes which inhabit these islands, are numerous, and contain a great variety, but most of them are already well known. Captain Portlock procured specimens of the *Yellow-winged bunting*, the *Rusty-crowned plover*, and the cinereous lark. The yellow-winged bunting is nearly the size of a yellow hammer: the length five inches and a half: the bill brown; the plumage on the upper part of the body, a reddish brown: the legs yellow.

The rusty-crowned plover, is nearly of the size of the *ringed plover*; its length about seven inches and a half; bill three quarters of an inch long, and black; the forehead, chest, fore-part of the neck, and the upper part of the breast and belly, white. Behind the black bar on the top of the head, is a circle of rusty iron colour, surrounding the back part of the head as a wreath. The legs are black.

† In accompanying Captain Hussey to the north side of States Bay, Captain Portlock found a sea-elephant, which at once convinced him that those animals they saw at Kerguelen's Land were really sea-elephants, and that they were much mistaken in calling them sea-lions. The elephant was killed with the greatest ease imaginable; but at the north point of the bay, many of the sea-lions were drawn up in a kind of rank on the beach, and disputed their passage with the greatest ferocity.

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ten's Land. Soon after they doubled the east point of Staten's Land, and steered south by west by compass, to get a good offing; not choosing to keep near the shore, on account of the strong current which sets through the straits of La Maire *.

On the 22d of February, the weather being remarkably fine, the captain ordered the sailors' hammocks to be brought upon deck, and their bedding to be completely aired; convinced that inattention to things of this nature often occasions fatality among seamen. It is the general opinion of navigators, that south-west winds usually prevail in this part of the Pacific Ocean; but our navigators experimentally found this opinion to be erroneous, the wind, for a considerable time past, having blown from the northward and westward; and generally in strong gales, attended with squalls.

In the afternoon of the 21st of March, Captain Portlock sent a boat on board the Queen Charlotte for Captain Dixon: he came on board the King George, and they agreed to stand on directly for Los Majos, an island discovered by the Spaniards. This island being but little out of their track, induced Captain Portlock to steer for it, thinking there was a probability of meeting with a good harbour and water, which would enable them to refit their vessels, and refresh the crews; without running down to the Sandwich Islands, that were considerably out of their course. At the same time they appointed Owhyhee as their place of rendezvous, if they should separate before they arrived at Los Majos; there to wait ten days for each other, and if not joined during that period, to sail for King George's Sound.

From this time till the 10th of April, little variety occurred: on that afternoon they passed a turtle, and the captain sent Mr. Mc. Leod, his first mate, after it: he brought it on board, but it had been dead some time, and was almost in a state of putrefaction: it was consequently thrown overboard, and the navigators were much disappointed in their expected dainty; but to console themselves under this disappointment, they picked up a very lively one on the 15th, weighing sixty-five pounds, which was caught just in time to furnish them with a banquet for Easter Sunday.

Notwithstanding every precaution, the scurvy made its appearance among the people; the boatswain was indeed so much afflicted with it, that his recovery was thought extremely doubtful: fortunately, however, it happened, that some small salad, such as mustard and cresses, which Captain Portlock had sown in several casks of mould procured at Falkland's Islands, was now in the height of perfection. He had also some horse-radish, and potatoes, in the same state: these things were given to the boatswain, which effectually checked his disorder, and his health and strength gradually returned. This unwholesome weather, had also affected the health of several seamen on board the Queen Charlotte: and Captain Dixon, in particular, was much disordered; and when Captain Portlock paid him a visit on board the Queen Charlotte, he found his disorder to be the scurvy. On his return, he sent him a cask of mould, with salad growing in it; together with some krout, garden seeds, and a few bottles of artificial mineral water, prepared by Dr. Melville, in imitation of Seltzer water, supposed to be a most excellent antiscorbutic †.

With a fine breeze they steered west by south to make Owhyhee, the principal of the Sandwich

* Seals were observed in considerable numbers, and many pieces of rock-weed were seen about the ship. On the 1st of February Captain Portlock struck a very remarkable fish; the hind part and tail resembled those of a shark; its nose was similar to that of a porpoise: he could not describe it more minutely; for in struggling it extricated itself from the harpoon, after being struck near half a minute.

† A number of the ship's crew were now attacked by the scurvy; the symptoms of which were a stiffness about the knees and hams, afterwards the shin-bones became sore; and in a few days, the parts which had before been stiff, began to swell and turn black; the mouth becoming sore at the same time.

As there are few instances of a person recovering from an advanced stage of the scurvy, whilst at sea, Captain Portlock thus mentions the regimen his boatswain was under during his illness.—"Besides the assistance he received from Mr Hogan my surgeon, who was very skilful in his profession, he had for his breakfast a pint of sweetwort, with some soft bread, which I ordered to be made for him. About ten o'clock he gathered some small salad from the little garden: this he ate with vinegar: for dinner he had portable soup with barley, celery seed, mustard seed, mustard, cress, and rape seed boiled in it; besides which, he ate plentifully of krout. These things had so good an effect, that in a fortnight he was able to do his duty as usual: Captain Dixon likewise grew better, though slowly; and he attributed this favourable turn of his disorder chiefly to the mineral water prepared by Dr. Melville, a few bottles of which I sent him."

Islands. They expected to have fallen in with the islands of Los Majos, from the situation they are laid down in; but no such islands were to be found in that track. They made their way, therefore, as fast as possible to Owhyhee, where they arrived on the 24th of May; when a number of the natives came off in their canoes, and brought with them some small hogs, and a few plantains, which were purchased for beads and small pieces of iron. A great quantity of their fishing lines were also purchased, some of which were about four hundred fathoms long. The Indians traded cheerfully and honestly; and, after taking a general survey round the ship, returned to the shore extremely well satisfied.

SECTION II.

Proceed along the Coast of Owhyhee—Arrive at Karakakooa Bay—Behaviour of the Natives—Arrive at Woahoo—Supplied with Water by the Natives—Arrive at Onehow—Transactions there—Method of salting Pork—Meet with Russian Settlers—Abundance of Salmon.

KARAKAKOOA Bay being the only harbour our navigators knew of at Owhyhee, they were anxious to make it as soon as possible, which they expected to have accomplished the next day, but were disappointed by variable winds and frequent squalls. Soon after the close of day, a number of fires were observed all along the shore, which were supposed to have been lighted in order to alarm the country: it is customary for the natives, however, to light fires when they make offerings to their Gods for success in war; and this might possibly be the case at present; but they had observed a shyness in the people, as they approached Karakakooa, frequently enquiring after Captain King; and seemed, by their behaviour, to suppose they were arrived to revenge the death of Captain Cook.

On the 26th of May an inferior chief came on board, who informed them that Tereeoboo, was king of Owhyhee, when Captain Cook was killed in that island, and that the present king's name was Maiha Maiha: he strongly urged Captain Portlock to go on shore; but, on his declining it, he assured him that the king would pay him a visit the next day: the captain paid little attention to this piece of intelligence, as it was not probable that Maiha Maiha would venture on board, after the active part he took in that unfortunate affray, which terminated in the death of Captain Cook.

Many canoes came along-side, and the people were extremely importunate to come on board: they behaved in a daring and insolent manner, and could hardly be prevailed on to quit the ship: all this, however, was endured with patience, not choosing to have recourse to violence, if it could possibly be avoided; but the captain was afraid he should not be able to do the necessary business at Karakakooa with ease and safety, and particularly that of filling their water, and getting the sick people on shore.

As they approached the harbour great numbers of canoes joined them; and as many of them were hanging by their ship, their progress was so much retarded, that it was four in the afternoon before they came to anchor. When they had anchored, they were immediately surrounded by an amazing number of the natives, both in canoes, and in the water; they grew extremely troublesome, constantly crawling up the cable, and the ship's sides. During this time no principal chief made his appearance, which was much to be regretted; for had any person of consequence been on board, the rest would have been kept in order, and the business properly conducted.

In the afternoon they procured a number of fine hogs, a quantity of salt, plantains, potatoes, and taro; which last was the finest they had ever seen. Bread-fruit was scarce, and what they obtained of it was very indifferent. At night fires were kindled all round the bay, and the people on shore appeared to be in perpetual motion: several canoes were continually about the ship, and, about midnight, one of the natives brought off a lighted torch, seemingly in order to set fire to it; but being driven away, he paddled to the Queen Charlotte; where they being equally on their guard, he again resorted to the shore.

Early the next morning they were visited by a vast

vast multitude of the natives, but no chiefs accompanied them who had influence sufficient to keep them in order; they grew so extremely daring and insolent, that the captain was obliged to place centinels with cutlasses to prevent their boarding them. This unexpected reception convinced them that nothing could be done on shore, without the protection of a strong guard; and their taking a step of such a nature might probably be attended with fatal consequences. After consulting with Captain Dixon on this business, it was resolved on to quit Karakakooa with all imaginable expedition.

Exclusive of the vast concourse of Indians that were assembled about the ships, immense numbers were collected on shore; some on the beach, and others on the top of a lofty hill which commands the watering-place; and there also appeared to be many chiefs among them. At nine o'clock Captain Portlock gave orders to unmoor, but the crowd was so great round the ship, that their boats could hardly pass to the buoys. It now became absolutely necessary to drive them away: and Captain Portlock wished to deter them without injuring them; after drawing out the shot, they fired six four pounders, and six swivels; at the same time their colours were hoisted, and the ship tabooed by hoisting a white flag at the main-top-gallant mast head. This measure was found effectual; for immediately on their beginning to fire, the Indians made for the shore with confusion and precipitation: in the extreme hurry and bustle, many of the canoes were overset; but the owners did not stay to right them, swimming rapidly on shore without them *.

Several canoes continued to attend the ships; some of them bringing off water, in calabashes, which our navigators purchased with nails. During the night of the 29th of May, they stood off and on, with variable winds and hazy weather. The natives of Owhyhee still following the vessels with hogs and vegetables. At three o'clock in the morning on the 31st of May they wore and stood in for the land; but when day-light appeared, Captain Portlock was surprised to find that he had been driven, during the night, eight or nine leagues to the south-west; and instead of fetching in with the west point of Morotoi, as the Captain expected, he was hardly able to weather the east point of Woahoo. At length, however, they anchored in the bay, which the captain distinguished by the name of King George's Bay, in twelve fathoms water; the east point of which was denominated Point Dick, in honour of Sir John Dick; the west point being named Point Rose, after George Rose, esquire, secretary of the treasury.

Soon after their arrival, several canoes came off with cocoa nuts, plantains, sugar cane, and sweet root; in return for which they received small pieces of iron, and a few trinkets. The next morning a greater number of canoes appeared about the ship, having small hogs and some vegetables. Great numbers of the natives, of both sexes, impelled by curiosity, anxiously visited them, notwithstanding they were so far distant from the shore.

As watering the ships was become an object of the first consideration, a convenient spot was sought for that purpose. They landed on some rocks, just round Point Dick, and met with no opposition from the inhabitants: on the contrary, they were kindly received, and conducted to a sort of bason formed by the rocks, about fifty yards from the place where they landed; but the quantity they found was insufficient even for a present supply. Finding, at length, that they could not water near this spot, without an infinite deal of trouble, besides the danger of losing their casks, and getting the boats dashed to pieces against the rocks, they gave up the idea of watering here.

In the morning of the 3d of June, Captain Portlock dispatched Mr. Hayward and Mr. White, in a boat from each ship, to examine the west part of the bay for a landing place, and fresh water. In their excursion, some of the natives supplied them pretty briskly with water, and some of their calabashes contained about ten gallons; for one of which a ten-penny nail was given, which could not be thought unreasonable. In the afternoon the boats returned, and Mr. Hayward.

* They had now an opportunity of unmooring without molestation, and about eleven o'clock, began to warp out of the bay to the westward, till they were at the distance of about three leagues from Karakakooa, where they were instantly surrounded by a great number of canoes, with plenty of hogs and vegetables. Many of their people were now employed in killing and salting down hogs for sea-stock; their present situation being much more convenient for carrying on that business than the harbour: Here they had a fine free air; in the bay it was close and sultry.

ward reported, that he found only a pond of standing water, which could not be got at without much difficulty. Towards evening the surgeons returned on board with the convalescents, and informed the captain that the inhabitants had behaved quietly and inoffensively, and that there was no danger of their being molested; they admitted, however, that they were rather incommoded by the immense number which curiosity had collected together.

The inhabitants now brought them water in such abundance, that, about noon on the 4th, they had filled all their empty casks, having procured twenty-nine buts, eight hogsheads, and three brandy pieces, which contained one hundred and thirty gallons each. As good water may be procured at this island, with great facility, for small nails and buttons, it is a method which seems worthy of adoption. Potatoes and taro are to be met with here in great plenty; bread fruit and yams appeared to be scarce.

Having completed their water, and obtained such refreshment as Woahoo afforded, they determined to lose no time in proceeding to Onehow, to get a supply of yams which that island produces in abundance. On the morning of the 5th, they weighed and stood to the westward, under an easy sail. As they approached Point Rose, a vast number of canoes joined them: when they were a-breast of Point Rose, their old friend the priest came on board, in a large double canoe, to take his leave; bringing with him an excellent feathered cap as a present for Captain Portlock from Taheeterre, in return for which he sent him two large towees, and some other trivial articles. He also gave the old priest a light-horseman's cap, and another to a young chief who had been a constant visitor on board since their arrival; being desirous of shewing any future navigators who might happen to touch here, that the place had been recently visited by British ships. The guests were exceedingly delighted with their presents, and after many professions, took their leave, and went to shore*.

As their daggers are very dangerous and destructive weapons, the captain would not suffer any to be made in either of the ships, though frequently importuned by the natives for that purpose. He always thought it a very imprudent action to furnish the Indians with weapons which might be turned against themselves; and his suspicions were but too well founded; for by one of the daggers, which was given by them to the natives of Owhyhee, their much lamented commander Captain Cook was killed; after a series of years spent in the service of his country, and for the benefit of mankind in general.

He, unfortunately set the example, by causing some to be made after the model of the Indian pahoos; and this practice was afterwards followed by every person who could procure iron enough to make one; so that the armourer, during their continuance at these islands, was almost wholly employed in making these destructive weapons.

Since the year 1778, when the Sandwich Islands were discovered, almost a total change in the government took place. It appeared that Taheeterre, the present king of Woahoo, was the only surviving monarch then left among the islands. He was then only king of Morotoi, and Peereeoranna, who then governed Woahoo, was at war with him, and had dispatched a number of fighting canoes to attack his dominions. Peereeoranna's forces appear to have been defeated on this occasion, for presently afterwards Taheeterre took possession of Woahoo; and, flushed with his success, attacked and conquered the island of Mowee, which is now annexed to his dominions. Tereeoboo, who was then king of Owhyhee and Mowee, fell in battle, in defence of his dominions. There appears to be no reason to doubt of what is here advanced; for Maiha Maiha, the present king of Owhyhee, when our navigators were last there, was only an inferior chief, and is now, as Captain Portlock understands, in some measure subject to Taheeterre. Besides which, the Woahoo chiefs having left in their possession most of the daggers that had been left at Owhyhee, amounts almost to a proof of their having

* Captain Portlock is of opinion that Woahoo is the finest island in the whole group, and the most likely to prove advantageous, should it be settled by Europeans; there being hardly a spot in it which does not appear fertile. Warriors, and war-like instruments, were seen here in abundance; and many of the former were tattooed in a manner totally different from any the captain had ever seen among the Sandwich Islanders: by excess of tatooing, many of the faces of the natives were rendered totally black.

having been victorious; and the natives of these islands seem determined never to part with their weapons but at the expence of their lives*.

In the morning of the 7th of June, they bore away and made sail from the westward. The land on the east and south-east part of Atooi, rises gradually from the sea-side, till it terminates in the high land. On the eastern shore there are a few small sandy bays, but they afford no shelter for ships to ride in. After passing the south-east point the land appeared to be generally well cultivated. Several canoes were about the ship, from which they procured a few vegetables; but the surf ran so high on the beach, that the natives could not bring off any considerable quantity†.

In the morning of the 9th they were surrounded by canoes, abundantly supplied with yams and sugar cane. A chief, named Abbenooe, whom Captain Portlock knew when he was at this island before, also paid him a visit, and recognised his old acquaintance, the moment he appeared on board. Having appointed half a dozen persons to trade with the natives for yams, the captain went on shore in search of the wells mentioned by Mr. Bligh, accompanied by Abbenooe as a guide. On their landing, a number of the natives appeared upon the beach, but they were permitted to walk to the wells without the least molestation. After proper examination, they found that the water of one of these wells was brackish and stinking; the other afforded good water, but in no great quantity. On this occasion, Captain Portlock says, "I would recommend it to all ships watering among Indians, to have a sufficient number of casks hooped with wood instead of iron, for the purpose of filling on shore. By this means much mischief might be avoided; for the Indians, having no temptation to steal them, probably would behave in a peaceable manner, and might safely be trusted to assist in rolling the casks ‡."

Though Onecheow belongs to Táaao: king of Atooi, Abbenooe governs it in his absence. Captain Portlock made the old man a present of some red baize, and two large towes, which he sent away immediately to Táaao at Attooi. The messenger informed him that Táaao himself intended to have paid him a visit, but that he could not leave Attooi for several days, being obliged to perform some religious ceremonies for one of his wives, who was lately dead. But they had very little reason to regret the absence of his majesty, for Abbenooe kept the natives in excellent order, and encouraged them to bring whatever the island afforded; and after the people of Attooi had disposed of their cargo, he sent them back for a further supply.

Anxious to make Táaao some further acknowledgment for his salutary supplies, he sent him, as a present, a light-horseman's cap; this, however, was not thought a sufficient recompence by Abbenooe, who strongly importuned Captain Portlock to send with it an armed chair, which was a part of the furniture of the cabin, as it would be extremely convenient for one of the king's wives, who had lately laid in. He readily complied with his friend's request, and dispatched the chair and cap to Atooi, in the charge of special messengers. Their business now proceeded regularly, and the trading party were fully employed in bartering for yams and other refreshments: others were wholly occupied in killing and salting hogs for sea stock. Since

* From the best information that could be procured, it appeared, the principal of the Sandwich Isles, were at this time governed by the following persons: Wooahoo, Morotoi, and Mowee, were subject to Taheeterre; Maiha Maiha governed Owhyhee and Rannai; and a chief, whose name was said to be Ta'aao, was king of Atooi and Onechow.

† As Atooi was known to afford plenty of hogs and other refreshments, they stood in for Wymoa Bay, where Captain Cook anchored the last voyage; being desirous of procuring some good hogs for salting; but being disappointed, they proceeded to Onechow under all the sail they could carry. No sooner were they moored, than several canoes visited them, bringing yams, sweet potatoes, and a few small pigs, for which nails and beads were given in exchange. Among the people in these canoes, several faces were recognised which had been seen before; particularly that of an old priest, in whose house a party of our Europeans had taken up their abode, when detained all night on shore by a heavy surf.

‡ After examining these wells, Captain Portlock made an excursion into the country, accompanied by Abbenooe, and a few of the natives. The island seems to be well cultivated, but its principal produce are yams: a few trees are irregularly scattered without order or variety. Some are about fifteen feet high, and have a smooth bark, with round leaves, and bear a kind of fruit resembling a walnut. Another kind were about nine feet high, with blossoms of a beautiful pink colour. Another variety had nuts growing on them, like our horse-chesnuts. The last sort are in use as a substitute for candles, and afford a most excellent light.

their arrival here, such of the seamen as were convalescent were daily sent on shore, and received much benefit from exercise and land air. The inhabitants at this island are not numerous, and they are under such perfect regulation by Abbenooe, that the people walked about wherever their inclination led them, without the least molestation.

Not only hogs and vegetables, but salt-fish of various kinds were brought to market, such as rock-cod and bonetta: some curious fly-flaps were also to be purchased, the upper part composed of beautiful variegated feathers; the handles were of human bone, neatly inlaid with tortoise-shell.

By the 12th of June they had bought about thirty hogs, weighing, on an average, not less than sixty pounds each: they were principally brought from Atooi, and were salted for sea store, as they were daily supplied with sufficient for present consumption. The method of curing pork in tropical climates was given by Captain Cook; but his plan is not generally known: Captain Portlock therefore mentions the mode he adopted, and says he found it answer his most sanguine expectations. Three different parties were employed in this business; and the best time for killing, was about three in the afternoon, and again in the cool of the evening. An awning was placed over those employed in killing and salting, that the sun may not prove injurious. One party having cleaned the hogs well, another set takes the bones entirely out, cuts away all the bruised parts and blood-vessels, and divides the meat into four or six pound pieces; at the same time making incisions in several parts of the skin, to admit the salt freely. Those pieces were then delivered to the salters, who rubbed them thoroughly with good white salt, and afterwards stowed them on some hatches that were fixed as a kind of temporary stage, about two feet from deck.

A quantity of meat being placed on this stage, it was covered with canvass and boards, on which heavy weights were placed. Thus it remained till the morning, by which time all the blood was pressed out, and the meat was hard and firm. Every piece was then carefully examined, and if any parts appeared to be tainted, they were cut away, and fresh salt rubbed on. The pork was then packed in casks filled up with very strong pickle, and pressed again with heavy weights. After having remained in casks about twenty-four hours, it was repacked, filled up with fresh pickle, and put away for future use. Some pork that had been salted at Owhyhee, was examined after it had been packed a week, and found perfectly sweet and fine. The bones were broke, rubbed well with salt, and afterwards put into strong pickle; the flesh being cut from the heads, it was dry salted, and kept extremely well.

Several whole sides, after the bones were taken out, were salted without pickle, and they made very excellent bacon*.

By this time they had procured about ten tons of excellent yams, and Captain Dixon had got eight tons on board the Queen Charlotte. The health of both ships' crews was now perfectly re-established, and every business completed, no time was therefore lost in making preparation for the sea; as the season for commencing operations on the American coast, was already begun. At five in the morning of the 13th of June they unmoored, and at eight they got under sail, standing out for the bay, which obtained the name of Yam Bay, from the quantity of yams that were observed there. As their visit to the Sandwich Islands was a transient one, little information could be procured respecting the manners and customs of the natives,

Among the refreshments which these islands abounds with, besides hogs, sweet potatoes, taro, yams, &c. already mentioned, the sweet root, or tee, is met with in great abundance at Woahoo; it deserves to be particularly noticed, as very good beer may be made from it; which, after two or three trials, Captain Portlock says, he brought to perfection. The utility of this root was not known to our navigators in the last voy-

* In addition to the above, Capfain Portlock makes the following remarks:—"I shall just observe, that after the hogs are killed, they cannot be too expeditiously cleaned and salted; for on that the safety of the meat principally depends, though I believe in most countries where much pork is cured, they usually leave it to cool before the salt is laid on. This method, however, is certainly a bad one; for I have known a house in Virginia, by following it, to lose near six hundred hogs at one time; whereas, had they began salting while the meat was warm, and the blood running, I have every reason to think that the greatest part, if not all of it, would have been preserved."

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age, but it may not improperly be mentioned in this place: The root was peeled very clean, cut into small pieces, and put into a kettle, six of the large roots being found a sufficient quantity for twelve gallons of water. This was put on the fire at three in the afternoon, and, having boiled an hour and a half, was put away to cool. By the time the liquor was luke-warm, a gill of prepared yeast was added, and the beverage then put in a cask. It generally began to work about midnight, and by nine in the morning it was pleasant and palatable. This beer was constantly drank by such of the seamen as were affected with the scurvy, and they found great benefit from it. It is useful as a common drink, and is a most excellent antiscorbutic.

They stood to the north-north-west, along the west side of Oneehow, which form several sandy bays, seeming to afford shelter and good anchorage. About ten o'clock their good old friend Abbenooe took his leave, and all the canoes departed; on which occasion they fired ten guns, and hoisted their colours.

On the 22d of June, they saw a great number of petrels of a sooty colour, and about the size of a pigeon. On the 28th Captain Portlock went on board the Queen Charlotte, to appoint a rendezvous for the ships in case of a separation, the weather being thick and hazy. They fixed on a situation in Cook's River, near Cape Bede. This situation was a very eligible one, there being a probability of finding a good harbour there; and which ever vessel happened to arrive there first, would be able to make signals to the other on her entering the river.

On the 28th the water altered its colour, and had the appearance of soundings; but when they sounded with a line of 120 fathoms, they got no bottom. The next morning a number of seals were seen playing round the ship, but their distance from America was so great that they could not think these animals came from thence, or from any known islands near the coast: there was great reason to suppose they were near some land which has not yet been discovered. They had daily seen seals, whales, and porpoises, with a great number of petrels, and various other birds: they often sounded with a line of 150 fathoms, but found no bottom; nor was there any appearance of land. Captain Portlock struck one of the seals that were playing about the ship, and got it on board: its fur was so very close and fine, that the captain, at first sight, imagined it to be a sea-otter.

On the 19th they were greatly surprised to hear the report of a great gun from the shore: it was now so very thick over the land, that they could not see the smoke of the gun; but they fired a gun, and hoisted their colours, and presently afterwards fired another, supposing it would be answered. On their firing the second gun, another was fired from the shore, in the direction of east, three quarters south. It now seemed very clear that some person had got to this place before our navigators, at which Captain Portlock was not a little chagrined. Soon after which they perceived a boat rowing towards the ships; on which they tacked, and stood in shore to meet her. By seven o'clock, the strangers came on board, and were found to be Russians.

Having no person on board who understood the Russian language, they could gather but little information. It seemed, however, that they last came from Kodiac, and proceeded to Cook's River in boats. The harbour which they intended to make, the Russians informed them, was a very good one; and they offered to take a person from the ship in their boat, to examine it. Their offer being accepted, Mr. Mc. Leod was sent with them to examine the harbour, and sound the entrance. The Russians left them between eight and nine o'clock, and immediately afterwards they came to anchor, in thirty-five fathoms water. At four in the morning of the 20th, the Russian boat returned with Mr. Mc. Leod, who informed Captain Portlock that the harbour was a very good one, and that there was a safe passage into it on either side of the small island at the entrance.

After examining the spot, he landed on a beach where the Russians had taken up their abode: as they had nothing more than tents, covered with canvas, or skins to live in, it should seem they only continue here during the summer season. He observed but few sea-otter skins among them, and they appeared green, as if they had been recently stripped from the animal. The Russian party consisted of twenty-five men; though they associated with a number of Indians, who were on the most friendly terms with them.

The Russian chief brought Captain Portlock a present of a quantity of very fine salmon, sufficient for the consumption of both ships, for a whole

whole day; for which he presented him some excellent yams, and instructed him how to dress them: these were accompanied with some beef, pork, and a few bottles of brandy. He expressed his gratitude as well as he was able, and returned on shore, perfectly satisfied with his reception*.

On the 21st of July Captain Portlock went on shore, in search of a convenient place for wooding and watering the ships. He found abundance of wood, and several excellent runs of water. None of the natives had yet made their appearance; but, as the Russians were continually on their guard from their apprehensions of being surprised by the Americans, Captain Portlock thought it prudent to adopt a similar kind of conduct; and sent a chest with arms to attend the parties on shore.

In the afternoon the seine was hauled at the head of the bay, but a few cole-fish only were caught. While they were performing this operation, the Russian chief paid the Europeans a visit, and informed them that very few fish were to be caught in that place, but in a spot near his residence, very considerable quantities might be procured. Captain Portlock therefore took the seine thither; and, in several hauls, took thirty salmon, and a few flat fish: but the Russian informed him, that his indifferent success was owing to the time of tide, it being then low water; and, to give himself a proper chance, the experiment should be made when it was nearly high water. But he assured him, if he would leave the seine all night, and a man with it, he should have plenty of fish the next morning. The captain gladly embraced this offer, and left one of his seamen to assist in the operation†.

At seven o'clock, the next morning, he sent the whale boat to the Russian settlement, to learn what success they had had with the seine. The boat returned about nine, deeply laden with excellent salmon, part of which was conveyed on board the Queen Charlotte. The people now having a plentiful supply of good fish, they were no longer kept upon salt provisions, in lieu of which, they were regularly served with fish and yams.

Towards noon the Russian chief returned the captain's visit: his information pointing out the mode of procuring abundance of fish, demanded some addition to his former present; he therefore gave him several articles which he thought would be found serviceable; as Port wine, brandy, vinegar, and salt. Having been informed at the chief's residence, that he had boiled some of the yams which had been given him, and found them very excellent, he added to his present about four hundred more. Though the captain and his new acquaintance understood each other but very imperfectly, they were both delighted with the mutual exchange of friendly offices. After staying on board a short time, he took his leave.

Soon afterwards Captain Portlock went in the whale-boat, accompanied by Captain Dixon, to make a survey of the harbour: it runs up about nine miles, nearly in an east-south-east direction, and afterwards terminates in a fresh water river, which branches out in several directions. There are several projecting points on each side of the harbour that form very snug bays, with excellent

* Contrary to the Russian custom, these people were always fearful of getting intoxicated: but this caution was supposed not to originate from their dislike of their potent liquor, but from a fear of being surprised by the neighbouring Americans in a state of intoxication. They were continually on their guard, with their arms always ready; not a man among them sleeping without a rifled barrelled piece under his arm; having a long knife and a cutlass by his side.

† The Russian settlement, if such a temporary residence deserves that title, is situated on a pleasant piece of flat land, about three miles in length, and 200 yards over, bounded by a sandy beach on one side; and a lake of fresh water, which falls into the sea on the other. The Russians were only twenty-five in number, exclusive of the Indians brought from Kodiac and Oopalaska: they had two skin boats, each calculated to row twelve oars, and the thwarts were double beaked. The chief, and the Indians, took up their abode in a small tent covered with canvas, and the remainder slept under the two boats. They have no bread; their food consisting principally of fish, and a mess made of the root of a plant, by Steller called the Serena, which would have been palatable, had it not been mixed with animal oil. They procured no furs by bartering with the Americans; nor had they furs of any kind, but such as the Kodiac Indians, their attendants, caught in hunting.

It seemed evident that this little party were under great apprehensions from the Americans: they even assured them that they had attempted to surprise them several times; which rendered it absolutely necessary for them to be eternally on their guard. The Russian chief represented them as a set of cruel savage people, though they spoke very favourably of the Oonolaska and Kodiac Indians. Having procured what intelligence he could from this chief, Captain Portlock returned to his own vessel in the evening.

beaches, where a ship might, if necessary, be safely hauled on shore; the depth of the water, close to the beach, seven and eight fathoms. After determining the extent of the harbour, they landed, and walked up to the fresh-water river: it was narrow, but abounded with salmon; and on the banks were observed the tracks of bears and mouse deer. On getting into the mouth of the largest branch, their attention was excited by a large brown bear coming down the river. Captain Portlock entertained hopes of his coming within musquet-shot of him; but getting sight of them, he made off into the woods, with a more rapid motion than could have been expected from a bear.

In the course of an hour, they saw about twenty more of these animals, but they were all so extremely shy that they could not shoot one of them. Night coming on, they repaired on board about ten.

By the 25th of July, they had completed their wood and water, and their ships were ready for sea: as there was a probability of meeting inhabitants, they consequently stood a chance of procuring furs. Landing on the west side of the bay, and walking round it, they discovered two veins of kennel coal, situated near some hills above the beach, about the middle of the bay. In the evening they returned on board, and tried some of the coal they had discovered, and found it to burn clear and well.

At noon point Bede bore south by east, and Anchor Point north 21° west, distant from the nearest land about five leagues. They stretched up the river with light breezes from the southward and eastward, till half past five o'clock, when the flood-tide being spent, they came to with stream anchor in twenty fathoms water, over a rocky bottom.

SECTION III.

Indians visit the Ships with Furs—Exhibit a thieving Disposition—Bring Salmon to barter—Description of the Country, Climate, Produce—Ships proceed down the River—Presents given at parting—Quit Cook's River—Proceed towards Prince William's Sound—Proceed along the Coast—Departure from the Coast—Arrive at Owhyhee—Anchor at Woahoo.

SOON after they had anchored, two small canoes came off from the shore nearly abreast of the ship, and went along-side the Queen Charlotte. The persons in the canoes had nothing to barter but a few dried salmon, which Captain Dixon purchased for beads: he also made them a few presents, to convince them that his intentions were friendly, and that he wished to deal with them on amicable terms. They seemed to comprehend Captain Dixon's meaning, and promised to bring furs on the subsequent day. About seven the next morning, two large canoes, and several small ones, were seen pushing off from the shore. The large canoes contained about twenty people each; the small ones only one or two at the most. When at some distance from the shore, they began a song, which was continued for a considerable length of time; after which they came along-side, extending their arms as a token of their pacific intentions, and many of them exhibited green plants with a similar intent. Most of these Indians had their faces smeared with red ochre and black lead, which gave them a very disgusting appearance; many of their noses and ears were ornamented with blue beads or teeth: and they had a slit in the upper lip, in a line parallel with the mouth, decorated in a similar manner *.

* From this party our European navigators procured about twenty sea-otter skins, with a few cloaks made of the earless marmot skins, sewed together very neatly. They traded with great integrity, and importuned the Europeans to go on shore. The captain entreated one of them, who appeared to be a chief, to come on board, which he declined at first, unless a sailor was placed in the canoe as a hostage; but in the course of this conversation, another of his companions ventured on board; and soon afterwards the chief, and many others followed his example: To convince them, however, that they were perfectly safe, the captain sent one of his people into their boat, as had been at first proposed. After remaining a considerable time on board, and gratifying their curiosity with taking a survey of the vessel, they left them, and paddled on shore with seeming satisfaction.

From this favourable beginning, the captain supposed he could not change his situation for a better, he therefore determined to keep it a few days; accordingly they righted the best bower, and moored it to the southward, and the stream to the northward*.

An aged chief went on board the Queen Charlotte, from whom Captain Dixon received some information respecting the Russians. He perfectly comprehended from the old man's pointing to the guns, and describing the explosion they made, and other particular circumstances, that a battle had happened between the Russians and the natives, to the disadvantage of the former. The chief, however, intimated that he was not displeased with our navigators on that account, as he was certain they belonged to a different nation, and their dress was totally different. How this quarrel originated, they could not learn with any degree of precision, but theft is supposed to have been the probable cause,

The Indians, on leaving the ship, informed our navigators that the neighbourhood was drained of furs, but they would visit the adjacent country in pursuit of more. Our navigators were inclined to believe the information obtained from their visitors, respecting the scarcity of furs in this part; as they had observed for several days past, that the canoes came from different quarters, and the very few skins they brought were of an inferior quality. They were therefore determined to quit Cook's River the first opportunity, and proceed to Prince William's Sound, where they expected to procure an abundant supply of fine furs.

After some very unsettled weather, they had fresh gales to the southward, with thick hazy weather; but this did not prevent two canoes from venturing along-side with a few salmon. On the 8th, two of the natives came on board, and Captain Dixon gave each of them a knife, a gimblet, and some beads. They knew not the use of the gimblet, till it was pointed out to them; after which they were taught to bore a hole through a piece of wood, which at once discovered their value; and the gimblets were thought superior to any of the other presents.

The visitors being prepared to go on shore, it began to blow very hard; when they were politely asked to stay on board till the gale was over, and their canoes should be hauled upon deck. This proposal was readily agreed to; but a surly old man in one of the canoes, thought proper to object to it, and insisted on their leaving the ship; which they accordingly did, and with difficulty arrived on shore.

The land to the westward is beautifully diversified with vallies and gently-rising grounds, and generally clothed with pines and shrubs. Many of the vales have small rills of water, which discharge themselves into the sea; in one of them several houses were observed, and some stages on which the natives dry their salmon. These, contrasted with the mountains situated behind them, which are enveloped in snow, compose a picturesque landscape.

Besides the various sorts of furs which have been enumerated, Cook's River produces native sulphur, ginsang, snake-root, black lead, and coal, with the greatest abundance of very fine salmon; and the natives conduct themselves with so much candour and liberality in their bartering, that a very profitable business might be carried on here by any persons who have sufficient enterprise to undertake it.

On their leaving Cook's River, several canoes came off from a town near the south point of Trading Bay. In one of them they found a man who was so extremely useful in procuring furs, that they gave him the appellation of "the Factor." From him they understood, that the Russians frequented the west side of the island to the southward, and that there is a passage from that to the main. The factor brought nothing with him to dispose of, except a few salmon: his principal motive in paying the navigators this visit, was to entreat their assistance against the Russians: he was extremely importunate with them to comply with his request, intimating, at the same time, that he could instantly assemble

* On the 30th a number of visitors came in their canoes, of whom they purchased some excellent sea-otter skins; with several marmot cloaks, racoons, and foxes: plenty of fine salmon was also obtained, for an equivalent in beads and buttons. For several days traffic was carried on with peace and quietness; but not being able to get the better of their propensity to thieving, some of the natives could not resist the temptation of stealing the hooks from a block strap, and a grindstone handle, which, being made of iron, was doubtless thought a valuable prize. The captain, however, did not adopt violent measures for this offence, but contented himself by ordering strict attention to be paid to the actions of such plunderers, who should presume to pilfer any thing in future.

a large fleet of canoes, with which, and the assistance of their ships, they could certainly get the better of their enemies. On the captain's refusing to comply with this request, he seemed much disappointed and chagrined; but to afford him some consolation under his disappointment, he gave him a light-horseman's cap, with which he was highly pleased; and his countrymen viewed him with such a confused mixture of admiration and envy, that it seemed questionable whether he would long keep it in his possession. A few trifles, however, were distributed among the other Indians, and they returned on shore perfectly satisfied, though the British navigators had refused to espouse their cause.

About nine o'clock in the morning of the 11th of August they saw a number of canoes, which they supposed were traders coming off to the ship; but, viewing them through a glass, he observed two Russian boats among them: they were probably the same party they had met in Coal Harbour; whence they concluded that the factor's intelligence might probably be true, of their having a settlement on the west side of the island*.

On the 27th of August Captain Portlock sent his whale-boat on board the Queen Charlotte for Captain Dixon, to consult him on their future proceedings; he presently appeared on board the King George; and having fixed on George's Sound for their winter quarters, they formed a resolution of quitting this part of the coast in a day or two, should the wind continue unfavourable, and endeavour to make some harbour farther to the southward. These points being settled, Captain Dixon returned on board his own vessel.

On the 4th of September, finding his state of health but very indifferent, Captain Portlock again sent for Captain Dixon to come on board; intending, should his illness render him incapable of keeping the deck, for the Queen Charlotte to take the lead, and make for Cross Sound, from thence to Cape Edgecombe, and then to King George's Sound; where they had agreed to winter, and build a shalop of about sixty or seventy tons burthen, if they should be fortunate enough to arrive there before the severity of the winter season had hindered them from making the necessary preparations.

In the afternoon of the 9th, finding himself so ill as to be unable to keep the deck, Captain Portlock desired his first mate to speak the Queen Charlotte, and request Captain Dixon to take the lead, which he accordingly did. Not falling in with Cross Sound, and not having leisure to look for it in any other situation, they tacked at four o'clock on the 9th, and stood to the southward, with a moderate breeze from the east-south-east. The almost constant succession of disagreeable weather they had for some time experienced, induced them to suppose that the bad weather was set in, and that their making a port on the coast was a precarious point; in which case they would be under the necessity of spending the winter at the Sandwich Islands. Under this consideration, the captain thought it prudent to put the ship's company to an allowance of water, at the rate of two quarts per man each day.

They plied with variable winds till the 16th, when not supposing there was a probability of meeting with a harbour near Cape Edgecombe, they declined all further thoughts of it, and determined to stand for King George's Sound. The Queen Charlotte being some distance a-head, wore and stood under their lee, and Captain Dixon hailed, informing Captain Portlock, that he saw no appearance of a harbour or any inhabitants.

Early on the 22d, they saw land extending from north to north-east distant about ten leagues. At two o'clock on the 23d, seeing a canoe putting off from the shore, they shortened sail and brought to, for her to come up: she had two Indians, but neither of them could be prevailed on to come on board: they had four fish, which were purchased of them, and they were further

* Having light variable winds, with calms by turns, they took the advantage of the tide in standing down the river, and at noon on the 13th were clear of it. The Barren Islands then bore south west and south, and Cape Elizabeth north; their distance from the nearest shore about three leagues. The land on which Cape Elizabeth is situated is an island, and in the straits formed by that and the back lands, there is good anchorage and shelter. Here would be a most desirable situation for carrying on a whale-fishery, those animals being very numerous on the coast, and close in shore; and there are excellent harbours handy for the business. The Barren Islands which are situated nearly in the midway between Point Banks and Cape Elizabeth, are high and totally barren: they lie in a cluster, and have good passages between them.

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gratified with a few trifling presents; after which they quitted them, and paddled for that part of the shore between Woody Point and King George's Sound. In the course of the evening they frequently sounded, and had from fifty-four to sixty-two fathoms water over a muddy bottom.

After many ineffectual attempts to get into the Sound, and reflecting on the improbability of getting into it this season, the bad weather seeming to be set in for a continuance: added to these considerations, the crews stood greatly in need of refreshments. It was therefore irrevocably determined to quit the coast, and stand directly for the Sandwich Islands: after hailing the Queen Charlotte, Captain Dixon was made acquainted with this resolution. They proceeded towards the Sandwich Islands, without any memorable occurrence; the wind hanging from south to south-east, and being generally light and variable, their progress was rendered somewhat tedious.

On the 14th of October, steering west by south, at five o'clock in the afternoon they saw land, which they soon discovered to be the high mountain on the island of Owhyhee, with several patches of snow on its summit, bearing west near thirty leagues distant. In the morning of the 16th, with a fresh breeze at south-east, they stood to the south-west for Owhyhee, the north point bearing west by south, eleven or twelve leagues, and their distance from the nearest shore five leagues. At noon they stood to the north-west by north, about three miles distant from shore: about five the east end of Mowee bore north-north-west, about ten leagues distant. Night coming on, fires were lighted in different parts of the country, perhaps to inform the inhabitants of more distant parts of their arrival.

As they run along with a gentle breeze, almost within pistol-shot of the shore, the natives of both sexes assembled numerously on the beach, waving slips of white cloth as a token of peace and amity. Expecting to find good shelter in a bay on the west side of the island, and near a district called Toeyayaa, the captain sent the whale-boat to sound, and look out for a harbour. In the mean time they stood off and on under an easy sail, giving the natives an opportunity of exhibiting the produce of their island, which was done in great abundance. Hogs, fowls, geese of a wild species, plantains, bread-fruit, taro, and cocoa-nuts, and salt, were bartered for nails, towes, and trinkets of different kinds. In the course of four hours, the navigators purchased as many hogs as, when salted, filled seven Tierees, besides great numbers of a smaller sort for daily consumption. Near two tons of vegetables were also procured.

The Indian traders acted very fairly and conscientiously, but some of the spectators, of whom there were great numbers of both sexes, manifested their usual propensity to thieving. One man had the dexterity to steal a boat-hook out of a boat along-side, though a boat-keeper was then in her; and another crept up the rudder chains, and stole the azimuth compass from a cabin window. Many trifling things were peculated in the course of the day, which cannot be any matter of astonishment, as there were about two hundred and fifty canoes about the ship at once, which contained at least a thousand people.

With a light variable breeze they steered south-east towards Owhyhee, and by noon were within three miles of the shore; many of the visitors of the preceding day came along-side, with fine hogs, and plenty of vegetables, which they were willing to dispose of*.

In the afternoon of the 23d, it being calm and pleasant,

* On the 19th of November, Captain Portlock went in his whale-boat on board the Queen Charlotte, to confer with Captain Dixon respecting their future proceedings. The result of this conference was, that their rigging fore and aft stood much in need of repairing and overhauling, and that it would be prudent to quit their present situation, and proceed for King George's Bay, Woahoo, where they could be sheltered from the prevailing winds, and adjust the hulk and rigging of both ships; accordingly, with a light breeze, and very unsettled weather, they bore away to the northward, intending to pass to the eastward of Mowee, and then to run down for Woahoo. A little before dark, they saw a canoe to the south-west, making after them, having a small mat up for a sail, and paddling very laboriously. They brought to, and picked her up. Four men were in their canoe, besides a quantity of provisions, as potatoes, plantains, &c. It appeared that they belonged to the island of Mowee; and on our navigators standing in for the east part had put off with their little cargo, expecting to take it to a good market; but, upon their bearing away from the island, they found the weather so very bad, and the wind so strong against them, that they could not reach the shore: They bore away after them, set their sail and practised every effort to get up with the ship: The captain thought himself happy in being fortunate enough to get sight of them; for they must otherwise have soon

pleasant, the Indians they had picked up off the east end of Mowee, embraced the opportunity of going on shore. The captain urged them to stay on board till the morning, that they might have an opportunity of standing close in shore, and have less danger to encounter; but they fixed upon the present moment, and seemed regardless of the distance, though it was not then less than about five leagues. These poor fellows did not depart empty-handed, for, in addition to the presents they received from the captain, almost every person on board gave them some significant token of their friendship: their misfortunes thus became singularly advantageous to them.

It was the intention of our navigators, after leaving Owhyhee, to proceed immediately for King George's Bay, Woahoo, and there attend to the necessary reparations of the ships. They plied, however, with variable winds till the morning of the 30th, without any material occurrence; at that time the wind seeming fixed to the northward and eastward, and in a more settled state than it had been, they bore away for Woahoo. At four o'clock they hauled round Dick's Point, and at five came to anchor in King George's Bay, in twelve fathoms water.

SECTION IV.

Visited by Taheeterre—Baneful Effects of the Yava-root—Transactions at Woahoo—An Eatooa erected—The Chiefs make Offerings—Attack on the Ship meditated—The Effect of Fire Arms displayed—Two Indians embark for Atooi—Take Leave of Taheeterre—Departure from Woahoo—Refreshments procured—Visited by the King—Large Shark—Arrival at Oneehow—A Woman and a Puppy—Departure from the Sandwich Islands.

HAVING anchored in King George's Bay on the 30th of November, a few canoes came along-side immediately after, but they had hardly any thing for sale: the bay indeed seemed very thinly inhabited, and by persons of little importance. The captain expressed a wish to some of them to procure him a supply of water, and directed them to bring it as they had formerly done. They would readily have complied with his request, in consideration of the nails and beads which were to have been given to them in exchange; but they instantly informed him, that not only water, but every thing else upon the island, was tabooed by the king's order.

Finding matters thus situated, he gave a man, who exhibited some degree of importance in his deportment among the present visitors, a present for the king, and another for his old acquaintance the priest; requesting him to inform the king that they wanted water and refreshments, and humbly requested that the taboo might be taken off. At sun-set the natives, at the captain's request, quitted the ship, and went on shore. Early the following morning, several canoes were observed along-side, which, notwithstanding the taboo, had brought them water, and vegetables. Several large and small canoes came round Point Dick into the Bay, and landed at the head of it. His old friend, the priest, paid the captain a visit soon afterwards, according to custom, in a large double canoe, ornamented with branches of the cocoa-nut tree. After solemnly paddling round the ship, and amusing himself by running down every small canoe that came in his way, he came along-side; but before he entered the ship he enquired for Captain Portlock. The captain, attending to this enquiry, appeared at the ship's side to receive him, when the priest handed up a small pig, which was afterwards formally presented to the

soon perished, their canoe being nearly full of water, and themselves so far exhausted with fatigue, that they could not ascend the ship's side without assistance. Their things were safely conveyed into the ship, the canoe being hauled in upon deck, and every method taken to recover them, which effectually corresponded with their endeavours; and never was gratitude more feelingly expressed than by these poor Indians, for the little favours they had fortunately been able to confer upon them. On the 22d toward sun-set, their visitors, after disposing of their cargoes, took a very friendly leave of them, and pushed immediately for the shore.

captain, as a token of peace and amity, agreeably to the usual practice at all the islands.

The old man then informed the captain, that the king, (who was just arrived in the bay with a large fleet of canoes) would come on board to visit him, and on his return on shore the taboo would be taken off, and the natives be at liberty to supply him with whatever the island afforded. The captain made him a present, and sent another for the king, to be delivered on shore by him into his own hand. The priest departed about ten, and returned about eleven in his own private canoe, accompanied by many others. In a very large canoe, paddled by sixteen stout fellows, the king then made his appearance, attended by many of the principal chiefs. When his canoe approached the ship, all the rest paddled off to some distance to make room for his majesty; who, after having paddled three times, approached the vessel with great state and solemnity, entered confidently on board, but would not permit any of his retinue to follow him, till he had obtained permission for their attendance, which was granted to eight or ten of the principal chiefs. The king brought the captain a few hogs and vegetables, by way of present; for which a suitable compensation was made. Many of the chiefs also brought trivial articles, which were properly noticed and acknowledged.

The king, whose name is Taheeterre, is a stout personable man, about fifty years of age, and seems highly esteemed by his subjects. He continued on board the greatest part of the day, and directed the natives to bring an abundant supply of water, and plenty of every other article of refreshment that was required. Towards evening he returned on shore, highly gratified with the reception he had met with, and the presents he had received. They instantly began to feel the good effects of Taheeterre's visit: no longer under the influence of the taboo, the natives now procured a plentiful supply of water, hogs, and vegetables; a party was therefore instantly directed to salt a quantity of pork for stock: the boatswain, and another set, were ordered to examine and adjust the rigging*.

They were again visited by his majesty on the 4th, who, in addition to his customary present, brought a large quantity of very excellent mullet, which had been taken in a small salt lake at the head of the bay. Though he frequently ate with our Europeans, he never could be prevailed on to taste any wine or spirits; nor did he ever use the yava, water being his only beverage. He seemed much delighted with the attention that was usually paid him, and his visits were found very agreeable; for he not only encouraged the natives to furnish them with proper supplies, but even kept them in due order and decorum, that they might not incommode the Europeans by assembling too frequently in multitudes. This afternoon their stock of water was completed; the natives having in the space of three days, filled forty buts, besides a considerable number of puncheons and brandy-pieces; so eager were the natives in the prosecution of this business.

They were now rather deficient in the article of fuel, having consumed a great deal in heating water to scald hogs, and various other purposes. This circumstance having been mentioned, a quantity of excellent fire-wood was readily procured, in exchange for nails and buttons†.

The natives daily repeated their visits, bringing with them wood, hogs, and vegetables; and many came

* On the 3d of December they received another visit from Taheeterre, which was rendered as agreeable as the former by the customary presents of hogs, vegetables, and cocoa-nuts. The ships were surrounded by canoes, and multitudes of both sexes were playing in the water, though they were at a considerable distance from the shore. Their old friend, the priest, was almost constantly on board, and, as usual, drank such an immoderate quantity of yava as greatly to incommode him: he seemed almost debilitated, and his body was covered with a kind of leprous scurf. He had generally two attendants on board with him, to chew the yava-root for him; and he furnished them with such constant employment that their jaws were perpetually in the act of chewing. Sometimes, indeed, he was under the necessity of hiring chewers to assist him, which he could not get performed on more moderate terms than a bead for every mouthful.

† Numbers of sharks were seen lurking about the ship, four or five of which were caught: and, having taken out their livers, they were given to the Indians, who consider them as very acceptable presents. The priest got two of the largest, which he seemed to behold with delight, and having ordered them to be carefully lashed in his canoe, was preparing to send them on shore. On this occasion, a remarkable circumstance occurred; at the moment that the priest's canoe got a-stern of the ship, one of the sharks not being perfectly secured, fell out of the canoe, and sunk to the bottom in eleven fathoms water; there being at the same

came from the sole motive of gratifying their curiosity; those who were not furnished with canoes, could swim from the shore, though at the distance of about two miles; and, after remaining the whole day in the water, found it no difficult task to repair to the destined spot.

The old priest was still a constant attendant, though he sometimes went on shore, under the pretence of paying a morning visit to his majesty; but it clearly appeared that his principal motive was to replenish his stock of yava, of which his consumption was immense. He now began to be extremely restless and uneasy; and, on the captain's expressing a desire to know the cause, he intimated that Taheeterre, and his principal warriors were planning some mischievous plot against our navigators. Taking him upon deck, he pointed to a large house on the top of a hill, over the eastern point of the bay: this house, he informed him, was built for an Eatooa, or God's House, wherein great offerings were to be made to their different Eatooas, and to consult them upon the event of an attack upon the ship, which they were determined to persevere in, if they were encouraged by their oracles. He seemed displeased with the king's conduct upon this occasion, and desired they would be constantly on their guard against him.

Improbable as this information appeared to be, it would have been the height of imprudence totally to disregard it; a constant watch was therefore ordered to be kept upon the cables, that they might not be cut or injured by the natives. People were constantly observed going up loaded, towards the house mentioned as the scene of solemn offerings; it appeared nearly finished, and the natives were covering it with red cloth.

The captain having, at all times, treated the king and his attendants with the most marked attention, could not give credit to this report of the old priest; not even supposing that all the iron they might have on board could induce them to engage in such an attack. He resolved, however, to admit Taheeterre on board, as usual, whenever he came, and to regulate his conduct as circumstances occurred. In the evening the priest quitted the ship to go on shore, having promised to return the following day*.

The king remained on board about two hours, and, after receiving a small present, took his leave; informing the captain, at the same time, that he intended to quit the bay, and return to his residence at Whyteetée in the evening. It was remarkable that, when Taheeterre left the ship, all the canoes left them, and paddled to the shore in different parts of the bay†.

For the two following days, not a single native came near either of the ships, their canoes being hauled out of sight; but vast numbers were observed about the house upon the hill. Early on the 17th of December, the old priest came on board, attended by his yava-chewer Towanooha. The veteran seemed exceedingly enraged at the king's recent conduct; and informed the captain that the king, and all his principal chiefs had been presenting offerings to their gods,

same time several large hungry ones swimming about; an Indian, however, ventured down with a rope, slung the dead shark, and afterwards hauled him into his canoe, without any apparent apprehensions of fear from those that surrounded him. Sharks are by some thought valuable, as they answer a variety of purposes. Of salted shark, some people are very fond; the skin makes an excellent cover for drum heads, and their teeth are fixed in wooden instruments to answer some of the properties of knives.

* On the 14th a number of canoes attended the ships, principally laden with fire-wood. About noon the king came off in a large double canoe, attended by his principal chiefs, all of whom were permitted to come on board, and treated with the usual freedom and attention. They were, however, prepared for an attack, if any thing hostile had been attempted: centinels were placed in different parts of the ships, and the great guns and swivels were pointed into the canoes along-side, with lighted matches ready at hand. Taheeterre had certainly perceived these preparations, and even spoke of them to his attendants, notwithstanding which he conducted himself in his usual manner. After having been on board some time, he wished to know the effects of their fire-arms; of which Captain Portlock gave him ocular demonstration, by discharging a loaded pistol with a ball at a hog that stood at a little distance, and killed it on the spot. The king and his attendants were startled at the report of the pistol, but when they saw the hog lie dead, and the blood flowing from the wound, they were terrified, as much as they were surprised. This instance of the fatal effects of their fire-arms made so deep an impression upon their feelings, that they no longer entertained any idea of attacking our Europeans.

† It was not long before the old priest came on board, not in a large double canoe as usual, but in a small old battered one hardly capable of conveying him, and seemed to have performed this visit as if it was undertaken by stealth. As soon as the old man made his appearance upon deck, he began to accuse the king of being a villain, minutely repeated his former story, and begged the captain would watch him narrowly. After haranguing for some time, he went on board the Queen Charlotte, where he passed the remainder of the day. Their wooding business was now perfectly completed, a sufficient quantity having been procured for at least six months consumption.

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and consulting them, but that the gods were good for nothing, and that the king and his adherents were the basest of men for aiming to injure them most essentially, though they had received innumerable unmerited favours from those liberal navigators. The captain thanked his enraged friend for his intelligence, and said he would endeavour to counteract what was meant to be injurious to him.

For a considerable time Captain Portlock had been strongly importuned by Towanooha, and a distinguished youth in the island, who was on the most intimate terms with his majesty, to take them with him to Atooi; but he never supposed they were in earnest till the 17th, when the young chief, whose name is Paapaaa, came on board, and mingled his intreaties with Towanooha so pressingly, that he promised to attend them on board; and they returned on shore to get ready for the passage. The yava-chewer being now a kind of gentleman passenger, no longer considered himself in the humble capacity of a servant, but drank plentifully of yava himself, and laid in a plentiful stock of that root*.

In the forenoon several large and small canoes came off, bringing a considerable supply of vegetables, and a few hogs. The king also, with his retinue, paid the captain a visit: on his coming on board, he seemed rather shy, but conducted himself nearly in his accustomed manner. When Captain Portlock mentioned the red house upon the hill, he seemed very much confused, and, changing the conversation, began to talk about his two countrymen who were to accompany him to Atooi. He seemed particularly interested in Paapaaa's welfare, and earnestly requested he would take care of him and use him well; and if they stopped at Atooi, he begged the captain would leave him under the care of Taaao, who is brother to Taheeterre, and a relation of Paapaaa's. The captain also made the king a present, on which he bade them adieu for the last time; and after taking a very affecting one of his countrymen, he went on shore: the other canoes remained along-side, expecting to dispose of their cargoes. In the afternoon, the rigging was set up, and every thing prepared for sea.

About four on the 19th of December, they began to unmoor, but, in the necessary preparations, they found the stream cable gone about three fathoms from the hause: as they lay in ten fathoms water, this part could never have been at the ground, as they never had rode the least strain by it; it therefore appeared very certain that it must have been cut by the Indians. The Queen Charlotte having weighed, and standing out of the bay, they made the signal to anchor, when she stretched in the bay, and came to close by them.

The best situation for anchoring in King George's bay, is near the middle of it, and about a mile from the reef; where there are six and seven fathoms water.

They did not anchor again till the 25th, which was in Wymoa bay; soon after which several canoes came off. They enquired for the king and their old friend Abbenooe, who they understood were with the principal chiefs at Apoonoo, a town in the island where the king usually resides; but they were informed that the king and his retinue would speedily be at Wymoa. The natives, in the mean time, supplied them with every necessary. The next day Captain Portlock, accompanied by his two passengers, repaired on shore, with a view of examining the western point of the island, to search for a well-sheltered bay for the ships to ride in. On reaching the shore, he was respectfully treated by a great number of the inhabitants, a [illegible] was afterwards indulged by some of the most respectable people, by their services in keeping the multitude at a distance, whose curiosity might otherwise have incommoded them.

Being disappointed in his search for a harbour, he began to think of returning on board; but after walking four or five miles, he found it impracticable to reach Wymoa before night overtook them; and being then at no great distance from a mansion belonging to Abbenooe, he resolved to take up his abode in it for the night. They arrived at this comfortable spot about sunset, and one of Abbenooe's men, who had joined in the party during the afternoon, ordered a hog and dog to be killed and dressed for their sup-

* Towards evening the natives began to pull to pieces their new-built house upon the hill; and at eight o'clock several houses were on fire along the shore near the bay; but, as no Indians were on board, they could not learn whether they were set on fire by accident or design: but the next morning, when the old priest enquired the cause of the fires that had been seen the preceding evening, he was informed they were houses belonging to the Gods, with whom the chiefs were displeased; who, to be revenged, had consumed Gods and houses together.

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pers; a large quantity of taro was directed to be procured; and the house was most brilliantly lighted with torches prepared from dry rushes. The repast being ready about eight o'clock, it was served up with great order, and was exceedingly enjoyed by the hungry partakers. At the conclusion of the feast, the remains were ordered to be preserved, to afford a relish in the morning, previous to setting out on their return. On their quitting the house at that time, not less than a hundred women were seen about it, most of whom had children in their arms: they were extremely desirous of knowing the captain's name, which they generally pronounced *Po Potè;* and such of the infants as could speak, were instructed by their mothers to call on *Po Pote.* On this occasion he distributed a few trinkets among them, with which they appeared perfectly satisfied.

During the captain's absence, the commerce on board had been very considerable; and on his return, he had the supreme satisfaction of seeing the decks full of fine fat hogs for salting.

In the morning of the 25th of December, Tyaana, a chief whom the captain had seen before, came off in a large double canoe, bringing with him a present of hogs and vegetables, for which a liberal return was made. He informed them that the king, and a number of his chiefs would be down in a day or two, and in the mean time they should be plentifully supplied with whatever the island afforded. After many professions of regard Tyaana took his leave, and returned on shore *.

Early the next morning Abbenooe went on shore, and returned about nine o'clock, in the company of Taaao, and many of the principal chiefs belonging to the island. His majesty brought the captain a very handsome present, consisting of hogs, and a great variety of different vegetables, together with cloth, mats, and several elegantly feathered cloaks: all which he insisted upon his receiving: they were consequently conveyed into the ship, and the captain displayed his gratitude by the return he made for these favours.

Paapaaa and Towanoha being now on board, Captain Portlock took an opportunity of introducing them to the king, agreeably to Taheeterre's request. Previously to this, he gave them a few trifling articles which they presented to him, and were favourably received. He now found, as he had before supposed, that Abbenooe was highly esteemed by his majesty, being consulted by him on all important occasions. Taaao appears to be about forty-five years of age, stout, and well-proportioned: and his disposition is said to be more amiable than that which is possessed by any of his subjects. He made offers of friendship to Captain Portlock, and kindly assured him that he should be amply provided with the produce of the adjacent islands He entreated Abbenooe to continue on board, to prevent disputes between the natives and the Europeans, in the course of their extensive trade.

Canoes in abundance came off on the 31st of December, freighted as usual, with hogs and vegetables. The king also paid Captain Portlock another visit, accompanied by an old chief named Neeheowhooa, who was said to be the king's uncle, and a person of the first consequence. This old chief, it seems, had formerly been one of the greatest warriors that Atooi, or any of the islands had ever produced, and had been greatly instrumental in establishing them under their present kings Taheeterre and Taaao. The hardy veteran shone forth in his appearance, and the scars with which his body was almost covered, bore unquestionable testimony of his valour. He was quite a cripple, and had lost one eye: the sight of the other was also much impaired by the wounds he had at sundry times

* The natives continued to supply our navigators with fine hogs, fruit, and roots; and a large party were engaged on shore in killing and salting pork for stock. On the 29th, they saw a number of canoes come round the eastern point of the bay, and soon afterwards Abbenooe came on board, but so exceedingly emaciated, and covered with a white scurf, from the immoderate use of the yava, that he had not the appearance of the same person. He brought two canoes loaded with provisions, as a present for the two ships: After staying some time with Captain Portlock, he went on board the Queen Charlotte, with the present destined for Captain Dixon, and, returning in the evening, took up his lodging with Captain Portlock.

† The king, and his retinue, remained about two hours on board, gratifying their curiosity in observing the ship, its embellishments, and conveniences. Taking leave of Captain Portlock, they went on board the Queen Charlotte, where they continued a short time, and then returned on shore. Abbenooe attended his majesty to see him safely landed, and returned to the ship for the night. He was indeed so constant an attendant, that a cot was hung up for him in the cabin, with which he was so highly pleased that he never slept out of it.

received in battle, which baffled all the arts of surgery to heal. Taaao appeared much afflicted on account of his uncle's situation, and, supposing our Europeans could perform wonders, entreated them to cure him. Captain Portlock recommended him to the care of his surgeon, who examined his wounds, and furnished him with proper dressings, accompanied with instructions for the application of them. The veteran seemed perfectly to understand the surgeon's directions, and promised punctually to attend to them.

On the 1st of January, 1787, the weather was extremely fine, but hardly a canoe was to be seen: on enquiring the cause of Abbenooe, he said a tabooara had been imposed by the king. A tabooara is a kind of tax demanded by the sovereign on the property of the adjacent plantations, being a certain portion of their produce. At Abbenooe's request, Captain Portlock attended him on shore, to observe the ceremony; and greatly admired the order and regularity by which the natives were governed: men, women, and even children, submitted to the impost with the greatest cheerfulness. Some brought forward their hogs, others bread-fruit, taro, or whatever the island produced; all which were separately placed in heaps *.

On the 2d and 3d of January, the wind blew very fresh, with frequent squalls, during which time they had but little intercourse with the natives, and their stock of vegetables was nearly expended; Abbenooe, however, procured a seasonable supply.

The weather being fine the following day, they sent the long boat on shore to procure provisions; and Captain Portlock, accompanied by Abbenooe, followed in the whale boat. They landed on a beach a-breast of the village of Wymoa; and whilst the people were getting the hogs and other provisions into the long boat, walked two or three miles up a valley, leading from Wymoa towards the mountains †.

Taaao paid the captain another visit on the 10th, accompanied by his eldest son Taaevee, a fine youth about twelve years of age. The king informed him that he intended this as a farewel visit, as he intended shortly to return to Apoonoo: but that Abbenooe should be left on board to accompany them to Oneehow, which island, together with its produce, he urged the captain to accept as a present; and desired Abbenooe to take care that the natives supplied them sufficiently with yams, without expecting any thing in return for them. But Captain Portlock begged (if they would not permit them to sell the produce of the island,) that they might be rewarded for their trouble in digging and bringing off the yams to them; which he very reluctantly assented to, and after receiving a present with which he was much delighted, he took a very friendly leave of him, as did his son and the attending chiefs; to each of whom, on parting, he gave a satisfactory present.

Among the persons of consequence in the train of Taaao, on his farewel visit, was his uncle Neeheowhooa: His wounds being considerably better, he knew not how to express his thanks in such language as ought to accompany his gratitude. He begged permission to come daily on board to have them dressed, and seemed convinced that they would speedily be healed. After attending his nephew on shore, he returned with a large double canoe, laden with hogs, as a present to the captain and the surgeon, as a token of his gratitude. The hogs were taken on board, though they protested against receiving them as a present; the old warrior, however, could hardly be prevailed on to receive any thing in return. The captain desired him to attend daily

* Taaao, and many of the principal chiefs, attended to see the rules of the tabooara properly enforced; and, at the completion of it, the whole was divided into two parcels, which the king told Captain Portlock were intended as a present for the two ships, and desired he would send boats on shore to carry them off. The king's generous method of proceeding obtained the Captain's approbation, and he was determined that he should not be a loser by his liberality, though he had it not then in his power to make him a suitable return.

† In the afternoon of the 4th they caught a female shark, so very large that it was necessary to hoist it out of the water with a tackle. It was thirteen feet and a half in length, and eight feet and a half in circumference: its mouth was so capacious as to admit the head of a puncheon with ease. On opening the shark, forty-eight young ones were found in her, each about the length of eight inches, two turtles weighing about sixty pounds each, several small pigs, and a large quantity of bones. The liver, which was very large, was kept for oil, and the fish given to the natives who considered it as an inestimable treasure.

on board, that his wounds might be regularly dressed, which gave the veteran the highest satisfaction.

On the 27th, the king in a large double canoe, attended by several others, quitted the bay to proceed to Apoonoo, Abbenooe still remaining on board the King George, where his presence was of considerable importance; for if any disturbance arose in their traffic with the natives, he always settled it to their mutual approbation.

On the 11th they were employed in preparing for sailing; the weather was cloudy, with some rain. At six o'clock they weighed, with a fresh breeze from the north-east, and came to sail; the Queen Charlotte and the long boat in company: after clearing the bay, they made way for the south point of Oneehow. From the 12th to the 16th nothing important occurred, when they came to anchor in Yam Bay, in fifteen fathoms water, over a bottom of coarse sand. They found a very heavy sea rolling into the bay, which rendered it dangerous for the natives to come off with any thing: they went on shore to request of the natives a supply of yams, but the surf still continued so heavy, they refused to have any intercourse with our navigators.

In the morning of the 17th Captain Portlock went on shore with the whale-boat, accompanied by Abbenooe; and, as the surf ran too great for canoes, they were obliged to row in under the reef, where they found a place that the boat could lie at her anchor with safety. They entered a canoe, intending to go on shore, but were overset by the surf before they reached it, and were obliged to swim for it. After landing they walked about seven miles to the northward, at some little distance from the beach; but the country seemed very poorly cultivated; and Abbenooe informed him, that after the people had taken their stock of yams in, they had greatly neglected the island, barely planting a sufficiency for their own use; that some of them had even quitted the island, and taken up their residence at Atooi.

On the 20th several of the people were permitted to go on shore; all of whom returned except three, who were in an indifferent state of health, and whom the captain was willing to indulge with a longer absence till they should find themselves a little better. Abbenooe had provided a comfortable house for their reception, and ordered them proper necessaries and refreshments. A heavy gale coming on presently after, obliged the captain to cut the cables, and run out of the bay, and the three invalids were consequently left on shore. Abbenooe, and several of the Indians, were on board at that time, and went to sea with them.

Fom the 21st to the 26th they were kept beating off and on about Oneehow and Atooi; at length they came to anchor in the south point of Yam Bay. The three invalids, who had been indulgently treated by the natives, and who had been on board the long-boat ever since their anchorage in the bay, were now got on board. On the 5th of February, the captain permitted the second watch to go on shore: a number of Abbenooe's people attended them by his order, that no quarrels or altercations might arise, and that they might be regularly supplied with provisions. In the evening when the people returned, not a single theft had been committed, and every one had been generously treated with every luxury the island could afford. On the 31st they came to anchor in Whymoa bay, in twenty-nine fathoms water, over a bottom of fine muddy black sand *.

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* The following anecdote, though extraordinary, related by Mr. Goulding, a volunteer in the service, shews in what estimation a favourite dog is held among the natives. In walking along the shore, he met with an Indian and his wife; the latter of whom had two puppies, one at each breast: struck with the oddity of the circumstance, he was induced to try if he could not purchase one of them. Persuasions and temptations were earnestly employed to prevail on the woman to consent to such a transfer of property; but they were long found ineffectual; at length, however, the sight of some nails had such powerful attractions on the husband, that he commanded her to part with one of them: at length, with every demonstration of affectionate concern, she reluctantly consented, giving it a last endearing embrace. Though she was then at a considerable distance from the ship, the woman would not part with her nursling, till she arrived where the boat was lying to receive him on board. On its quitting the beach, she earnestly requested to be once more permitted to caress it before she parted with it. That favour being granted, she immediately placed it at the breast, and after a profusion of endearments, returned it to him again.

The following passage, from Mrs. Piozzi's Travels through Italy may serve to accompany this anecdote. "If the Neapolitans do bury Christians like dogs, they make some singular compensations we will confess, by nursing dogs

This day, at Captain Portlock's request, two chiefs on board, who were residents at Whymoa, thought proper to exercise themselves with their spears: their wonderful dexterity in that science astonished every person on board. One of them, named Na-Maa-teerae, is a well made personable man about five feet six inches high, but his skin is much blemished by the immoderate drinking of yava, and he is blind of one eye. Though he is not supposed to possess much property, he is greatly respected, and his company is sought by all the principal men of the island. He is now reverenced, on account of having been, and still remaining a man of valour. The loss of his eye was occasioned in battle by a stone slung from a sling, but this accident did not hinder him from distinguishing himself in military exercises and engagements, of which he gave the most satisfactory proofs. He took his stand, unarmed about, three or four yards from the cabin door: the other person stood at the distance of eight or ten yards from him, provided with five spears. On the signal being given for commencing the action, a spear was forcibly aimed at Na-maa-tee-rae, which he avoided by a motion of the body, and caught it by the middle as it passed him: with this spear he parried all the rest without the least apparent concern, and with no great exertion. He then returned the spears to his adversary, and armed himself with a Pa-ho-a; they were again thrown at him, and again as easily parried. One of the spears, struck into the bulk-head of the cabin, and the barbed point was broken off in attempting to get it out. The indifference manifested by his countenance, while the spears were casting at him, sufficiently proved his courage and expertness. Though all the spectators shuddered at the danger he seemed exposed to, they were equally astonished to see with what facility he baffled his opponent.

Being on shore, on the 5th of February, with his old friend Abbenooe, the captain observed, in the village of Wymoa, four or five pretty large houses without inhabitants, though seemingly in good condition, on asking Abbenooe why they were tabooed, he was informed they were structures erected for the king, whenever he chose to honour Whymoa with a visit, and that no persons were permitted to use them in his absence. He also informed the captain, that the king had directed him to build him a house on a clear spot to the westward of these houses, and that he had brought him here to make choice of a situation to his own liking. For a time he declined the favour intended him, but his friend's earnest entreaty at length prevailed on him to consent to gratify them; and accordingly fixed immediately on a spot.

No sooner had he signified his consent than workmen were engaged; some were dispatched to fetch wood from the country; others to procure long grass for thatching; all orders were received with the greatest satisfaction, and every one exerted himself to the utmost; so delighted were they with the idea of having their friend Po-poo-te among them. Near to the spot, Captain Portlock had fixed, he procured a large stone, on which he etched the initials of his name, his country, and the year of our Lord. All this he explained particularly to his friend, who seemed delighted with the explanation. The stone was ordered to be placed in the centre of the house.

One very great inconvenience attends their houses, which is their want of windows: the extreme heat of the weather makes them very uncomfortable and close; but the principal precautions are against the rains and cold. When they find it too warm, they repair to the water to cool themselves, being totally indifferent whether it is by night or day. The captain requested of his friends to have windows in his house; one at each end, one on each side of the door, and one at the back, for the double advantage of light and air. He assured him it should be done as he desired; and every thing being adjusted respecting the building, they proceeded up the

dogs like Christians. A very veracious man informed me yesterday morning, that his poor wife was half-broken hearted at hearing such a countess's dog was run over; for, said he, *having suckled the pretty creature herself, she loved it like one of her children.* I bid him repeat the circumstance, that no mistake might be made: he did so; but seeing me look shocked or ashamed, or something he did not like—Why, madam, *said the fellow, It is a common thing enough for ordinary men's wives to suckle the lap-dogs of ladies of quality; adding, that they were paid for their milk, and he saw no harm in gratifying one's superiors.* As I was disposed to see nothing but harm in disputing with such a competitor, our conference finished soon; but the fact is certain. *Piozzi's Travels through Italy, &c. &c.* ii. 57."

valley, attended by a great number of the natives of both sexes, who behaved with the greatest friendship and hospitality; pressing him earnestly to enter every house he came to, and partake of such fare as they were able to bestow. Many of the women brought their children to *tone*, that is to salute, by touching noses; his compliance with which seemed to afford them singular satisfaction. He was much delighted to see so much happiness in the countenances of many hundred of the Indians, whom he had formerly the greatest reason to think were a treacherous people. This excursion gave the captain an additional opportunity of admiring the ingenuity and industry of the natives, in laying out their taro and sugar-cane grounds; a considerable part of which are made on the banks of the river, with causeways of stones and earth, leading up the valleys, and to each plantation. The taro beds are usually a quarter of a mile over, dammed in, having a place in a part of the bank which serves as a gateway. When the rains commence, in the winter season, the river swells with the torrents from the mountains, and the taro beds are overflowed. When the rains are over, and the rivers decrease, the dams are stopped up, and the water preserved to nourish the taro and sugar-cane during the dry season; the water in the beds is usually a foot and a half, or two feet, over a muddy bottom: the sugar-cane generally in less water, grows very large and fine, and is a material article of food with the natives, especially the lower class: the taro also grows as large as a man's head, and is the best article of the bread kind they have; sometimes they make a pudding of it, which they keep till it becomes a little sour, when they esteem it a great delicacy: it is then called po-e. The Indians eat an immoderate quantity of this article. Captain Portlock says he has seen his friend Abbenooe eat about two quarts at a meal, besides a quantity of fish or pork.

After gratifying his curiosity among the plantations, his friends accompanied him to a large house, near the bottom of the hills, on the west side of the valley, not exceeding three miles from the beach. It was large, commodious, and neat, with a handsome new mat on the floor: a wooden image of a tolerably large size, was seated on a chair; a grass-plat, with this figure in the centre, is inclosed with a small railing made of wood: several to-es, and other small articles, were also observed. Abbenooe informed the captain that this house had been built with the to-e he had given him on his first coming to Oneehow; and the other articles were also presents bestowed on him at different periods; and that the image was to commemorate his having been among them. Few people could obtain admittance into this house. Among other articles, it contained several drums; one of which was of considerable magnitude; the head of it was made of the skin of the large shark, already described; and these drums were said to be dedicated to their gods. Having taken refreshments, such as pork, salted fish, taro, and cocoa-nuts, they returned to the beach.

The long-boat being in shore, to convey provisions collected by a tabooara, or tax imposed by the king, Captain Portlock says, he had great reason to be well satisfied with the natives who attended on this occasion: he went off in the long-boat, accompanied by Abbenooe, and some other chiefs, who were much delighted with the sail to the ship, a brisk breeze happening at the time*.

From the 9th to the 12th of February nothing remarkable occurred. Three canoes came off with provisions, and, after having sold their cargoes, took their leave of us, as did their faithful friend, who left his son on board, wishing to go with us.

On the 16th their old friend Abbenooe came off from the east point of Atooi, in a large

* On his arrival on board, he found every thing in good order: the intention and industry of the people in supplying him with every thing in their power, exceeded all example; their hospitality and generosity were unbounded. Abbenooe's attachments to both ships' companies was singular. In general he slept on board the King George, where he was indulged with a cot, as has already been observed; the old man, however, had some falls before he perfectly understood its construction, by getting in on one side, and falling out of the other.

On the 8th the king arrived in the bay, with his usual attendants: he came on board, and seemed delighted with the friendly intercourse that subsisted between his subjects and the people. The Europeans always went on shore unarmed, that the natives might not be apprehensive of danger; and this conduct encouraged a mutual confidence in each other. The king continued on board a few hours, and then Captain Portlock accompanied him on board the Queen Charlotte, to see Captain Dixon.

double canoe, bringing a fine hog and some taro. Captain Portlock made him a present, with which he was perfectly satisfied, and immediately went on board the Queen Charlotte.

From this time till the first of March nothing extraordinary happened. A chief of some consequence, named Nohomitehitee, who had frequently been on board, and found very serviceable in procuring provisions, requested to be taken into the ship. He was so earnest in his solicitations, that the captain at last consented. He said he had collected a number of little articles, which he made a present of to his father, a very aged and infirm man, but Pooreeare, one of the king's messengers, who rules with an unlimited sway when the king and chiefs are absent from the island, knowing the old man was possessed of these things, went to him, and insisted upon all his treasure, consisting of to-es, beads, rings, and other articles which his son had given him. The aged man denied that he had any such property in his possession; having previously taken care to remove them out of the house, and conceal them in a hole on the ground, at a convenient distance from the habitation. The messenger still insisted upon knowing where they were, and the old man continuing obstinate, the king's officer seized him by the throat, and threatened to murder him, if he did not immediately deliver up the goods. He had proceeded so far in the execution of his threat, that he was nearly strangled before he would discover where his treasure was deposited: as soon as this information was obtained, the messenger made himself master of the whole.

Nohomitehitee landed with his canoe at this instant, and saw his father thus perfidiously plundered of his property, but did not interfere; not perhaps from a deficiency of courage, but dreading the unlimited power of a king's messenger. Nohomitehitee being taken on board according to his request, and relating his sorrowful tale, wanted to punish the messenger, for his ill behaviour; but Captain Portlock advised him to the contrary; and being afterwards tired of living upon salt provisions, he quitted the ship and left them. Since that time, the captain had no opportunity of seeing the king or Abbenooe before he left the islands, to enquire what had been done in his father's affair.

SECTION V.

Passage from the Sandwich Islands to the American Coast—Beer made of Sweet-Root—Arrival at Montague Island—Anchor in Hanning's Bay—Boats sent on a trading Expedition—Meet with a Vessel from Bengal—Visited by a powerful Tribe of Indians—Their Propensity to Theft—Departure from Montague Island—The Ships separate—Indians visit the Ships with Sea-otter Skins—Boat sent out—Plundered by the Indians—Visited by several Tribes.

PROCEEDING for the coast of America, a second time, nothing of material consequence occurred till the 19th of March. This day Captain Portlock, supposing himself about twenty-five or thirty leagues to the eastward of the Resolution and Discovery's track towards the coast, and having a strong gale with very thick weather, did not think it prudent to run during the night. Queen Charlotte brought to close under their lee quarter. During the night it continued to blow very hard, with heavy squalls from the south-south-east. From this time to the 12th of April, they kept their course for the coast. Both ships' companies were very well.

Having mentioned the method of brewing the sweet root, Captain Portlock here observes, that three quarts of molasses were put into six gallons of beer, in addition to a pint of essence of malt, and after remaining a short time in bottles, it was not inferior to the finest cyder. Richard Greenhalt, one of the quarter-masters, had a bottle given him daily, and it was found of infinite service to him; its good effects were almost instantaneous: it is an excellent and most valuable medicine. The poor man was so reduced with an almost continual spitting and vomiting of blood, that Captain Portlock's surgeon was of opinion he could not live many days.

Towards evening on the 17th, supposing the

were not more than ten leagues from the south-west point of Montague Island, Captain Portlock hauled the wind to the westward, under an easy sail, to wait for day-light to run in for the land; but in this he was disappointed; for soon after midnight, the weather grew very thick, and it began to rain. On the 18th, at three in the morning, the weather cleared a little: this, however, was of short continuance, for, in less than an hour, it again became thick, and the wind began to blow very fresh at south. They sounded with a hundred and fifty fathoms line, but got no bottom. They had then a succession of fresh gales, and thick dirty weather.

During the night of the 23d, they stood to the eastward under an easy sail, and early the next morning they stood in for the south-west point of Montague Islands, under all the sail they could make. At noon on the 24th, the extremes of Montague Island in sight bore east-by south five miles, and north by east four leagues, their distance from the nearest shore about three miles.

About one o'clock an appearance of a good bay presented itself on the Montague Island shore, to which Captain Portlock directed his course: at two o'clock the whale-boat was sent to sound and examine it. She returned in an hour, when the officer in her reported, that the ships could ride in it with safety; they accordingly hauled in for it, and anchored at four o'clock in twenty fathoms water, over a muddy bottom. On looking round the bay, Captain Portlock thought he could perceive it take a short turn round a point nearly at the bottom, on which he went, accompanied by Captain Dixon, to examine it. They carried good soundings to the said point, and found that a ship could lie in four and a half and five fathoms water, with the south point of the bay just shut in with this point at about a cable's length from the shore.

Before he left the ship they were visited by five canoes, some containing only one man, and others two; but the captain was surprised to find that they had not the skin of any animal among them. They had beads of various sorts, particularly yellow and green, of which they seemed much to approve. These visitors frequently repeated the word *Nootka*, at the same time pointing up the sound. Towards evening these people went away, and paddled out of the bay, after stealing several fishing-lines which were hanging overboard*.

No Indians coming near, he resolved to quit the place; and accordingly, on the 29th they weighed, and sailed out of the bay; but the same evening was obliged to run in again on account of contrary winds. During the night of the 2d of May, they had light variable winds, with calms by turns; but at nine the next morning a fine little breeze springing up from the westward, they weighed, and stood out of Hanning's Bay; when coming to an anchor, the long-boat and whale-boat of each ship, were made ready for a trading expedition farther up the sound, under the direction of Captain Dixon, In the mean time Captain Portlock proposed staying with the ships, and to have them hauled on shore. Here they could also fill their water, and do many other necessary works; this harbour being perfectly convenient.

Early the next morning the boats set out on their expedition, and by five were out of sight, clear of the harbour. Their various operations now began: the starboard side of the ship was cleaned, and paid with a coat of tar, chalk, and train-oil well boiled together.

When Captain Portlock was last at the Sandwich Islands, he bought a double canoe, which was fitted up; he now sent her, with two of the people, into an adjacent creek to get crabs and muscles; they being the only refreshment, the decoction of spruce excepted, which they could now obtain. About noon he had the satisfaction of seeing an Indian enter the harbour in a single canoe; he soon appeared along-side, but had nothing to barter, except a little porpoise-blubber, which he seemed to consider as a valuable article. The captain made him a present, which

* On the 25th they got some water for immediate use, but the seine was hauled without success: some of the ship's company were sent on shore the 26th to collect shell-fish, the only refreshment the place was known to afford; they could walk only along the beach, the adjacent country being entirely covered with snow. Wild geese and ducks appeared in great plenty, but they were so extremely shy that they could not be approached within gun-shot. In walking along the beach, Captain Portlock saw the remains of two Indian huts, and a quantity of wood that had evidently been cut down with edge tools; he therefore concluded that the Russians had visited this place the last autumn, not supposing the people of any other nation had been in these seas.

was more than equal to his expectations, and endeavoured to make him understand the nature of the traffic he wanted. He seemed to comprehend him, and respectfully took his leave, which flattered him with hopes that he would bring others to trade with him. Wild geese and ducks were now flying about in great abundance, but they were extremely shy; the captain was indeed afraid to fire at them, lest the report of the musquet might prevent the Indians from coming into the harbour.

By noon on the 7th the larboard side of the ship was finished; and at high water, they attempted to heave her off, but she did not fleet: Next morning at three o'clock, being high-water, and a high tide, they hove her off, and laid her in her former station. On the 8th they were visited by three of the natives in two canoes; but they had nothing to barter, except two river-otter skins, and two seal skins, which Captain Portlock bought of them, and sent them away well pleased.

On the 10th of May Captain Dixon returned, with the boats, from Snug-Corner Cove. During this excursion he had purchased thirty-six sea-otter skins, and a few other furs; they were principally procured near Cape Hinchinbrooke, to which place they first repaired, and afterwards proceeded towards Snug Corner Cove; the Indians having informed them that there was a vessel in that neighbourhood. The natives spoke several English words distinctly, and pointed out to Captain Dixon the place where the vessel lay. From this information he was induced to set off, attended by some of the Indians in their canoes, to the place he had been directed to, and on the 8th arrived on board. He found her to be the snow Nootka, Captain John Meares, from Bengal. Captain Meares had left that place in March 1786, and arrived in Prince William's Sound in October, where he wintered, and had buried a considerable part of his ship's company, and the survivors were in a very sickly state. Captain Dixon brought Captain Portlock a letter from Captain Meares, pointing out his distresses, and craving his assistance. He read the letter with infinite concern, and resolved to embrace any opportunity that might present itself of rendering him service*.

Most of this necessary business being now completed, the forges and brewing utensils were brought on board, and every thing got ready for sailing. At six in the afternoon the long boat set off for Cook's River, her crew in excellent spirits, and well found for a six weeks cruise. In the evening four canoes came along-side, but soon paddled away, having no articles to trade with†.

On

* Being on shore, giving directions about the armourer's tent, Captain Portlock was informed from the ship, that a boat was seen about the entrance of the bay, plying into the harbour: conceiving this to be the Nootka's, he went immediately on board, and sent his whale-boat out to her assistance; at ten o'clock the boat returned, with the Nootka long-boat in tow. Their assistance proved very acceptable; for the long-boat's crew were almost perished with wet and cold, and in a very weak condition. Captain Meares came in the boat himself, and more particularly related a narrative of his distressed situation during the winter, which was indeed a dreadful one; for before it broke up, the captain, and a Mr. Ross his chief mate, "were the only two persons capable of dragging the dead bodies from the ship over the ice, and burying them in the snow on the shore. Nay there was not a single person on board, who was not deeply affected with the scurvy."

Towards evening the wind blew strong, and in squalls, but the next morning the weather grew moderate: all hands were employed in wooding, watering, brewing, and working in the hold. The Queen Charlotte, having finished cleaning, brewing, and paying, hauled off the beach into her former station. In the afternoon they completed their water. At five Captain Meares took leave of our navigators, and proceeded towards his ship with as many refreshments as the boat could carry. They spared him some flour, sugar, molasses, Sandwich Island Pork, gin, brandy, and cheese; with two good seamen to assist in navigating his ship to China; at which place he was to return them. It was on their own requests, that both of them went on board the Nootka, and not from any influence of intreaty: the names of these two worthy fellows, were George Willis, and Thomas Dixon. Besides the articles above enumerated, Captain Portlock furnished Captain Meares with 150 cocoa-nuts, hoping they would assist in the recovery of his people.

† In the afternoon of the 13th, two large Indian boats approached our navigators, containing about forty persons, including men, women, and children: a number of small canoes attended them. They brought only two very indifferent skins, and a few fish, which Captain Portlock bought, and made their chief, named Shee-na-waa, a handsome present: he was, the captain understood, chief of the most powerful tribe in the Sound. These people were audacious thieves; for even the little boys were possessed of small hooked sticks for the purpose of picking pockets: about six o'clock these shameless pilferers quitted them, and went out of the harbour. The Queen Charlotte's boat was then about two miles without the harbour, with a fishing party, and the Indians hastened to join her. Fearing those

On enquiry, it appeared that Captain Dixon's people had no fire-arms in the boat; which was an unfortunate circumstance, as the bare sight of a musquet will deter the Indians from attempting any violence.

Every thing being ready for sea, they weighed anchor at day-light on the 14th, and with a light breeze from the north-east, went out of the harbour; and after getting out of the bay, hauled up towards Prince William's Sound. All the morning they had light variable winds; but at three in the afternoon, a fine breeze came on, with which they stood over for Hinchinbroke Cove. At six o'clock Captain Portlock sent his whale-boat on board for Captain Dixon; and as a good opportunity now seemed to present itself of getting out of the Sound, they determined on separating, and for each ship to adopt the plan already mentioned.

Captain Dixon soon afterwards returned on board, and the two captains took leave of each other: the Queen Charlotte shaped her course out of the Sound, and Captain Portlock bent his for Hinchinbroke Cove. At six the next morning, a fine breeze sprung up from the south-south-west, with which they ran up; and seeing a point in an arm of the cove, that promised good shelter round it, Captain Portlock sent the whale-boat to examine and sound the place; and following with the ship, he soon perceived there was a fine harbour round the point; he therefore stood in, and anchored in seven fathoms water, over a muddy bottom.

Though their situation was an eligible one, Captain Portlock discovered, by sounding around the ship, that they could have a better birth by going higher up the harbour. In the course of the day several canoes came along-side, from whom the captain purchased about a dozen sea-otter skins. In the morning of the 16th, they hove up the small bower, and after hauling the ship within shore of the best bower, let it go again in five fathoms water, and moored the ship head and stern. The land around them had a very dreary appearance, being deeply covered with snow quite down to high water mark: no space presented itself to walk in but the beach, after the tide had fallen. Two fresh-water rivulets were observed at the head of the harbour, which had the appearance of affording plenty of salmon at a proper season.

The articles they had to barter with, not being held in great estimation, the captain resolved to dispatch the whale-boat and yaul, under the direction of Mr. Cressleman and Mr. Bryant, on board the Nootka, to procure of Captain Meares some trading articles which he wanted, and which he knew that gentleman could spare. In the morning they had fresh gales from the eastward, but the weather being more moderate about noon, the captain sent the boats off to proceed up the Sound.

Next morning several canoes brought a trading party along-side, having with them thirteen good sea-otter skins, and a few very indifferent ones. The harbour affording very fine crabs and muscles, a considerable quantity of each were collected. On the 25th the whale boat returned from the Sound: they had parted with the yaul off the north point of the bay. Mr. Cressleman brought the articles captain Portlock had sent for to the Nootka, except a compass; the other things which had been requested, Captain Meares promised to deliver on his joining Captain Portlock at Cape Hinchinbroke, which he engaged to accomplish as soon as possible.

On the 26th they had a very heavy gale from the eastward: at six in the evening, the gale increasing to a violent degree, with constant rain and sleet, the top-gallant masts were got down upon deck, and the top-masts stuck close to the rigging. From this time to the 30th, the weather was so strong, that their operations on shore were considerably retarded. During this interval, only three canoes came along-side, with cod and halibut, sufficient for a day's support of the ship's company *.

Being at Garden Island on the 9th, Captain Portlock

lest daring wretches should pillage the boat, Captain Portlock kept a good look out with his glass, and soon observed a struggle between the two parties: he immediately put off in his whale-boat, she being always ready armed; and leaving directions with his mate to follow in the yaul, pushed out rapidly towards them. No sooner had the Indians seen the boat round the point, than they took to their paddles, and went off as expeditiously as they were able. The captain rowed out and joined the Charlotte's boat, and soon perceived that the Indians had taken all their fishing lines, and were forcing their anchor out of the boat at the very moment that he hove in sight.

* On the 16th of June the weather being fine, the captain, the boatswain, with four of the people, went to dig a spot of

Portlock saw the Nootka turning in towards the port, and dispatched the whale-boat and yaul to her assistance. At seven o'clock she anchored just without the King George. Some Indians coming into the bay the next day, seemed rather shy on seeing the Nootka, which might probably have been occasioned from their having fired at some of the natives before they quitted Sutherland's Cove, and wounded one of them. Captain Meares went on board the King George, to request his assistance, which was readily complied with.

On the 11th the long boat returned from Cook's River, having met with tolerable success; Messrs. Hayward and Hill assuring Captain Portlock that more business might be transacted in another trip. As soon as the boat was cleared, she was ordered to be fitted out with provisions, and an assortment of trading articles, for a second expedition.

The seamen and artificers were occupied in various employments for the Nootka, till the 15th, when a strong gale came on, with violent gusts of wind, and heavy rain. The weather becoming moderate on the 16th, the people resumed their various employments, and by the 17th the Nootka was in a condition fit for sea. For some time the weather had been extremely wet, and had much injured the health of many of the seamen; several of whom were ill of fevers, and violent colds. The Nootka being ready for sailing, Captain Portlock sent his whale-boat on the 19th, to assist them in getting under way, and at one she stood out of the cove: their spruce beer, being now in excellent order, was daily served out to the ship's company; and the sick people received considerable benefit from it.

The surrounding country now wore a pleasing aspect; the rains had melted most of the snow, and every thing seemed to indicate the approach of summer. The surgeon, and many who had lately been his patients, walked on shore, on the 20th, and gathered a quantity of water-cresses, which grew on the margin of the fresh-water rivulets. Plenty of flounders were caught in these streams with hook and line: these, with excellent crabs, which were abundant, proved an admirable substitute for salt provisions. In fishing for flounders, several cod and halibut were taken; which induced the captain to send the canoe some distance into the bay, to try for them; the canoe returned, laden with halibut and cod of very excellent quality.

In the afternoon they were visited by an Indian party, bringing with them some good sea-otter skins. They pointed towards the south-west, signifying that plenty of good furs might be procured from that quarter. This information occasioned the captain to send the boats on another expedition; and on the 24th he dispatched the whale-boat and yaul on a trip to the south-west part of the Sound, with provisions for a month, and a regular assortment to ensure success in trade. Such of the ship's company as could be spared, were now indulged with leave to recreate themselves on shore: Some of them ascended the highest hills in the neighbourhood, on the sides of which grew snake-root in great abundance, and a variety of flowers in full bloom. About eight in the evening Captain Portlock observed two Indian boats, and several canoes, enter the bay, landing on a sandy beach about three miles and a half from the ship.

Early the next morning, these new visiters came along-side, in one of their large boats; they consisted of twenty-five persons. Their

of ground for a garden, on a small island near the entrance of the cove, and which he named Garden Island. When the ground was ready, a variety of different sorts of seed were sown in it; as cabbage, onion, radish, savoy, celery, and many other culinary articles. On the 7th a canoe, with five Indians, came along-side, from whom the captain bought two sea-otter skins, and a considerable quantity of fine cod.

At ten in the evening the whale-boat and yaul returned from their expedition, with some very good skins, which they had purchased of a chief named Sheenaawa. The captain intended them for a longer trip, but they unluckily got into a large flat bay, where the boats grounded, and, before they could extricate themselves, the tide ebbed, and left them dry for about two miles round. Sheenaawa, and his tribe, which consisted of about two hundred men, observing their situation, paid them a visit, most of them armed with spears and knives. The boats crews, perceiving that plunder was what the Indians wanted, endeavoured to prevent it, but at the same time prudently kept the plunderers in good temper; which was acting very judiciously; for had they acted otherwise, and forcibly prevented them from stealing, not a man in either boat could have escaped the vengeance of their numerous opponents. The plundering party, all circumstances considered, were satisfied with moderate plunder. They stole two muskets, the same number of pistols, and some of the people's clothes; and what old Sheenaawa regarded as a thing of inestimable value, was Mr. Cresselman's quadrant, which he anxiously seised, together with his ephemeris.

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chief seemed to be a well-disposed man, of low stature, having a long beard. His body had been injured on one side, probably by a paralytic stroke; and his age was supposed to be about sixty. The old man made Captain Portlock a present of a valuable skin, but had hardly any thing else to dispose of except a few salmon, which the captain bought of him. He also made the chief a present, and distributed some trinkets among the women and children.

The name of this chief was Taatucktellingnuke: he informed the Captain that Cheneecock, situated in the south-west part of the Sound, was the country to which he belonged. Our new friends remained alongside the remainder of the day, and went on shore in the evening extremely well satisfied. The whole of his party were courteous, well informed, and well disposed. The natives belonging to Tacklaccimute, whom the captain supposed to inhabit Comptrollers' Bay, are particularly docile and friendly*.

Sheenawaa, whilst the Nootka wintered in Sutherland's Cove, sent repeated messages, intimating that he intended to come and cut them off. These messages, or rather menaces, were always delivered to an Indian girl, that an officer had purchased on their first arrival in the Sound. This girl made her escape from the Nootka in the winter, and probably gave an account of her weak and defenceless situation; as there can hardly be a doubt, from the number of men that Sheenanaa had with him at the time of the affair with the boats, that he meditated an attack on the Nootka; but bad weather coming on afterwards probably frustrated the design.

Taatucktellingnuke visited Captain Portlock on the 26th, requesting him to permit one or two of his people to attend him on shore to spend the night, offering to leave some of his people on board as hostages till their return. This singular request was complied with, and he ordered two of the people to accompany him on shore: he left three of his tribe on board, fully to convince the captain that he intended no harm. Early the next morning the old chief came again on board, and brought the two Europeans with him. Hostages being then formally exchanged, the captain made the old man and his companions some inconsiderable presents, and they all went to shore, perfectly satisfied with the attention that had been shewn them.

These Indians lodged in temporary huts, composed only of a few sticks, and a little bark: their principal food was fish, but by way of variety they fed on the inner rind of the pine-bark dried. Their greatest luxury was, however, a kind of rock-weed covered with the spawn of some fish, of which they gather and devour great quantities: they also eat the inner rind of the angelica and hemlock roots, which, though absolute poison to our Europeans, by constant and habitual use became salutary to them.

In hauling the seine on the 30th, they caught a large quantity of herrings, and some salmon; the herrings were small, but very good, two hogsheads of which were salted for sea-store. On the first of July old Taatucktellingnuke took his leave of the captain, and with his tribe paddled from the harbour towards Montague Island†.

On the 21st Captain Portlock went in the whale-boat into a small bay, about three miles from the ship, where some days before he had discovered a quantity of fine water cresses. The weather being tolerably fine, the captain took several of the people with him who had lately recovered from sickness, that they might have a walk, and receive some refreshment from the water-cresses: this little excursion had a beneficial effect on every one; they sat down on the grass, and dined heartily upon fried pork and salmon, and, by way of sallad, ate abundantly of the water-cresses; they also gathered a sufficient quantity to serve every person

* The country, inhabited by Sheenaawaa and his tribe, is called Taatucktellingnuke; and they are said to be the most powerful tribe about the Sound, being hated by all their neighbours, with whom they are perpetually at variance. Old Sheenaawa (whose rapacious disposition has already been noticed) had never appeared in the harbour after his depredations in the boats; but some of his people brought our navigators a few sea-otter skins, which they had procured by plunder or barter.

† They daily caught large quantities of salmon, but the weather not permitting them to be cured on board, captain Portlock sent the boatswain with a party on shore, to build a kind of house to smoke them in: in this erection there was sufficient room to hang six hundred fish up conveniently; and, seven fires being constantly burning, they were extremely well cured. The seine was several times hauled on the 11th, and not less than two thousand salmon were taken at each haul; but as the weather would not suffer them to cure them as well as they could have wished, they only kept a sufficient quantity, and let the rest escape. The salmon were now so numerous along the shores, that any quantity of them might be taken with the greatest ease.

son on board. Behind the beach where they landed, a fresh-water lake empties itself into the bay by a small river at the northern part of the beach, in which there was abundance of salmon. On the edge of the lake, the track of an animal was observed, which much resembled that of the mouse-deer. They returned on board in the evening, without seeing any of the Indians.

The long-boat appearing in sight the next day at noon, it appeared that all her crew were in good health. In this trip they had experienced much very bad weather, and had not been so successful as they expected. They fell in with numbers of the Kodiac Indians, who always behaved with great propriety, as did all the inhabitants of the river.

On the 24th their wooding and watering was completed, and every thing they had on shore taken on board: they lopped off the branches of the tallest tree on Garden Island, and fixed a long staff with a wooden vane on it; near the bottom was inscribed the name of the ship, with the year, and day of the month. Every thing being ready for sea, they weighed anchor at two o'clock in the morning of the 25th, and stood out of the cove; and by four, being clear of the cove, the boats were hoisted in.

SECTION VI.

Range along the Coast of Montague Island—Prince William's Sound—The Inhabitants, Manners, and Customs—Food—Cookery—Produce—Weapons—Hunting Implements—Anchor in Portlock's Harbour—Intercourse with the Natives—Long-boat sent on a trading Expedition—Visited by a distant Tribe of Indians—A Party of Traders from the East—Visit the Natives—Visit from North-west Friends—Account of the Natives—Leave Portlock's Harbour.

ON quitting the harbour (which was named Port Etches) Captain Portlock intended to stand out of the Sound by way of Cape Hinchinbrooke, but not approving of the appearance of the weather to the south-east, he resolved to push for the passage on the west side of Montague Island. He therefore shaped a course for the north point of Montague Island, with a fresh breeze at east-north-east.

After various occurrences of no importance, they were obliged to anchor in twenty-one fathoms water, over a black sandy bottom; the south point of the bay bearing south three quarters west, two miles, and the south point of some low land, lying off the entrance: into the Prince of Wales's Passage west by south, three leagues distant. Soon after they arrived in the Bay, three of their old friends from Cheeneecock came along-side, in two canoes: they were on a hunting expedition, and had three very good sea-otter-skins in their possession, which they readily parted with on receiving what was equivalent.

As they were now taking leave of Prince William's Sound, some description of the natives, their manners, customs, &c. with the produce of the country, may probably afford the reader satisfaction; the following particulars, which are the result of very close attention, and minute remarks on their behaviour and general conduct, will not be perhaps unacceptable.

These people are, taken in a general point of view, short in stature, and square made: their faces are flat and round, and they have prominent cheek bones, with flattish noses: their teeth are white, and good; their eyes dark and quick of sight: their smell, which is naturally acute, is much improved by their habitual method of scenting the snake-root. Their complexions are generally lighter than the Southern Indians, and rosy cheeks are seen among some of their women: their hair is black and straight, and they delight in having it long; but on the death of a friend, they cut it short, to signify their sorrow; no other method seeming to have been adopted as expressive of their lamentations. The legs of the men are generally ill-shaped, which may be rationally attributed to their constantly sitting in one position in their canoes. They are not destitute of pride or vanity, for they often paint the face and hands, cause their ears and noses to be bored, and the under-lip slit. An

An ornament made of bone or ivory, is hung in the hole of the nose to decorate it, and from the ears beads are usually pending, which extend almost to their shoulders. The slit in the lip is also ornamented with bone or ivory, fitted with holes, which are sometimes embellished with beads reaching to the chin. These holes in the lip are sometimes as large as the mouth, and have a very disgusting appearance. But with all this imaginary finery, they are extremely filthy in their persons, and are frequently covered with vermin, which in times of scarcity, are frequently taken as food. Captain Portlock says, "I have seen them pick and eat to the number of a dozen or more; and they are not very small*."

During the intercourse of our Europeans with these people, they became less addicted to thieving, from Captain Portlock's sometimes appearing a little angry with them, and taking pains to shew them the impropriety of their conduct. Upon the whole they seem to be a good kind of people, and could a settlement of sufficient strength be established, they would probably be an industrious set of people, in hunting and procuring sea-otter, and other skins for sale. The weaker tribes are frequently plundered by the stronger, and often prevented from hunting, which would not be the case were a proper settlement established; for that would give protection to the whole inhabitants of this Sound†.

The country round it, after the snow leaves it about the middle of June, is pleasant enough: before that period, the weather is at times, very fine and pleasant, and at other times exceedingly boisterous with constant rain, which washes away the great quantities of snow, leaving the lower parts clear, and the vegetables are instantly perceived coming forth.

This country abounds in trees of the pine kind, a quantity of alder, and a kind of hazel. Fruit-bushes are extremely plenty; such as raspberry-bushes, bilberry-bushes, alderberry-bushes, currant-bushes, and strawberries. Here are water-cresses, wild celery, sour dock, shepherd's purse, angelica, hemloc, and wild peas. The buds of the young black-currant bushes were made use of as tea, with the pine tops mixed, which drank very pleasant‡.

During the summer season, these people lead a strange wandering life, and in bad weather, are either sheltered in their canoes, or small sheds, made of a few sticks, covered with bark: their winter habitations are from four to six feet high, about ten feet long, and seven or eight broad. They are built with thick plank, and the crevices filled up with dry moss.

Their weapons used in war are spears of sixteen or eighteen feet long, headed with iron, and long knives, in the use of all which they are astonishingly dexterous. Their fishing implements are wooden hooks, with lines made of small rock-weed, which grows to a good length, and will bear a good strain, if kept clear of kinks, and properly moistened: with these hooks and lines they catch halibut and cod; they catch salmon in wiers, or spear them; and herrings are taken in small nets. The instruments with which they kill the sea-otter, and other amphibi-

* Their cloathing consists wholly of the skins of animals and birds. They are very friendly; and remarkably tender and affectionate to their women and children; but if the least improper treatment is practised to their women, their indignation is great. Thieving is a prevailing propensity among them; a vice by no means peculiar to themselves, but equally observable in all other Indians; not only from strangers, but from one another. When they happen to be detected, they will sometimes give up the articles they have stolen, with a loud laugh, and instantly appear as unconcerned as if nothing had happened amiss. Thieving, among these people, is rather considered as meritorious, instead of disgraceful, if the pilferer has shewn any dexterity, but the bungling robber is not much admired. The proved thief is generally known by a profusion of paint upon his face; and whilst others are admiring the whimsicality of his appearance, his hands will undeviatingly be employed, if any thing near him is entitled to his attention.

† The whole of these people stand so much in awe of fire-arms, that a few men well provided would be perfectly secure. Captain Portlock says, "Were I to advise a place for wintering at and forming a settlement, it should be the west harbour of Port Etches. It hath several advantages over any place I have seen on the coast; one of them is, that it lies so near the sea, that in all probability it would be one of the last places that would freeze, and one of the first in which the ice would break up."

‡ The natives never practise the method of smoking their provisions; and, for salt, can only dry their fish in the sun, having no other method of curing their winter stock: they generally roast their fresh fish, by running some sticks through to spread it, and clapping it up before the fire. They usually dress their animal food in baskets or wooden vessels, by putting to it red hot stones, till they think the victuals are dressed enough. It is indeed astonishing that they can dress their provisions so expeditiously as they do in this way.

ous animals, are harpoons made of bone, with two or more barbs; having a staff of seven or eight feet long, on which a skin, or well-blown bladder, is fastened as a buoy; and darts of three or four feet long, which they throw with a wooden instrument of the length of about a foot.

Being well clear of Montague Island, they stood to the southward and eastward, intending to make a harbour near Cape Edgecombe. All the land next the sea, beginning about eight leagues to the south-east of Cross Cape, and trending to within ten leagues of Cape Edgecombe, appears to be composed of low woody islands, having apparently several places of good shelter. On drawing near the opening, about two miles from the shore to the north-west of it, they had twenty and twenty-five fathoms water. A large Indian boat came out, perhaps to view the ship: of twelve people who were in her, only three of them were men; the rest were women and children.

The navigators run up to the north-west of the harbour, and anchored about noon. Soon after they were moored, the Indian boat, which had followed them, came along-side, and the people entertained them with a song. Their language appeared to be totally different from that spoken by the natives of Prince William's Sound; but they extended their arms, like those people, as indications of peace. Their boat was the body of a large pine-tree, neatly excavated, and the whole of it neatly and elegantly finished. Captain Portlock made his new visitors a few trifling presents, and spoke to them about sea-otters' skins, by the name they bear at Prince William's Sound; but as they did not understand him, he shewed them a sea-otter skin, intimating by signs that he requested they would bring him some; to which they seemed perfectly inclined. They were ornamented with beads of various sorts, and had some articles which induced him to suppose that the Queen Charlotte had touched near this neighbourhood; particularly in a tin kettle and some towes, exactly corresponding with theirs. The Indians, after receiving a few presents, left the ship and went on shore, where they continued a short time, and then returned with a few dry sea-otter skins. The chief informed Captain Portlock that they had frequent intercourse with the inhabitants of Prince William's Sound, in the course of which quarrels sometimes arose, and battles frequently ensued; one of the men pointed to a deep wound near his lip, which he had received in an engagement with them*.

Early the next morning the Indians returned with the European, to be exchanged; but they brought very little trade. The person who went on shore with the Indians, informed the captain that their residence was at the foot of a hill, near a run of fresh water, issuing out of an adjacent valley. Their house seemed to be of the temporary kind, and very few articles of trade were to be seen in it.

The long-boat, at five in the morning of the 7th of August, was sent on a trading expedition towards Cape Edgecombe, and the islands to the south-east of that cape: the adventurers were particularly enjoined to return in seventeen days; and, if they happened to fall in with the Queen Charlotte, to desire Captain Dixon to sail with them towards their present harbour, and remain in the offing till Captain Portlock should join him.

The adjacent country abounding with white cedar, Captain Portlock sent the carpenter on shore with a party, to cut some for sawing into sheathing boards: the remainder of the ship's company were employed on various necessary occasions. A small canoe came along-side on the 8th, with one man and a woman; but they had nothing to dispose of: they soon returned towards the eastern point of the Sound. About eight in the evening, the same canoe came again, in company with two large boats, containing twenty-five persons. They entertained the Europeans about an hour with singing, and then took their leave, and went on shore. On leaving

* Towards evening the visitors were preparing to go on shore, but by securing the captain's friendship, they wished to leave one of their party on board for the night, and take one of his people with them on shore. As they seemed to betray no mischievous or plundering disposition by their manner of behaviour, the captain had no particular objection to the proposal; especially as the person he might send would have an opportunity of observing what number of sea-otter skins they had in their possession, and might be enabled to form an idea of their manner of living. He therefore permitted one of his people to go on shore; and that he might be under no apprehension about his safety, two of the Indians (instead of one as had been at first proposed) remained on board, and behaved very properly. They were good-looking young men, and had much the appearance of being brothers.

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the ship, they intimated that they had some excellent skins to dispose of, and that they would produce them in the morning: soon after daylight they again made their appearance alongside, bringing five excellent sea-otter skins, with a number of beautiful black skins; such as the captain had never seen before, but he supposed they were a species of seal.

This tribe traded very conscientiously and fairly, and as they had not exhibited *traits* of a thieving disposition, the captain admitted several of them on board. When dinner was served in the cabin these people required very little invitation to partake, but began to eat very heartily; and so well did they relish the repast that was set before them, that the table was soon cleared, and there was occasion for another course: that was accordingly brought in; and they ate with as keen an appetite as before; but being at length fairly satiated, they gave over, but with some reluctance. After surveying the different parts of the ship, and receiving some inconsiderable presents, they returned to the shore, well satisfied with their luscious feast*.

These Indians had a quantity of beads about them, extremely different from any that the captain had before seen: they had also a carpenter's adze, with the letter B and three *flour-de-lis* on it. The chief declared that he received these articles from two vessels, which had been with them to the north-west: he further observed, that they had a drum on board, and several great guns. When this small party had done trading, the chief requested to stay all night on board with the elder boy; a boon which the captain willingly complied with, and sent Joseph Woodcock on shore with the other man and child. The chief from the north-west, with his little party, took leave of the captain the n[illegible] morning, and proceeded towards home; promising him to return in the course of eight or ten days with more sea-otter skins.

On the 11th of August two large boats came into the Sound from the eastward, containing individuals belonging to a tribe who were entire strangers to the Europeans: of men, women, and children; taken collectively, they amounted to twenty-five. Of these Captain Portlock bought some valuable sea-otter skins, a cloak of small black skins, and several separate hides of the same denomination. This new party of dealers did not associate with the other Indians: but when the business was over, and their curiosity gratified, by examining the ship, and its contents, they went on shore in a bay near the ship, where the cooper was employed in brewing spruce-beer†.

The next morning the captain went in the whale-boat, accompanied by Mr. Wilbye and one of the young Indians, to the residence of the latter; he undertaking to be their guide and conductor. Rowing to the north-west for about two miles, they came to a point of land, which was found to be an island, situated at the entrance of an arm of the Sound, which trends away between north and north-east. The Indian informed the captain that his habitation was situated up that arm. Arriving at his place of abode about noon, they found it a small temporary house; near which were the ruins of two others which had been considerably larger, and seemed to have been used as winter habitations. On the beach was observed a large boat, and three others on a smaller scale; the large one could accommodate thirty persons, and the others not exceeding ten each. From this circumstance

* About one o'clock on the 9th of August, an Indian boat came into the Sound with two men, a boy about twelve years of age, and a young child in her. One of the men was not only a fine looking fellow, but had much the appearance of a person of great consequence. Captain Portlock bought of these visitors some fine sea-otter skins, and a number of wild geese. The method of catching these birds is, to chase and knock them down as soon as possible after they have shed their large wing-feathers, when they are unable to escape by flight.

† Some of their old friends came on board in the evening to sleep with them, and a man was sent on shore by way of hostage as usual: it appeared necessary to conform to the custom of the natives in this particular; for more than once, when hostages were refused in consequence of the appearance of bad weather, they were much alarmed, and would not come near the ship on any consideration.

On Sunday the 12th Captain Portlock permitted the ship's company to recreate themselves on shore, supposing a walk would be highly serviceable to them: the surrounding country was pleasant and agreeable, affording great quantities of ripe blackberries and raspberries. In the course of their ramble, this party fell in with a large spot of low swampy ground, situated behind the brewery beach, on which the Indian tea grew in great abundance. This discovery was fortunately made at a critical period; the greatest part of our other tea being expended, and that which we had so recently explored was found a most excellent substitute. It grows on a low shrub, about twelve inches from the ground; the leaf is about half an inch long, tapering gradually to the point, and the under part is covered with a light downy substance.

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he expected to have seen a numerous tribe, and was surprised to discover that it consisted only of three men, three women, the same number of girls, two boys aged about twelve years, and two infants. One of the women appeared to be at the advanced age of eighty: the eldest of the men was very much marked with the small pox; and the disease seemed to have been equally severe with a young girl of the age of about fourteen. The old man said that distemper had carried off a great number of the inhabitants, and that he himself had lost ten children by it; ten strokes were tatooed on one of his arms, to signify that he had sustained such a loss. The captain did not observe any of the children under twelve years were so marked, and therefore supposed this disorder about twelve years before that period: as the Spaniards were on this part of the coast in 1775, it seemed probable that from them these poor wretches caught the fatal infection. They seem to be a nation designed by providence, to be a scourge to every tribe of Indians they come near*.

On the 15th the long-boat returned from her expedition to the eastward; she had been to the eastward of Cape Edgecombe, where they met with some inhabitants, and purchased about a score of good sea-otter skins. Between the harbour and the cape, they fell in with a strait about a league wide at the entrance, with bold shores and good anchorage†.

On the 20th their late visitor from the south-west made his appearance in a large boat; his party consisting of twenty men and women, and ten or twelve children. As this chief, on his taking leave of Captain Portlock, had promised to return with a large cargo of sea-otter skins, a brisk trade was now expected to begin; but at this time his old acquaintance was not for transacting business in a hurry; he supposed that, on his last visit, they were not impressed with an adequate idea of his importance; for now he came along-side, with his party, in great pomp and solemnity, all of them singing: they had instrumental, as well as vocal music, which consisted of a large old chest, beaten with the hands, by way of drum, and two rattles. The chief held one of the rattles in his hand, often shaking it with an air of consequence, and the rest of his tribe were particularly exact in copying his motions‡.

After this long ceremony was over, the chief made

* The Spaniards were among them in the height of summer, and probably they caught the infection about August. To observe their manner of living at that season of the year, it seems miraculous that any of them should escape with their lives. Men, women, and children are all huddled together in a close house near a large fire, surrounded with stinking fish. All round the house, and along the banks of a little creek running down by this miserable dwelling, were strewed stinking fish; among which were observed several beds of maggots a foot deep, and ten or twelve feet in circumference. The sufferings of the poor Indians, when this disorder was at its height, must have been inconceivable, and the country was doubtless nearly depopulated; for to this day it remains very thinly inhabited.

† A short time before they intended sailing to return to the ship, two Indians went in two boats, and took an opportunity of cutting their cable. The anchor lay in twenty-eight fathoms water without a buoy, so that there was not the least chance of recovering it. Having accomplished this piece of mischief, they hastened to the shore, and landed at a small distance from the long-boat. Exasperated at their daring behaviour, the Europeans landed with the boat, and entirely destroyed both the Indian boats; when the natives fled into the woods. This crime of the Indians was of so mischievous a nature, that it became necessary to punish them for it; and the destruction of their boats would probably make a greater impression than taking away some of their lives. After filling their water, and getting a little wood on board, the long-boat returned to the ship, and during the whole passage did not see a single canoe.

On the 18th Captain Portlock went in the whale-boat to survey the south point of the entrance into the Sound; and, landing in a small bay, found a sort of monument near the beach, probably erected to the memory of some distinguished chief. This edifice consisted of four posts, each about twenty feet long, stuck in the ground about six feet distant from each other, and in a quadrangular form. About twelve feet from the ground there was a rough boarded floor, in the middle of which an Indian chest was deposited; and on the side of the edifice to the westward, and which pointed up the Sound, the resemblance of a human face was painted. This wooden edifice, from its tottering condition, had probably been erected a long time, as it began to decay: in attempting to examine the chest, to learn what it contained, the whole fabric had like to have given way, on which Captain Portlock ordered the boat's crew to desist, that a building might not be destroyed that was possibly looked upon by the Indians as sacred, and which they were anxious to preserve.

‡ He was decorated with an old coat, made of cloth which formerly had been scarlet, with some old gold or silver fringe about the shoulders: he had also a cloak, embellished on each side with a profusion of buttons, and small lead pipes, each about an inch long. His hair, after having been well oiled, was entirely filled with down taken from gulls: and in this grotesque figure, he displayed as much

made the captain a present of half a sea-otter skin; but produced nothing for sale, intimating that he must go on shore before any traffic could begin. Returning again, with his party, Captain Portlock thought the traffic would instantly commence; but he was again disappointed, for singing was again begun; and, in order to vary the amusement, the chief represented a variety of characters, whilst his people were engaged in singing. At one time he appeared as a warrior, and assumed an appropriate dress, and seemed to have all the ferocity of an Indian conqueror about him. He next appeared in the character of a woman, wearing a mask which represented a woman's face, with their usual ornaments; this character was so well imagined and supported, that it seemed beyond the reach of Indian art.

After the conclusion of this entertainment, of which the approbation of the spectators was expected and required, the chief and his attendants came on board, and trade was proceeded on. In the course of the day Captain Portlock bought twenty-five pieces of good sea-otter, equal to about ten whole skins; but it appeared that the chief charged for the entertainment as well as the furs, for he was obliged to pay extravagantly dear for the articles he purchased.

The chief remaining on board with one of his people, and as he required a hostage, the captain sent Joseph Woodcock on shore with his party. Woodcock having been frequently left as an hostage, was become intimate with many of the natives, and they seemed excessively fond of his company. Upon one of these occasions, he remained three days among the Indians; which gave him an excellent opportunity of observing their customs and mode of living; and his account exactly tallied with the captain's own observations on shore: their filth and nastiness exceeded all conception; and their food, which consisted principally of fish, was mixed with stinking oil and other disagreeable ingredients. The remains of every meal were thrown into a corner of their hut on a heap of the same kind of materials in a complete state of putrefaction, which diffused a very loathsome and offensive odour: to render the situation still more horrible, the same apartment served them both to eat and sleep in.

This comfortless situation frequently induced Woodcock to take a ramble into the woods; but his motions were strictly watched by some of his new companions, who were always apprehensive that he sought an opportunity of making his escape from them. Once in particular, when he had rambled a considerable distance from the residence of the Indians, he began to amuse himself with whistling; not supposing, even if the natives heard him, that they could possibly be offended; but in this respect he was exceedingly mistaken; for several of them ran up immediately, and insisted on his silence. Not perfectly comprehending the meaning of this peremptory injunction at first, he ventured to go on with his tune. One of the natives, however, put a stop to it, by laying his hand on Woodcock's mouth; considering the whistling as a signal for his companions to come for him. But though he was thus narrowly watched by these people, they treated him in other respects with great kindness; and, at their meals, selected the nicest morsels for him to regale on, mixing his fish with plenty of putrid oil, which in their opinion, added greatly to its perfection: they were so fully convinced of the delicious relish communicated by this oil, that he found it no easy matter to persuade them to let him eat his fish without sauce*.

On the 21st the Indian chief, with his party,

such consequence as a Spanish don could have done. Besides this curious dress, which the chief himself wore, he had another in the boat not less remarkable, in which a woman appeared, during the time of her singing.

* By living in this receptacle for filth, these poor wretches are literally swarming with vermin, but they regarded them as no matter of inconvenience, for if these attendants at any time grew troublesome, they fed upon their little enemies, after having captured them about their persons. Sometimes, indeed, when they were found uncommonly numerous and ravenous, they obtained a little respite, by turning the inside outwards.

Poor Woodcock soon became as much caressed by these crawlers as his companions, but as such guests were a novelty to him, he began to feel his situation extremely disagreeable. The Indians endeavoured to persuade him to retaliate in the manner they were accustomed to act; but this was so totally repugnant to his feelings, that he could not follow their plan of operations. At length, however, he prevailed on some of the women to drive them from their quarters, and the hunters were probably well paid for hunting by the game they captured.

returned on board, but he was as tedious in the disposal of his furs as he had been on the preceding day. About seven in the evening their trading was finished; and, knowing the neighbourhood was cleared of all the furs, Captain Portlock resolved to take the earliest opportunity of quitting the Sound: the ship was consequently immediately put into a state fit for sea.

This party from the north-west understood the art of thieving with as much dexterity as any of their former visitors in the Sound. When any one had fixed his eye on an article he intended to steal, it is astonishing to see with what patience, secrecy, and dexterity he will convey the booty away. One fellow, in particular, conceived a fancy, for Captain Portlock's drinking mug, which was a black-jack: he had got it under his frock, which was made in the fashion of those at Prince William's Sound; but, unfortunately for the poor fellow, it happened to be about half full of beer, a part of which having splashed over, discovered the thief and his intentions. Though the captain kept two people continually in his cabin, to observe the motions of the bye-standers, whilst he traded with any of them, one fellow found an opportunity of getting a cutlass under his frock, and was not detected till he was descending the side of the ship. Captain Portlock took it from him, gave him several strokes with the flat side of it, and afterwards drove him from the ship. Yet, notwithstanding all their vigilance, another fellow stole out of a box in the cabin four pair of worsted stockings, and several other articles, with which he got out of the ship undiscovered. Their visitors from the east appear to have much more honour and honesty than the western people, and are less savage and ferocious.

The women at this Sound, which has obtained the appellation of Portlock's Harbour, disfigure themselves in a very extraordinary manner, by making an incision in the upper lip, in which they wear an oval piece of wood, the size being regulated by the age of the wearer; some of them had these ornaments of the magnitude of a tea-saucer. The weight of this preposterous embellishment drags the lip down so as to cover the whole of the chin, leaving the lower teeth and gum naked and exposed, which gives them a disagreeable appearance. The children have their lips bored when about two years of age, and put a piece of copper wire to prevent it from closing; this they wear till they are about fourteen, when it is taken out, and the wooden ornament introduced. They also have their ears bored, where they wear their ornaments of beads and other things. Their apparel is the same kind as worn by the men; and both sexes delight in long hair, considering it as a very prepossessing ornament. The women wear the hair either clubbed behind, or tied up in a bunch on the crown of the head: the men wear it loose, or tied at the crown. The method of dressing the hair with bird's down, is only practised by the men. The women are generally hair-dressers for their husbands, in which character they conduct themselves with dexterity and good nature.

Polygamy is not countenanced here: Captain Portlock never observed any of the natives to have more than one woman, whom he seemed to consider as his wife; to whom they pay strict attention, and treat with tenderness and affection: any familiar advances towards another's wife is deemed an unpardonable affront. Both men and women are also fond and affectionate parents. The women are the treasurers, who generally keep their riches in a box or basket; and the women also take the lead in fashions. It is not the custom of these people, as with the South-sea Islanders, for the men and women to eat separately, nor are the females confined to food of a particular description. Men, women, and children sit down indiscriminately at their meals, which principally consist of different kinds of fish: such as salmon, seals, sea-otters, porpoises, and a variety of shell-fish.

Their persons, with regard to size, are like the Europeans: the men have a fierce and savage aspect, which, with their dress, gives them much the appearance of warriors; their weapons of war are daggers, and long-pointed spears: they are soon irritated, and their revenge is unlimited: being well acquainted with their tempers, Captain Portlock always guarded as much against them as possible: and upon all occasions took care to be well provided for them in case of an attempt, by keeping his pistols ready charged before him.

Their women, were it not for the filth which they abound in, would be by no means disagreeable; their features in general are pleasing, and expressive of a modest diffidence. They frequently

quently gave our navigators an opportunity of witnessing their desire to please, particularly when the wooding party went on shore. At those times, they usually ranged themselves in a line, and began to sing, not omitting to exhibit innocent scenes of drollery, to please the people while they were at work. If their exertions happened to please the people, and make them laugh, they all immediately joined in a loud burst of joy and approbation. Their language, however, is harsh and unpleasant to the ear.

The habitations of these people are made of a few boards, which they take away with them when they repair to their winter quarters. It is surprising to see how well they shape the boards with the wretched tools they employ. Their country is mountainous, and covered with the pine-tree; many of which grow to an amazing size.

They have great ingenuity, which they demonstrate upon various occasions: they form a curious basket of twigs, in which they frequently boil their victuals, by putting red-hot stones in them. Their ideas of carving are far from being contemptible; every utensil they make use of, having some rude carving, representing one animal or another.

SECTION VII.

Passage from the Coast to the Sandwich Islands—Transactions there—Letters received from Captain Dixon and Mr. Ross—Their final Departure—Passage to China—Arrival there—And proceed to England—Anchoring in Margate Roads on the 24th of August, 1778.

ON the 17th of September, at two in the morning, standing to the south by east, Captain Portlock saw a large flight of flying-fish, the first during the passage: also a few tropic birds, and some bottled-nose porpoises. From this time to the 27th, nothing interesting happened; and then, at half past eight, they saw the high land of Owhyhee, bearing west-south-west, distant fifteen or twenty leagues. On the 28th at five in the morning, they found themselves two leagues and a half from the land: at which time they bore up, and made sail towards the shore. At five they were six miles from the shore, when a parcel of canoes came off with the different productions of the island; as hogs, fowls, bread-fruit, plantains, taro, and a few cocoa-nuts. Of other articles they also bought an abundant supply; and though there was a heavy swell, and the day unsettled, some of them made several trips to shore, before the evening came on, for other cargoes, as they disposed of their first. Remaining within about four or five miles of the shore, from seven in the morning till seven in the evening, they purchased about two hundred hogs and pigs, six dozen fowls, three tons of bread kind, with plenty of fishing nets: they found these articles very commodious for trading with, as they could get provision for them upon very moderate terms.

On the 29th of September they caught several very large sharks: it was astonishing to see how little these fish are dreaded. Captain Portlock frequently saw five or six large sharks swimming about the ship, when there have been upwards of a hundred Indians in the water, including men, women, and children. They seemed perfectly indifferent about them, and the sharks never attempted to make an attack upon them, though at the same time they would seize the bait of the Europeans very greedily.

On the 3d of October, in running along shore, a number of canoes, large and small, came off to our navigators, but had hardly a single article of provision. From these visitors they understood that the king, and most of the principal men of the island were at Oneehow, and that previous to their setting off for that island, they had tabooed the hogs, and prevented their getting any. They were also informed that the Nootka and Queen Charlotte had been at the island: and Captain Portlock received intelligence that Captain Dixon had left a letter for him with Abbenooe, which then lay at his house at Wymoa. The next morning a young man, named Tahiree, who

who was the son of Abbenooe, came on board, with intelligence that the letter was tabooed in the house, and could not be delivered to any person but Abbenooe, or in obedience to his direction. About ten o'clock the following morning, Captain Portlock, made sail for Oneehow, with a fair breeze at east south-east.

On the 4th of October, at six in the evening, they came to anchor on the south-west side of Oneehow, in sixty-two fathoms water. At nine in the morning two canoes came alongside, from which they procured a temporary supply of yams. From the people of these canoes they understood, that Abbenooe would be on board in a short time, accompanied by the king and his principal men. About two in the afternoon the king came on board, attended by Abbenooe and the principal men of Oneehow and Atooi, bringing with them a large quantity of yams and potatoes. Abbenooe, observing one of the people, who was just returned from shore, having only one shoe on, enquired what was become of the other. Being informed that he had lost it in the surf, as he got into the boat, Abbenooe took a canoe and paddled away for the beach, and in less than an hour he returned on board, bringing the shoe and buckle, greatly delighted that he had been successful in his undertaking.

In the morning of the 7th, a messenger from Atooi brought Captain Dixon's letter, dated the 18th of September, and that he had left the coast, on the 9th of August, all well, and with fifteen hundred skins. November 4, at five in the evening, saw at day-light the islands of Saypan and Tinian. At half past eight, the passage between Saypan and Tinian open, steered for it, and about nine passed close to the south end of Saypan, immediately to the westward, off which point is a good bay *.

On the 18th, at day-light our navigators were surrounded by a number of Chinese fishing vessels, or junks. At half past nine, seeing a Chinese vessel steering towards them, they shortened sail, and brought to, hoping to get a pilot out of her. Sent the whale-boat on board her, which speedily returned, accompanied by a boat from the Chinese vessel, in which came a pilot, with whom Captain Portlock agreed for his carrying the ship to Macao for fifty dollars. At half past ten stood to the west-north-west.

On the 21st they weighed, and stood towards Macao, and at half past four anchored in Macao-road, in four fathoms and a half. On the 25th, at two in the afternoon came to six fathoms, two miles below Wymoa †.

On the 30th of May Captain Portlock sailed for England, and on the 13th of June arrived at the island of St. Helena, from whence they resumed their passage on the 19th, and anchored in Margate Roads on the 24th of August: the people all in high spirits, and rejoiced to see their native shore.

The grand object of the voyage, of which an account is given in the preceding sheets, being to trade for furs, in expectation of finding it an advantageous traffic; the public will therefore naturally enquire whether such expectations has been answered, especially as reports have been industriously propagated to the contrary. That the *King George's Sound Company* have not accumulated immense fortunes, may perhaps be true, but it is also true that they are gainers to the amount of some thousands of pounds; and that they have not been more completely successful, allowance will naturally be made for their inexperience in a first essay. From this plain statement of facts, it is perhaps the most profitable and lucrative employ that the enterprising merchant can possibly engage in.

* A number of white animals were observed grazing on the plains of Tinian, which were supposed to be the white cattle with which Lord Anson says the island of Tinian so much abounds. They could not, though within half a mile of Saypan, perceive an animal of any kind: but both the islands appear transcendently beautiful, abounding in immense quantities of cocoa-nut and other trees.

† Whilst they lay there, a dangerous mutiny happened on board the Belvidere, Captain Greer, then lying at the same place. On which occasion a court of enquiry was held for the trial of the mutineers. The court having gone through the evidence, and asked what the prisoners had to say for themselves, it appeared that there had not been the least cause for murmur against the ship's company, or for ill usage from any one petty officer in the ship. The court were therefore of opinion, that severe and immediate corporal punishment should be inflicted upon the ringleaders; and that *Berry* and *Lilly*, at different ships of the fleet receive, *Berry* one hundred, and *Lilly* seventy lashes; that the rest be punished on board the *Belvidere*, and that *Ludson* and *Keiff* receive sixty lashes; *Garland*, *Skinner*, and *Connor* forty-eight lashes: *Hastings* and *Langford* twenty-four lashes; and *Kelly*, as least culpable, receive twenty lashes.

END OF PORTLOCK'S VOYAGE ROUND THE WORLD.

A

VOYAGE TO MADAGASCAR,

AND

THE EAST INDIES.

BY THE ABBE ROCHON,

Member of the Academies of Scienees of Paris and Petersburg, Astronomer of the Marine, Keeper of the King's Philosophical Cabinet, Inspector of Machines, Money, &c.

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH.

THE island of Madagascar was discovered in 1506, by Lawrence Almeyda; but it has been known from time immemorial by the Persians and Arabs, under the name of *Sarandib*. When the Portuguese first discovered it, they wished to give it the name of the Island of Saint Lawrence. In the reign of Henry IV. the French named it *Isle Dauphine;* and though its real name is Madecasse, it is generally known under that of Madagascar.

This large island appears, by the united testimony of several learned geographers, to be the *Cerne* of Pliny, and the *Minuthiasde* of Ptolemy. It extends almost N. N. E. and S. S. W. and lies between the twelfth and twenty-sixth degrees of southern latitude. It is greatly celebrated for the fertility of its soil, and the variety of its productions; and is plentifully watered by streams and large rivers, as well as by a number of small rivulets, which have their sources at the bottom of that long chain of mountains, which separates the eastern from the western coast.

The traveller, who, in the pursuit of knowledge, traverses for the first time, wild and mountainous countries, intersected by ridges and valleys, must be often struck with terror and surprise, at beholding the awful precipices; the summits of which are covered with trees, as ancient, perhaps, as the world: his astonishment is further increased on hearing the sound of immense cascades, which are too inaccessible for him to approach. But these truly picturesque scenes, are ever succeeded by rural views, delightful hills, and flourishing plains, where vegetation is never interrupted by the severity and vicissitude of seasons. Exuberant pastures afford nourishment to numerous herds of cattle and flocks of sheep. Agriculture is here seen making wonderful advances, while nature alone defrays almost all the expences. The fortunate inhabitants of Madagascar never moisten the earth with the sweat of their brows: they turn it up slightly with a pick-axe, and the business is achieved.

The forests contain an infinite variety of the most beautiful trees; such as palms of every kind, ebony, wood for dying, enormous bamboos, and orange and lemon-trees. All the forests of Madagascar abound with plants unknown to the botanists; some of which are aromatic and medicinal, and others fit for dying. The most indefatigable botanist, in the course of a long life, would be but slightly acquainted with the natural history of all the vegetable productions of this island, the extent of which, in latitude, comprehends several climates. There are, indeed, few countries in the world where navigators can find, in greater abundance, and at less expence, refreshments of every kind.

The natives of Madagascar are called *Malegaches*, or *Madecasses:* they are portly in their persons, and somewhat exceed the middle stature. The colour of their skin is different: and among one tribe it is of a deep black; among another it is tawny; some are approaching to a copper colour;

colour; but the greater part of them have a tint of the olive. Those who are black have woolly hair, like negroes on the coast of Africa: those who exhibit a complexion similar to that of the Indians and Mulattoes, have as lank hair as the Europeans. Their nose is not flat; they have a broad open forehead, thin lips, and features regular and agreeable; and they display a countenance of peculiar frankness and good-nature. These people are extremely indifferent about acquiring knowledge, which cannot be obtained without reflection. A natural want of care, and a general apathy renders every thing insupportable to them that requires attention: they pass the greater part of their lives in sleeping, and in amusing themselves*.

The Malegache, like the savage, is absolute master of himself; his freedom knows no limit or restraint: he goes where he pleases, and acts as he pleases; so that he injures not a fellow creature. The Malegache never attempts to oppose the will of any one: each individual has his own peculiar manner of living, and his neighbour never attempts to disturb or interrupt him. In this respect these islanders are much wiser than the Europeans, who ridiculously suppose that all the people of the earth ought to conform to their customs, prejudices, and opinions.

Are savages then so much to be pitied? Are they to be censured for confining their wants and desires to the procuring what is absolutely necessary for their subsistence; They enjoy in peace the gifts of nature, and calmly endure those evils which are inseparable from humanity. The conduct of a man in a state of civilization is more reprehensible: idleness and opulence plunge him into vain and false enjoyments, which entail on him a train of infirmities; while unrestrained passions, and a taste for frivolity make him deviate from the path that leads to happiness. Were the savages as unhappy as we suppose, because they reject the superfluities on which we set so great a value; why do they not adopt our manners, our customs, and our laws? †.

The inhabitants of Madagascar, which are divided into a great number of tribes, have been estimated at about four millions; but this calculation is supposed to be infinitely too great; though it is impossible to ascertain the truth on this point, as the island is divided into a great number of societies, who are totally distinct from each other, and are governed by their own usages. A tribe is composed of several villages, who have a particular chief, sometimes elected, but generally succeeds by hereditary right. The lands are not divided, but are considered to be the property of those who take the trouble to cultivate them. These islanders are unacquainted with locks or bolts: hunger regulates their hours of repast, though they usually dine about ten in the morning, and sup at four in the afternoon. Their food consists of white rice, exceedingly light, and well boiled: which they besprinkle with a succulent kind of soup, made of fish or flesh, and seasoned with pimento, ginger, saffron, and a few aromatic herbs. This simple dish is served up in the leaves of the *raven*, which perform the offices of plates, dishes, and spoons. These vessels are always clean, as they are renewed at every meal. The Malega-

* The Malegache, like the savage, has no idea of virtue or vice: he thinks only for the present, and supposes there are no men on the earth who are uneasy respecting futurity. These islanders are free beings, enjoying peace of mind, and health of body; man is naturally a humane compassionate being, and possesses that salutary organization, which, in a great degree, supplies the want of laws and virtues. It is that which prevents the robust savage from robbing childhood, or feeble old age, of its subsistence. To this noble organization the savage is indebted for that aversion which he feels to hurt his own species.

† Vander Stel, governor of the Cape of Good Hope, having procured a Hottentot child, caused him to be educated in the best European manner: splendid apparel was given him, and he was instructed in several languages, in which he made a considerable progress. Vander Stel, pleased with his talents, sent him to India under the protection of a commissary-general, who employed him in the company's affairs. On the death of the commissary, this Hottentot returned to the Cape; and, after visiting some Hottentots who were his relations, he came to a resolution of pulling off his gaudy European dress, and to clothe himself with a sheep's skin. In this new attire he repaired to Vander Stel, taking with him a bundle, containing his old clothes; and, presenting them to the governor, thus addressed him: "Be so kind, sir, as to observe, that I for ever renounce these clothes; I am determined, from this moment, to observe the religion, manners, and customs of my ancestors. The only favour I have to request of you is, that you will permit me to keep the necklace and cutlass which I now wear."—He then instantly withdrew, without waiting for the governor's answer, and was never afterwards beheld at the Cape§. And such examples are far from being uncommon among the Madecasses.

§ *Histoire des Voyages, Tom. V.*

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ches have only two methods of preparing their food; they either boil it in handsome earthen vessels, or they broil it upon the coals*.

The Malegaches catch immense quantities of sea and fresh-water fish. Those who live on the borders of the sea are supplied with the dorado, soles, pilchards, herrings, mackarel, oysters, crabs, and turtle. The rivers also afford abundance of fine eels, and fresh-water mullets, much superior in taste and excellence to sea-mullets. There are, however, on this coast, several kinds of fish which should not be eaten till proof was obtained of their not being poisonous. To try whether they are really in that state, a piece of silver is placed under their tongue; and if it loses colour, and becomes black, those who would have eaten them would experience very fatal symptoms, and be exposed to great danger. Several of the people belonging to Admiral Boscawen's squadron lost their lives at Rodriquez, by omitting this necessary precaution.

Of the Southern Part of MADAGASCAR.

That part of Madagascar in which Fort Dauphine is situated, is very populous. The villages are chiefly built upon eminences, and surrounded by two rows of strong palisades; some of them are also fortified by a ditch ten feet in breadth, and six in depth. The chief resides in a place called Douac, consisting of two or three buildings, surrounded by a peculiar kind of inclosure, for him, his women, and his children.

The chiefs are always armed with a fusee, and a stick headed with iron; at one end of the latter a small bunch of cow's hair is affixed; and a cap of red woollen cloth serves as a covering for their heads. Though the authority of these chiefs is now very much limited, yet in the province of Carcanossi they are the supposed proprietors of all the lands, which they distribute among their subjects to be tilled; for which they require only a small quit-rent. The people of the province of Carcanossi are not entirely ignorant of the art of writing; they have some historical books in the Madecasse language: but their learned men, whom they call *Ombiasses*, use only the Arabic characters. These Ombiasses are both sorcerers and physicians; the most celebrated of which come from the province of Matatane, where magic is supposed to flourish in its full glory. The Ombiasses profess, in the public schools, Geomancy and Astrology; and it appears certain that the art of writing has been brought into this island by the Arabs, who conquered it about three hundred years ago. Their paper is manufactured from the *Papyrus nilotica*, which the Madecasses name *Sanga-Sanga*. The pens used by these islanders are made of the bamboo; and their ink is produced from a decoction in boiling water of the bark of a tree which they call the *arandrato*.

The Arabic language has made some progress in the north-west part of this island; and it is well known that the Arab princes formed large establishments along the African coast. They also took possession of the island of Comora; and when they emigrated to Africa and the adjacent isles, they did not forget their own country. They still carry on an inconsiderable trade with Aden, Mascate, and the coasts of Abyssinia. Thus have they introduced their language, and left some traces of Mahometanism among the Malegaches. Formerly there subsisted between the Arabs and the Portuguese of India very great animosity, arising from the zeal of these two nations for the propagation of their respective religions, and much mischief ensued. The Arabs made frequent attacks upon the Portuguese establishments on the coasts of Africa, and even destroyed some of their settlements; but this hatred gradually subsided, when the decline of the Portuguese power rendered them less objects of jealousy. An attempt was made at Goa, about twenty years ago, to take advantage of this suspension of hostilities, and to form a Portuguese

* They are expert at catching a number of birds unknown in Europe, which are prized by the naturalist for the beauty of their plumage, as much as they are by travellers on account of their exquisite taste. The pheasant, the partridge, the quail, the pintado, wild-ducks, and teals of different kinds, afford the most excellent and delicate nourishment to the Europeans. The black paraquet, the turtle dove, the spoon bill, the black-bird, the green woodpigeon, and a kind of bat of most extraordinary magnitude improve the delicious catalogue. The Abbe *Rochon* says, "It was not without a considerable degree of reluctance, that I first ate the bats of Madagascar, dressed after the manner of a fricaseed chicken. The animals are so hideous, that the very sight of them frightens our sailors; yet when one can overcome that disgust which is inspired only by the idea of their figure, their flesh is found to be more palatable than that of our best fowls."

settlement

settlement at Cape St. Sebastian in Madagascar. The intention of this establishment was merely religious. The Portuguese thought of forming a mission, rather than a factory; but this project was not attended with success.

As this island has been so much frequented by the Arabs, it seems surprising that Mahometanism has not made greater progress in it; but, if we except circumcision, abstinence from pork, and some few unimportant practices, the descendants of the Arabs themselves have lost sight of the fundamental parts of their religious opinions. They believe not in a future existence; and, like the Maniacees, they admit of two principles, one superlatively good, and the other extremely wicked. They never address their supplications to the former, but they dread the severity of the latter, to whom they are continually doing homage, and offering up sacrifices*.

The Anacandrians are descended from the Rhoandrians; on which account they share with the Rhoandrians the honour of killing, for the other islanders, the animals necessary for their subsistence. The Ontzalsi enjoy no particular marks of distinction: they are generally valiant soldiers, and can throw a stone with great dexterity; their time is usually spent in dancing, sleeping, and amusing themselves. From their earliest infancy they are taught songs, replete with lessons of morality, or containing fables respecting their origin.

The native blacks are divided into four classes: *viz.* the Voadziri, the Loavohits, the Ontzoa, and the Endeves. The Voadziri, it is affirmed, are descended from the sovereigns of the island: they are rich in slaves and flocks, and are permitted to possess several villages. These people are held in much estimation among the islanders of Madagascar, for they have preserved the right of killing, when they are not in the presence of a Rhoandrian or a Macandrian, such animals as belong to their subjects: The Lohavohits are less powerful, and never can possess more than one village. The Ontzoa are related to the Lohavohits, but they have no kind of authority or privilege. The Ondeves are slaves by extraction†.

How can it be supposed that these people, involved in the darkness of ignorance, can defend themselves against the deception of the Ombiasses, when the most enlightened nations are dupes to quacks and impostors. Reason is seldom so powerful as to prevent a man entirely from that fondness for the marvellous which often hurries him into the most ridiculous allusions; and if he sometimes conceals this fatal propensity, it is merely because he is ashamed of his weakness‡.

A plurality of wives is common among the chiefs and those who are rich; but they cannot legally be married to more than one; the rest are only considered as concubines. A divorce is easily procured whenever the conjugal union displeases the husband or wife: but, when they separate thus, by mutual consent, they restore to each other the property they respectively possessed before marriage. In Madagascar, the adulterer is deemed a robber, and punished accordingly. The people therefore pay the greatest respect to marriage, and exhort strangers to behave with decency to their wives; but they voluntarily offer them their daughters. Married women have their hair separated into tresses, and bound up in the form of a nosegay on the top of the head: young women permit it to fall carelessly over their shoulders. Husbands are always sprightly and merry in the company of their wives; as soon as they perceive them, they begin to dance and sing. The Malegache women generally seem cheerful and happy, and their manners are found peculiarly pleasing to the Europeans.

* The island of Madagascar is so little distant from the coast of Africa, that it may probably have been peopled from the vast continent; but the different races are now so intermixed, that they could with difficulty be discriminated. The descendants of real negroes may, however, be distinguished, but it would be a vain attempt to point out those who descended from the whites.

† Such of the islanders as have any erudition relate, that the creator of heaven and earth formed, from the body of the first man whilst he was asleep, seven women, who were the mothers of the different castles; of which the author gives a very uninteresting section.

‡ The Malegaches of the province of Anossi are lively, intelligent, and grateful: they are passionately fond of women, and never appear sorrowful or dejected in their company: their principal aim is to procure the approbation of the fair. The man here never commands as a despot, nor does the woman ever obey as a slave; but the balance of power inclines in favour of the women. Their empire is that of beauty, mildness, and the graces; for, when you except the colour, the Malegache women are handsome. Their persons are slender and genteel, their features delicate, their skin soft and smooth, and their teeth are remarkably white: they have also fine blue eyes, the pupils of which are brown and sparkling.

When the Malegaches are at war, their women sing and dance almost incessantly, in order to animate the vigour and courage of their husbands. Their songs are either panegyrics or satires, and are well calculated to interest the auditors. In these compositions, glorious deeds are celebrated, and contemptible actions reprobated. When a woman suspects her health has been injured by a familiar intercourse with Europeans, she absents herself from their assemblies to escape the raillery of her companions, and commits herself to the care of the physicians, or Ombiasses. These savage people know how to deliver themselves happily from the venereal disease, and prevent it from spreading in this island so much as it has in Europe.

Whatever travellers may say, depraved morals are only found in a state of civilization. Pernicious examples, frivolity of tastes, a variety of interests, and fictitious wants, degrade human nature so far as to make some metaphysicians believe, that they are all born with a secret propensity to vice. Man, naturally, says Hobbes, is a wicked being. Let us banish such a disagreeable idea, "I have studied, says the Abbe Rochen, with some care the character and customs of the islanders of Madagascar; I have several times assisted at their assemblies when they were deliberating upon important affairs; I have followed them in their dances, their sports, and amusements; and I have always found among them that prudent reserve which secures them from those fatal excesses, and those vices, so common among polished nations."

If the Malegaches have sometimes employed treachery, it has been occasioned by the tyranny of the Europeans. Can these people defend themselves by any other means from our bayonets and artillery? If they are destitute of knowledge and resources, have we not taken advantage of their weakness to make them yield to our caprices? They are rigorously treated by us, in return for their generous hospitality; and we brand them with the names of traitors and cowards, for compelling them to break the yoke which we thought proper to load them with. These melancholy truths are sufficiently proved by the ruin of the different establishments which the Europeans have endeavoured to form in Madagascar.

The Abbe then observes that in 1642, Captain Picaulet obtained for himself and his associates the exclusive privilege of trading to Madagascar, and at the same epoch a grant of the island was given to a powerful company by letters patent from the crown. After which one Pronis was commissioned to take possession of it. The conduct of Pronis giving great offence, Flacourt was chosen to succeed him, but he did not arrive at Fort Dauphine till December, 1648, and a tedious account of the ancient history of the place is then given by the Abbe, which would almost occupy the usual number of pages given in a volume; all of which would be foreign to our plan, and consequently be offensive to our readers.

Towards the conclusion of the last century, the French were anxious to people their colonies at any rate; and they were not very scrupulous respecting the means. Young men, accused of misconduct, were often hurried away by stratagem or violence. The greater part of their colonies, however, received benefit from these forced emigrations; and the exiles seemed to have forsaken their vices when they forsook their climate. It may be readily perceived that ease and liberty must have produced this change. In civilized countries, restraint inflames the passions; but in free and fertile countries the disturbers of social order almost instantly lose their vicious inclinations.

"Can there be a happier nation in the universe than the United States of America? The rights of every individual are there held sacred; and dangerous would it be to attempt to violate any of them. In that happy country, virtue, knowledge, and talents meet with a most distinguished reception. Little inequality is found there; and the people acknowledge that only which arises from superiority of talents and knowledge. Law is equally powerful there over him who commands as over him who obeys. Justice is distributed with an equal and impartial hand, and convenience is never substituted for equity. Here the most numerous class of citizens are never degraded by absurd prejudices, which, in Europe, renders individuals so discontented with their situation that they are induced to quit it."

It is then highly necessary to reform every thing that leads man aside from his duty; to inspire him with love for his fellow creatures, and convince him that it will promote both his

interest and his happiness not to do an injury to another. But this salutary end cannot be attained by multiplying capital executions. Every society indeed has a right of excluding from its bosom, all those who disturb its good order: but can it assume to itself the power of life and death over those individuals who compose it? This question has frequently been warmly debated, but has it ever been resolved? The marquis of Becaria, in his treatise on *crimes* and *punishments*, says, "It appears to me absurd that laws, which are only an expression of the public will, that detests and punishes homicide, should commit the same crime themselves; and that, to deter mankind from murder, they should themselves command a *public* murder." "What then are real and useful laws?" adds Becaria, "Those which all would propose, and which all would wish to observe." According to this illustrious author, the death of a criminal is a less effectual check than the durable example of a man deprived of his liberty, and obliged to repair by labour the injury he has done to society*.

The islanders of Madagascar are not a stupid and worthless people, merely because their manners are contrary to ours. Customs and usages differ according to climates. Men are every where delighted in disfiguring themselves a thousand various ways: the Indian lengthens his ears, the Chinese crushes his nose, and carefully flattens his forehead; and if we narrowly search into particulars, we shall perhaps discover that man in a state of civilization is guilty of as many great absurdities as the savage.

If these people imbibe the most ridiculous prejudices and superstitions; let it be observed that there is no country upon the face of the earth which has not its chimeras and its fables. In all regions you may see men invoking spirits, confiding in amulets, and amused with astrological reveries. And are not the most civilized nations the dupes of this spirit of infatuation. When superstition is added to the multiplied vices of large societies, its poison acquires additional strength and activity. But we ought not to be astonished at the superstitious practices of the Madecasses: Can it be surprising that a weak and tender being, exposed from his cradle to a variety of infirmities, should err respecting the cause of those calamities which oppress him? Is it wonderful that the savage, under the influence of a deranged imagination, should have recourse to amulets or spells, to avert the dangers with which he supposes himself threatened? If hurricanes ravage the fields which he has cultivated; lightning destroys the shelter he has framed; and the earth opens under his feet, as if preparing to swallow large tracts of country. Menaced by so many disasters, can the Madecasse remain an unconcerned spectator? No! the less enlightened he is, the greater will be his terror. He will ascribe these evils to the anger of an invisible being, whom he resolves to appease by prayers and sacrifices; and mistaking the nature of the worship which is due to the Deity, his folly will dictate to him the most absurd, childish, and even sanguinary practices. It is only the effect of infatuation, from which few people are free; that the Malegaches seem to us more criminal than cannibals, when, urged by superstition, they expose to the teeth of ferocious animals, their new-born infants, according to the decision of the Ombiasses.

These wretched impostors pretend to observe the aspect of the planets, and condemn to death the new-born children, when the moment of their birth has been pronounced unpropitious. The months of March and April, the last week of every other month, and every Wednesday and Friday throughout the year, are days of proscription. This inhuman decree of the Ombiasses, however, is not always carried into execution; fathers more affectionate, and less superstitious, sometimes cause these innocent victims, after they are sentenced to the forest, to be privately taken away by faithful servants, and avert the malignity of the cruel star.

* Should the colony of malefactors which the English have established in Botany Bay, have, for the happiness of humanity, that success which might reasonably be expected, can the other nations of Europe hesitate at following the example? Will they be afraid of the expences which such emigrations may occasion? But these expences are just, as well as beneficial to society, and would be found inconsiderable when compared with the present disbursements for imprisoning and executing criminals. Can we prefer the punishment of the galleys to such a banishment? What advantage can society derive from galley-slaves? Do they not become more burthensome than useful? Besides, the union of vicious men spreads corruption to every individual. In such society the least guilty soon arrive at the height of profligacy

Of the North-East Part of MADAGASCAR.

The north-east part of this island is a rich magazine for the colonies of the isles of France and Bourbon; and the most frequented ports are the Foulepoint, St. Mary, and the bay of Antongil. In these three places the French have attempted to form all their establishments. A soldier, named Bigorne, who was in the service of the East India Company, gave me some interesting information respecting the settlements of the pirates in these districts. This man had gained the confidence of the islanders, and by a long residence among them, acquired a kind of influence over them. From this man I procured considerable knowledge respecting the productions, as well as the manners and customs of the inhabitants of the north-east part of Madagascar. The inhabitants of this coast are more docile and humane than those in the province of Carcanossi. These inoffensive people are unacquainted with locks and bolts, and shut the doors of their houses with nothing more permanent than the branches or boughs of trees. Were they the repositories of treasure, they would leave them equally exposed, without dreading the visits of any plunderers. Their dwellings are constructed merely with leaves and mats, and are therefore far from being impregnable.

The pirates who practised their depredations in the Indian seas, alarmed at the preparations which were making to extirpate them, or at least to check them in their nefarious career, took refuge on the north-east coast of Madagascar. Several nations, who experienced enormous losses from these banditti, united together to deliver the Indian seas from the oppression of these formidable tyrants, who had seized a large Portuguese ship, in which was the archbishop of Goa, and the Count de Receire; and the same day another vessel richly freighted. Both these valuable prizes were captured before the isle of Bourbon.

The pirates, accustomed to war, and elated with their success, resolutely continued to exercise the plundering trade for a long time; and before they were extirpated it was found necessary to bring a considerable force against them; to terrify them by exemplary punishment, and to pursue them through the most imminent dangers, even to the place of their retreats, where they were under the necessity of setting fire to their vessels. Such were the measures adopted to clear the Indian seas of these aquatic robbers; who had infested them from the time that Vasco de Gama opened a passage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope. The total destruction of their maritime forces now prevented them from interrupting commerce any more, and compelled them to quit the establishment they had formed at St. Mary, an island bordering on Madagascar.

They soon began to signalize themselves, however, by new acts of atrocity. But of all the evils, and all the disorders occasioned by their perfidy, is that of having introduced the slave-trade into Madagascar. Liberty is so connected with the essence and dignity of man, that it seems to have been the height of injustice to have converted it into a saleable commodity.

These banditti, being thus obliged to renounce their former wandering kind of life, they found it necessary to excite quarrels and wars among the Malagaches, and also render war advantageous to the islanders; convinced that the sale of prisoners, that is to say, a trade in slaves, answered two ends to them, that of perpetuating divisions among the Malagaches, and that of procuring a new mode of enriching themselves. By this new crime the pirates terminated their course of robbery, a crime which continues to depopulate the island of Madagascar.

If these observations do not make that impression which they ought on enlightened nations, and force them to proscribe slavery, how can they suppose that it will be perceived by savages involved in the darkness of ignorance? We cannot therefore be surprised that the Malegaches, considering the advantages which they continually derive from the sale of slaves, still entertain a grateful remembrance of these infamous men, to whom they conceive themselves indebted for a considerable part of their riches.

Reflections on the Northern Part of MADAGASCAR.

This is more fertile in productions of every kind than the Southern part, and is much more frequented by European vessels; but the interior part of the country has never yet been visited. The high mountains of Vigagora present, at every step, obstacles sufficient to stop the most resolute and persevering adventurer. The man who

who may be so adventurous as to undertake a journey by this rugged way, ought previously to furnish himself with ropes and poles to climb the steepest places.

In the forests the compass is an essential guide; and, every where else, mechanics furnish the traveller with the means of escaping from the most difficult situations. These means, however, vary according to circumstances:—a kind of hammock, like those used in the colonies for carrying women and children, would be found extremely useful to those who travel in these wild countries; but it should be light and water-proof. This hammock should therefore be made of strong canvas, covered with gum elastic dissolved in linseed oil, a kind of varnish used for confining the inflammable air in balloons. Such a hammock might serve as a bed, by suspending it between two trees; or, by means of a bamboo, it might be formed into a vehicle for transporting the adventurer from one place to another when he finds himself fatigued.

Foulepoint, called by the natives *Voulou-Voulou*, is the place most frequented by the Europeans in the northern part of Madagascar. The harbour is surrounded by a reef of rocks, which check the force of the waves, and shelter ships from heavy seas. The shores are very bold, the least depth of the water being twenty-three feet at low tides. The entrance of the harbour, which is on the north side, is about fifty fathoms in breadth; and the depth of the basin is fifty fathoms: it is capable of receiving ten large vessels, which may anchor along-side of each other in upwards of thirty feet of water; but in the winter season, the entrance is shut by a shifting sand bank; which is dissipated when the south-east succeeds the north winds. During the neap tides the reef of rocks appear above the water; and many natural productions may then be found on them; such as marine plants, mosses, black coral, sea-stars, insects, and shells, which by the variety of their form, and the brilliancy of their colours, are chosen to ornament the cabinets of the curious. The mouths of the rivers here abound with oysters of an excellent flavour. Ships can procure at Foulepoint all kinds of provisions in abundance, and on very reasonable terms. Some years ago, however, the inhabitants of Foulepoint refused to deal in hogs or pigs, because an old man, who was reputed a sorcerer, had forbidden them. This Ombiasse pretended that dreadful misfortunes would attend them, if they did not endeavour to destroy the race of those filthy animals: but this prohibition does not deter the Europeans from procuring them in the mountains, where they may be found in large quantities.

The villages in the neighbourhood of Foulepoint, which are not numerous, are dispersed on the declivities of little hills, and defended by palisades. They are agreeably shaded by a multitude of trees; but the most remarkable is the *raven*, a kind of palm-tree, known only in Madagascar. This tree, the top part of which is prepared and eaten like the cabbage-palm, rises to a great height. It is covered with a hard bark, and its fibrous wood is used in constructing houses, the walls and partitions of which are formed of the ribs of its leaves, which are both solid and pliable. Of the leaves of the *raven* the Madecasses also make their plates, dishes, and cups; and under the membraneous covering, which incloses the flowers of this palm, a gummy substance of on exquisite taste is found, which is not inferior to honey.

It cannot be surprising that the Madecasses should delight in being surrounded by so useful a tree. They make large planks of it, by splitting it from one end to the other: but these planks must be straightened the very moment they are split.

The lands in the neighbourhood of Foulepoint abound with rich pasture and cattle. In passing along the fertile banks of the delightful river Ongleby, the traveller is surprized at its suddenly disappearing in the sands, at the distance of about four miles from its mouth. This river which is deep in some places, and shallow in others, abounds with fish and water-fowl. But this stream, like the rest in Madagascar, is infested with monstrous crocodiles, the sight of which strikes a terror in the most intrepid islanders. Great precaution is necessary to avoid the danger of these destructive animals. The Abbe Rochon says, "I one day saw an ox dragged away and devoured by one of these monsters." That which renders the rivers of Madagascar delightful, contributes to makes them dangerous: the trees and shrubs which cover their banks, serve as an asylum for these formidable animals.

On advancing from Foulepoint, towards the high

high mountains of *Ambotismene*, the land gradually rises, and the plains and valleys are sheltered from the winds by little hills. The heat, however, does not incommode, the country being high and covered with wood: the low lands being less cultivated, are more wild and rural. The islanders here do not secure their cattle, but suffer them to wander without a guide or shackles.

The meadows are watered by a multitude of streams and rivulets, and they are the more delightful as they are formed by the hand of nature. The flowers which decorate them have more splendour, and display a greater variety of tints than those which adorn the European meads. Tufts of trees, irregularly scattered, render these rural spots more interesting and picturesque.

When you quit the plains and meadows to enter the immense forests which form a retreat for a variety of wild animals, another scene of astonishment assails your imagination. Profound solitude, refreshing coolness in so warm a climate, shades inaccessible to the rays of the sun, and echoes from all quarters repeating the bellowing of cattle, afford you new enjoyments. But these enjoyments are not equally delightful to all; yet, however insensible many may be to the beauties of nature, they cannot behold without a kind of enthusiasm, that multitude of enormous trees, among which the fotersbe is particularly distinguished.

Those who prefer the study of botany to that of mineralogy, will find plants in Ambotismene to gratify their curiosity. Excellent iron mines are dispersed in great profusion all over the island, and approaching almost to the surface of the earth. The Malegaches break and pound the ore, place it between four stones lined with potter's clay, and then employ a double wooden pump, instead of a pair of bellows, to give the fire more strength: thus, in the space of an hour, the mineral is in a state of fusion; the iron produced by this operation is soft and malleable, and cannot be exceeded.

There are doubtless many other mines in the mountains of Abotismene; but their summits abound with steep rocks and precipices, and prevent their being approached. The highest of these is about eighteen hundred fathoms above the level of the sea.

These are all the particulars that we think it our duty to lay before our readers from the Abbe Rochon's Voyage to Madagascar, though the original work contains 475 pages, and an Introduction & Description of COCHIN-CHINA *is also given: and there is added,* A MEMOIR OF THE CHINESE TRADE. *by M.* BRUNEL.

END OF ROCHON'S VOYAGE TO MADAGASCAR.

TRAVELS

THROUGH

SYRIA AND EGYPT.

In the Years 1783, 1784, *and* 1785.

INCLUDING

An Account of the present State of those Countries, their Productions, Arts, Manufactures and Commerce; with Observations on the Manners and Customs of the TURKS and ARABS.

BY M. C. F. VOLNEY,

IN TWO VOLUMES.

M. VOLNEY has prefixed a preface to the First Volume of his Travels, in which he informs his readers that he had acquired a taste, and even a passion for knowledge when a considerable access of fortune furnished him with the means of gratifying his inclination. He had read, and frequently heard repeated, that, Travelling is one of the most efficacious methods of adorning the mind, and forming the judgment. Syria, especially, and Egypt, appeared to him a field equally adapted to those political and moral observations, with which he wished to occupy his mind; considering what they once have been, and what they now are.

"Those are the countries," said our author, "in which the greater part of the opinions that govern us at this day have had their origin. It will be interesting, therefore, to be acquainted with the countries where they originated, the customs and manners which gave them birth, and the spirit and character of the nations from whom they have been received as sacred: to examine to what degree this spirit, these manners, and these customs, are altered or retained; to ascertain the influence of climate, the effects of the government, and the causes of the various habits and prejudices of these countries: in a word, to judge from their present state, what was their situation in former times."

With these views he informs us that he set out for Egypt in 1782, and after continuing seven months at Cairo, and procuring but little assistance in learning Arabic, he determined to proceed into Syria. Eight months' residence among the Druses in an Arabian convent, however, rendered the Arabic familiar to him, and enabled him to travel through all Syria during a whole year. Travellers, in general, have been deficient in the two principal means of acquiring knowledge, time, and the language of the country. Without possessing the latter, it is impossible to appreciate either the genius or the character of a nation. Interpreters can never supply the defect of a direct communication. And without continuing a sufficient time, no traveller can form an accurate judgment; for the novelty of every thing around us naturally confounds and astonishes.

M. Volney adds, "I have endeavoured to maintain the spirit with which I conducted my researches into facts: that is, an impartial love of truth. I have restrained myself from indulging any sallies of the imagination, though I am no stranger to the power of such illusion over the generality of readers; but I am of opinion that travels belong to the department of history, and not that of romance. I have not therefore described countries as more beautiful than they appeared to me: I have not represented their inhabitants more virtuous nor more wicked than I found them, and I have perhaps been able to see them such as they really are, since I have never received from them either benefits or injuries."

As to the form of this work, the author has not followed the method used in books of travels, though perhaps the most simple; he rejected those details as too prolix; and has only exhibited general views, as better calculated to combine facts

facts and ideas; and from a desire of saving the time of the reader he has avoided the order of an itinerary, as well as personal adventures. Our author recommends his readers to consider the situation of a stranger, who arrives by sea in Turkey. In vain he has read histories and travels; in vain has he, by their descriptions, endeavoured to represent to himself the aspect of the countries, the appearance of the cities, the dresses, and manners of the inhabitants: he is new to all these objects, and dazzled with their variety.

SECTION I.

Of Egypt in general, and the City of Alexandria—Of the Climate and Air—Of the Winds, and of the various Inhabitants of Egypt—Their Phœnomena—Of the hot Wind, or Kamsin.

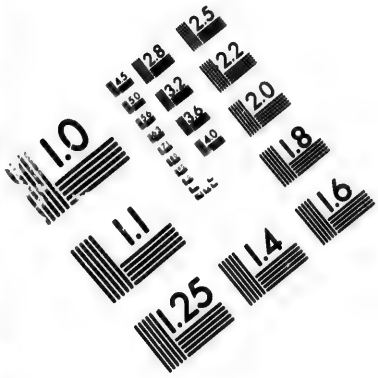
ALEXANDRIA, in Egypt, will properly elucidate the point we have agitated. The name of this city recalls to memory the genius of one of the most wonderful of men, and reminds us of many great events; the picturesque appearance of the place itself; the spreading palm-trees: the terraced houses, which seem to be without a roof; the lofty slender minarets, all proclaim to the traveller that he is in another world. Innumerable objects present themselves to every sense: he hears a language whose barbarous sounds offend his ear; he sees dresses of the most unusual kind; and figures of the most whimsical appearance. Instead of our smooth-shaved faces, our side-curls, our triangular hats, and our short compact dresses, he views, with astonishment, tanned visages, with beards and mustachios, with large rolls of stuff wreathed round their bald heads; long garments, extending from the neck to the feet, serve as a veil to the whole body; and every one is provided with an enormous pipe of the longitude of six feet: a filthy drove of emaciated half-starved dogs prowl through the streets in eager pursuit of prey; and a kind of wandering phantoms, under a long drapery of a single piece, discovering nothing human but two eyes, barely inform us that they are women. Amid this crowd of grotesque objects, his mind is incapable of reflection, and till he becomes more calm, he views unnoticed the low houses and ill-paved streets, as well as the meagre, swarthy, and bare-footed inhabitants; who have no other clothing than a blue shirt, fastened with a leathern girdle, or a red handkerchief; while the universal marks of misery, so apparent in all he meets, and the reigning mystery around their houses, make evident the rapacity of oppression, and the distrust attendant upon slavery.

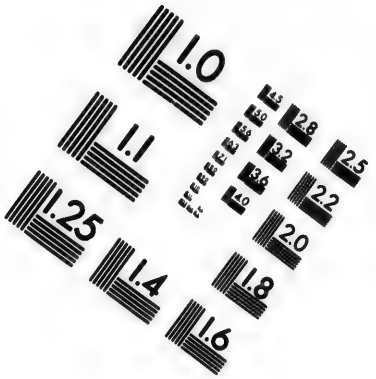
In our country, ruins are an object of curiosity; but in Alexandria, we no sooner leave the new town, that we are astonished at the sight of an immense extent of ground overspread with ruins; the earth is covered with the remains of lofty buildings destroyed; whole fronts crumbled down, roofs fallen in, battlements decayed, and the stones corroded. The traveller passes over an extensive plain, furrowed with trenches, pierced with wells, divided by walls in ruins, covered with ancient columns, and modern tombs, amidst palm-trees and nopals*, where no living creature appears, but owls, bats, and jackalls.

Alexandria is, at present, the emporium of a considerable commerce. It is the harbour for all the commodities exported from Egypt, by the Mediterranean, except the rice of Damietta. The Europeans have establishments there, and factors dispose of their merchandize by barter. It is constantly visited by vessels from Marseilles, Leghorn, Venice, Raguse, and the dominions of the Grand Seignor; but it is dangerous to winter there. The new port, which is the only harbour for the Europeans, is clogged up with sand, insomuch, that, in foggy weather, ships are liable to bilge; and the bottom being also rocky the cables soon chafe and part. The old port, the entrance to which is covered by a neck of land called the Cape of Figs, is not subject to this inconvenience; but the Turks admit no

* The cochineal tree.

ships





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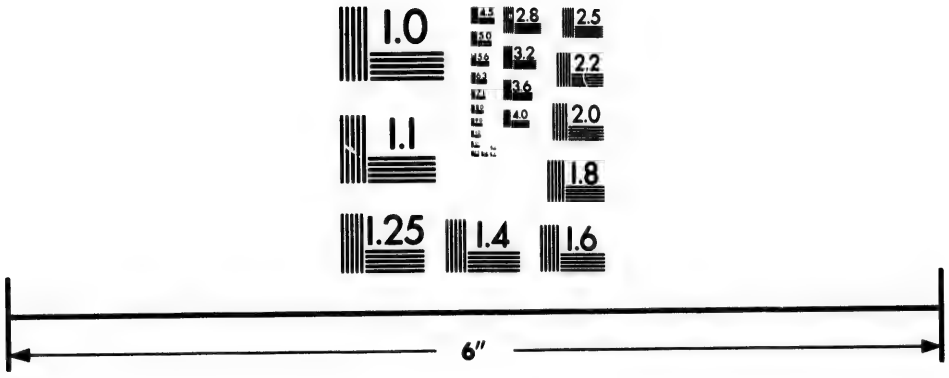

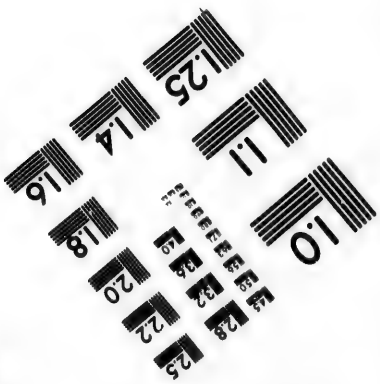

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ships into it but those of Musselmen. If Europeans express their surprise that the new port is not repaired, the answer is obvious, that, in Turkey they destroy every thing, and repair nothing. The spirit of the Turkish government is to ruin the labours of past ages, and destroy the hopes of future times, the barbarity of ignorant despotism never thinking about to-morrow*.

The Kalidj alone connects Alexandria with Egypt; for, from its situation without the Delta, and the nature of the soil, it certainly belongs to the deserts of Africa. We do not indeed really enter Egypt till we arrive at Rosetta; there the sands peculiar to Africa end, and a black, fat, loamy soil begins: there also for the first time, we behold the waters of the celebrated Nile; the woods of palm-trees on each side, the orchards, refreshed by its streams, the lemon, the orange, the banana, the peach, and other trees, by their perpetual verdure, render Rosetta astonishingly delightful, its beauties being still more charming by its contrast with Alexandria.

As we ascend the river we acquire some general idea of the soil, the climate, and the productions of this celebrated country. All this part of Egypt is so level and so low that it affords very little prospect of the country, and offers very little variety. Nothing is to be seen but palm-trees, single, or in clumps, which gradually become fewer as you advance: wretched villages of mud walled huts; till at length, towards the junction of the two branches of the river, the mountains of Grand Cairo are discovered in the east, and to the south-west three detached masses appear, which, from their triangular form, are known to be the pyramids †.

It is not the same in Turkey as in Europe: with us, travels are agreeable excursions; but there they are difficult and dangerous undertakings, especially for Europeans, whom the superstitious natives suppose to be sorcerers, come to discover by magic, treasures which the *Genii* have concealed under the ruins. This ridiculous opinion deprives the traveller of security, and prevents every discovery. No one presumes even to walk alone in the fields; nor can he prevail on any person to accompany him. We are therefore limited to the banks of the river, a route frequented by every one, and which consequently can afford no new information. It is only by comparing what we have seen ourselves, with the observations made by others that some general ideas can be acquired.

After having made this comparison, we shall find reason to conclude that the basis of all Egypt, from Asouan to the Mediterranean, is a continned bed of calcareous stone, of a whitish hue, containing shells analagous to those found in the two neighbouring seas‡. This quality is discoverable in the pyramids, and on the Lybian rock on which they stand. The same kind of stone is also found in the catacombs of Alexandria, and in the projecting shelves upon the coast. Copper is the only metal of this country mentioned by the ancients.

The two lakes of Natron, described by Father Sicard, are more interesting objects: they are situated in the desert of Shayat, or St. Macarius, to the west of the Delta. Their bed is a sort of a natural trench, three or four leagues long, by a quarter wide, with a hard and stony bottom. It continues dry nine months in the year, but in winter water of a reddish violet colour oozes from it, which fills the lake to the height of five or six feet: the return of the great heats causing this to evaporate, a bed of salt remains about two feet thick, and very hard, which is broken with bars of iron. Thirty thousand

* In time of war, Alexandria is of no importance; no fortification is to be seen: even the lofty Pharos, with its aspiring towers, cannot be defended. It has not four cannon fit for service, nor any gunner capable of pointing them. The nominal five hundred Janisaries, which should form a garrison, are now reduced to about half that number, and know nothing but how to smoke a pipe. A single Russian or Maltese frigate would be able to lay it in ashes; but the conquest would be of no value, as the country is without water. This must be brought from the Nile by the Kalidj, a canal of twelve leagues, which conveys it thither annually at the time of the inundation, and fills the reservoirs dug under the ancient city, which must supply them till the next year. Hence it is evident, that were a foreign power to take possession, the canal would be shut, and the supplies of water cut off.

† To give a description of Egypt in a few words, let the reader imagine, on one side, a narrow sea and rocks; on the other, immense plains of sand, and, in the middle, a river flowing through a valley of one hundred and fifty leagues in length, and from three to seven wide, which, at thirty leagues from the sea, separates into two arms, the branches of which wander over a country where they meet with no obstacles, and which is almost without declivity.

‡ These shells consist principally of echim, volutes, bivalves, and a species in the form of lentils.

quintals

quintals are procured from them every year. This phenomenon, which indicates a soil abounding with salt, is common throughout all Egypt. Not only this soil, but that of the whole continent of Africa and Arabia, seems either to be composed of salt, or to produce it.

In the midst of these minerals, and of that fine reddish coloured sand peculiar to Africa, the earth of the valley through which the Nile flows, discovers properties which prove it of a distinct class. Its blackish colour, and its clayey cementing quality, proclaim its foreign origin. It is brought by the river from the heart of Abyssinia, as if nature had resolved to form a habitable island in a country to which she had denied every thing. Without this unctuous mud, Egypt never could have produced any thing; that alone seems to contain the seeds of vegetation and fecundity; and these are also indebted to the river, by which it is deposited.

The whole physical and political existence of Egypt depends upon the Nile; that alone provides for the greatest necessity of animal life, the want of water so frequently, and so distressfully experienced in warm climates. The Nile alone, unassisted by rain, supplies vegetation with moisture, the earth, during the three months' inundation, imbibing a sufficient quantity of that valuable fluid for the rest of the year. Were it not for this providential overflowing, only a very small part of the country could be cultivated, and even that would be attended with prodigious labour. With appropriate reason, therefore, this river has been stiled the source of plenty, of happiness, and of life itself *.

But never will these muddy waters have for an European the charms of transparent fountains and limpid streams; never, except from some extraordinary incitement, will a swarthy Egyptian woman, dripping from these yellow and muddy waters, remind him of the bathing Naiads †.

The northerly winds, which blow annually at certain periods, carry into Abyssinia a vast quantity of clouds: from April to July we see them incessantly ascending towards the south, and might be induced to expect rain from them; but this parched country can receive no benefaction from them but under a different form. In summer it never rains in the Delta, and but rarely, and in small quantities, during the whole course of the year. It is also certain that it rains still less as you ascend towards the Said: rain is therefore more frequent at Alexandria and Rosetta than at Cairo, and at Cairo than at Miniah; and is almost a prodigy at Djirda. The inhabitants of humid countries, indeed, cannot conceive it possible to subsist without rain ‡, but in Egypt, exclusive of the water which the earth imbibes at the inundation, the dews which descend in summer might be sufficient for vegetation. This is sufficiently proved by their water melons, for when they have only a dry dust under them, their leaves are always fresh. It is also apparent that these dews, as

* We cannot wonder that the Egyptians have always professed, and still retain a veneration for the Nile. They called it *holy, blessed, sacred;* and on the appearance of the new waters, that is, on the opening of the canals, mothers are seen plunging their children in the stream, from a firm belief that these waters have a purifying and divine virtue, such as the ancients attributed to every river.

Earthen vessels, unglazed, are usually kept in every apartment, from whence the water continually transpires: this transpiration produces the more coolness, in proportion as it is more considerable; therefore these vessels are often suspended in passages, where there are currents of air, and under the shade of trees. In many parts of Syria, they drink the water which has transpired; in Egypt they drink that which remains; besides, in no country is so much water used. The first thing an Egyptian does, on entering a house, is to lay hold of the *kolla* (the pitcher of water) and take a hearty draught of it; and that is to the perpetual perspiration, they feel no inconvenience from the practice. But, in the midst of our panegyric, truth requires us to declare, that, for six months of the year, the water of this river is so thick, that it must be allowed time to settle, before it can be drank. During the three months which precede the inundation, the stream becomes reduced to an inconsiderable depth, and appears green, fetid, and full of worms. People of delicacy, at all times, take care to perfume it, and cool it by evaporation. Bitter almonds are sometimes used to purify this water, with which the vessel should be well rubbed, and then the beverage really becomes light and good.

† A long altercation then arises between M. Savary and M. Volney, respecting the rise of the Delta, and various authors on the subject are respectively cited: as *Herodotus, Bibliotheque, Orientale of D'Herbelot, Dr. Shaw's Travels, Kalkasendas, Dr. Pocock's Travels, M. Niebuhr, Demoscritus*, &c. but the editor of this abridgment could not feel himself justified in giving a positive conclusion on this contested matter.

‡ When rain falls in Egypt and in Palestine, it diffuses general joy among the people: they assemble together in the streets, singing and shouting *ye allah! ye morabee!* That is to say, O God! O Blessed! &c.

well as the rains, are more copious in proportion to their proximity to the sea. The dews, as well as the rains, are also more or less plentiful, according to the prevailing wind: The southerly and the south-easterly produce none; the north wind occasions a great deal, and the westerly still more: the two former proceed from the deserts of Africa and Arabia, which afford not a drop of water; while the northerly and westerly winds convey over Egypt the vapours from the Mediterranean, which the first crosses, and the latter traverses lengthways.

The southerly winds, which I have mentioned, are known in Egypt by the general name of *Winds of Fifty Days;* not because they continue *fifty days,* without intermission, but from their prevailing more frequently in the fifty days preceding and following the equinox. They are by some denominated *poisonous winds,* or more correctly *hot winds of the desert.* Their heat is sometimes so excessive, that it is difficult to form an idea of its violence, without having experienced it; but it may be compared to the heat of a large oven at the moment of drawing out the bread. When these winds begin to blow, the atmosphere assumes an alarming aspect. The sky, which at other times is clear in this climate, becomes dark and heavy; and the sun, having lost his splendour, appears of a violet colour; and the air, though not cloudy, seems impregnated with subtle dust. It is not, at first, remarkably hot, but gradually becomes so; and respiration is rendered short and difficult; the skin is parched and dry: a too rarefied air prevents the expansion of the lungs, and they are found painful. Large draughts of water are found ineffectual to restore perspiration; and every substance deceives the hand which touches it. Even in the absence of the sun, marble, iron, and water feel hot: the streets are deserted, and universal silence reigns. The inhabitants of towns and villages shut themselves up in their habitations, and those of the desert in their tents, or in pits formed in the earth, where they remain till the termination of this destructive heat. The duration of it is usually about three days; but, if it exceeds that time, it becomes insupportable. Woe to the traveller whom this wind surprizes remote from shelter, as the worst of consequences frequently ensue. This wind is particularly fatal to persons of a plethoric habit, and such as have destroyed the tone of the vessels by fatigue. Much of the danger, upon these occasions, may be avoided by stopping the nose and mouth with handkerchiefs: the camels practice a very efficacious method to guard against this pestiferous effluvium, by burying their noses in the sand, and continuing there till the squall is over.

Its extreme avidity is another extraordinary quality: if water is sprinkled on the floor, it evaporates in a few minutes. Its astonishing dryness withers and strips all the plants, closes the pores of animal bodies, and occasions that feverish heat which is the effect of suppressed perspiration*.

It might naturally be imagined that Egypt, on account of the excessive heats, and its moist marshy condition for three months, must be an unhealthy country. This indeed was my first idea on my arrival there; but when I observed at Cairo the houses of European merchants ranged along the Kalidj, where the water stagnates till the month of April, I conceived that the exhalations thence arising, must create many maladies: but experience taught me the fallacy of this theory. Though the vapours of the stagnant waters are so fatal in Cyprus and Alexandretta, they are not so pernicious in Egypt. This seems to be owing to the natural dryness of the air, to the proximity of Africa and Arabia, which incessantly draws off the humidity, and the perpetual currents of the wind which is never opposed. So great is their avidity, that flesh meat exposed, even in summer, to the north wind, does,

* But these hot winds are not peculiar to Egypt; they also blow in Syria. M. Niebuhr met with them in Arabia, at Bombay, and in the Diarbeki. They are also known in Persia, in the rest of Africa, and even in Spain.

The climate of Egypt is certainly extremely hot, for in July and August Reaumur's thermometer stands in the most temperate apartments, at 24 and 25 degrees above the freezing point. In the Said, it rises still higher. Two seasons only should be distinguished in Egypt, the Spring and Summer, that is to say, the *Cool* Season and the *Hot.* The latter continues from March till November; and even from the end of February, the sun is not supportable, for an European, at nine o'clock in the morning. During the whole of this season, the heat is oppressive to all unaccustomed to it. Even the lightest dress, in a state of profound repose, occasions the body to sweat profusely; and this perspiration is found so essentially necessary, that the slightest suppression of it is a serious malady. The departure of the sun, however, in some degree, tempers these heats.

does not putrify, but dries up, and becomes as hard as wood. In the deserts dead bodies of animals are found dried in this manner, which have by drying so far lost their ponderosity, that a man may easily lift with one hand the body of a camel *.

In addition to this drying quality, the air of this country seems to be strongly impregnated with salts, the proofs of which are every where apparent. The stones are corroded by natrum, and in moist places, crystallizations of it are often found, which might be taken for salt-petre. It is doubtless this property of the air and earth, which, added to the heat, gives vegetation an activity which appears almost incredible to inhabitants of colder climates. Wherever plants have water, the rapidity of their growth is astonishing. In Cairo, or Rosetta, the gourd called *kara*, will, in twenty-four hours, emit or send out shoots near four inches long. It is however, evident that this soil is unfavourable to all exotics; foreign plants degenerate there very rapidly; the truth of which is proved by daily experience.

Amid these revolutions which all nations have experienced, there are few countries which have preserved their original inhabitants more pure and unmixt than that of Egypt. Though deprived, twenty-three centuries ago, of her natural proprietors, she has seen her fertile fields successively a prey to the Persians, the Macedonians, the Romans, the Greeks, the Arabs, and the Georgians, and at length the Tartars, distinguished by the name of Ottoman Turks. Several of these nations have left vestiges of their transient possessions; but they have been so blended and confounded in succession, that it is rendered difficult to discriminate their respective characters. We may, however, still distinguish the inhabitants of Egypt into four principal races, of different origin:

The first, and most general dispersed, is that of the Arabs, which may be divided into three classes. First the posterity of those who, on the conquest of Egypt by Amrou, hastened to settle it his country, so justly celebrated for its fertility. This first race is preserved in the present class of fellahs or husbandmen, and artizans, who still retain the features of their ancestors, but are taller and stronger, having a supply of more plentiful nourishment than that of the deserts. The Egyptian peasants in general reach the height of five feet four inches, and many among them attain to five feet, six or seven inches. They are muscular, but not corpulent. Their skin, by the influence of the sun is almost black, but their countenances are not disagreeable. Most of them have heads of a fine oval, with large projecting foreheads: under a dark eye-brow: they have a black, sunken, but brilliant eye; the nose large, well-shaped mouths, and excellent teeth. Those of the villages, forming no alliances, but in their own families, have more general characteristics, and something ferocious in their air, originating in the passions of a mind, soured by the perpetual war and tyranny which surround them †.

A second class of Arabs is that of the Africans, who have arrived at different periods, and under different chiefs, and united themselves to the former; like them, they are descended from the Mussulmen conquerors, who expelled the Greeks from Mauritania; like them they practice agriculture and trades, and are numerous in the Said, where they have villages.

The third class is that of the *Bedouins* ‡, known to the ancients by the name of *Scenites*, dwellers in tents. Some of these inhabit the rocks, caverns, and sequestered places, where water is to be procured; others, united in tribes, pass their days in perpetual journeyings, sometimes in the desert, and sometimes on the banks of the river; consulting principally their own safety, and the subsistence of their flocks. Many tribes arrive every year after the inundation, from the heart of Africa, to enjoy the fertility of the country, and in the spring retire into the depths of the deserts: others are stationary in Egypt, where they farm lands, which they sow, and annually change. They confine themselves to certain limits, on pain of war, and their manners and customs are generally similar. Ignorant and poor, they preserve a kind of original character distinct from surrounding nations. Pacific in their camp, they are hostile every where else. The husbandmen,

* It should be observed, however, that the air near the sea is much drier than that which is higher up the country: thus, at Alexandria and Rosetta, iron cannot be exposed twenty-four hours in the air without becoming rusty.

† Near five feet eight, and five feet ten or eleven inches, English measure; the French foot (meant through this translation) being to the English as 144 to 135.

‡ Formed of *bid*, *desert*, a country without habitations.

whom

whom they pillage, detest them; the travellers, whom they plunder, resent their treatment: and the Turks, knowing too many of their artifices, endeavour to divide and corrupt them. The different tribes of Bedouins in Egypt, are supposed to amount to a body of thirty thousand horsemen; but they are dispersed and disunited that they are only considered as vagabonds and robbers.

A second race of inhabitants are the Copts, of whom several families are to be found in the Delta; though the greater part of them inhabit the Said, where they occupy whole villages. They descended from the people who were conquered by the Arabs; that is, from a mixture of Egyptians, Persians, and Greeks, who, under the Ptolemies and Constantines were so long in possession of Egypt. They differ from the Arabs by their religions, which is Christianity; and they are distinct from other Christians, by being Eutychians: their heresy has drawn persecutions on them on the part of the other Greeks, which has rendered them irreconcileable enemies. When the Arabs subdued the country, they took advantage of these animosities, to enfeeble them both. The Copts, have, at length, expelled their rivals, and become the depositories of the registers of the lands and tribes. Under the appellation of Writers, at Cairo, they are the secretaries and collectors of government. These writers form a kind of separate class, the head of which is the writer to the principal Bey, who disposes of all employments in that department, which, with the true spirit of the Turkish government, he bestows on the best bidder. The Copts are properly the remains of the ancient Egyptians*. This is rendered more probable, by considering the distinguishing features of this race of people: they are characterized by a sort of yellowish dusky complexion; with a puffed visage, swoln eyes, flat noses, and thick lips: they have indeed the exact countenance of a Mulatto†. It may, indeed, be laid down as a general principle, that features are a kind of monument, capable, in many cases, of ascertaining the testimony of history, concerning the origin of nations. Travellers who pass from Normandy to Denmark, see, with astonishment, the great resemblance of the inhabitants of these two countries, which still subsists, notwithstanding the distance of times and places. Do not the Jews, wherever they reside, carry with them distinguishing marks never to be effaced?

Language may be considered as another monument equally capable of elucidating and confirming the testimony of history; that formerly spoken by the Copts is a confirmation of this remark. The form of their letters, and the greater part of their words, shew, that the Greek nation, during the period of two thousand years that it continued in Egypt has left irrefragable marks of its influence and power. The Arabs, at length, disdaining the language of the nations they subdued, imposed on them the necessity of learning that of their conquerors. From that time the Arabic became universal; and the other languages, confined to books, subsisted only for the learned, who deserted them. Such has been the fate of the Coptic, that the priests no longer understand it; and in Egypt, as in Syria, every one, whether Mahometan or Christian, speaks Arabic, hardly any other language being understood.

But, to return to my subject, a third race of inhabitants in Egypt are the Turks, who, if they are not masters of the country, at least posses that title. The name of Turk, originally, was not peculiar to the nation to which it is now generally applied: it signified, in general, all the hordes scattered in the east, and even to the north of the Caspian Sea. These are the people who were known to the Ancient Greeks by the names of Parthians, or Scythians, for which that of Tartars has been substituted; a nation of wandering shepherds, like the Bedouin Arabs. They have, in every age, been brave and formidable, insomuch that neither Cyrus nor Alexander were able to subdue them. But the Arabs

* This is the more probable, as they were in the Said before the time of Diocletian; and it is certain the Greeks were less numerous in the Said than in the Delta

† The countenance of the Negroes represents precisely that state of contraction which our faces assume when strongly affected by heat. The eye-brows are knit, the cheeks rise, the eye-lids are contracted, and the mouth distorted. This state of contraction, to which the features are perpetually exposed in the hot climates of the negroes, is become the peculiar characteristic of their countenance. Excessive cold, wind, and snow, produce the same effect, and thus we discover the faces among the Tartars; while in the temperate zones, where these extremes are unknown, the features are lengthened, the eyes less prominent, and the whole countenance is more expanded.

were

were more successful. About eighty years after Mahomet, they invaded, under the direction of the Caliph Waled I, the country of the Turks, forcibly imposed on them their religion, and obliged them to pay tribute. But confusion taking place in the empire, the rebel governors had recourse to their aid to resist the power of the Caliphs, and they engaged in every contest. Thus initiated, and furnished with arms, they soon became a warlike people; and, like the Bedouins, were divided into camps. These tribes, either as allies or enemies, according to their respective interests, were perpetually engaged in wars. Hence, in their history, several nations were equally called Turks, alternately attacking, destroying, and expelling each other. We shall therefore, to prevent misapprehensions, confine the name of Turks to those of Constantinople, giving that of *Turkmans* to their predecessors.

Some hordes of Turkmans, then having been introduced into the Arabian empire, soon attempted to give law to those who had sought their assistance, either as mercenaries or allies. Of this the Caliphs themselves were convinced in a very remarkable instance. Motazzam, brother and successor of Almamoun, having selected a body of Turkmans for his guards, was obliged to quit Bagdad for their improper conduct; and, after his time, their insolence arrived to such a pitch, that they became the disposers of the throne and life of their princes, and murdered three of them in the course of thirty years.

Amidst the disorders of anarchy, a multitude of Turkman hordes penetrated into the empire, and founded different independent states in the Kerman and Korasan; at Iconium, Aleppo, Damascus, and in Egypt.

Till that time, the present Turks, distinguished by the name of *Ogouzians*, remained in the east of the Caspian, bordering on Djihoun; but early in the thirteenth century, Djenkiz-kan, having united all the tribes of Upper Tartary against the princes of Balk and Samarcand, the *Ogouzians* began their march under their chief Soliman, and, driving their herds before them, encamped in 1214 in the Aderbedjan, to the number of fifty thousand horsemen. The Moguls, following them, pushed them into Armenia. Soliman being drowned in 1220, in attempting to pass the Euphrates on horseback, Ertogrul, his son, took the command of the hordes, and proceeded to the plains of Asia-Minor, allured by abundance of pasturage for his cattle. The good conduct of this chief caused his alliance to be sought by all the neighbouring princes. Among these was the Turkman, Ala-el-din, Sultan of Iconium, who, finding himself old, granted lands to the Turks under Ertogrul, and appointed their chief general of all his troops. Ertogrul proved that the confidence of the Sultan was not misplaced, by vanquishing the Moguls, and in other respects acquired great honour and reputation. On his death, his honours were transmitted to his son Osman; who was also complimented with the Kofetan, drum, and horse-tails, symbols of command among all the Tartars. This Osman, to distinguish the Turks, his followers, gave them the name of *Osmanles*, from which we have made *Ottomans*. In 1300 he assumed the dignity of Sultan, which signifies absolute sovereign.

His successors continued to aggrandize themselves at the expence of the Greeks; till, continually depriving them of whole provinces in Europe and Asia, they at length shut them up within the walls of Constantinople: and Mahomet II. having taken that city in 1453, annihilated this branch of the Roman empire. The Turks, being now disengaged from the affairs of Europe, turned their arms against the southern provinces. Bagdad, subjugated by the Tartars, had been long without Caliphs; but a new power in Persia had succeeded to a part of their domains; and another, subsisting at that time under the name of Mamelukes, had seized on Syria.

The Turks wished to check the ambition of these two rivals: Bayazid, the son of Mahomet, executed a part of this plan, by taking Armenia from the Sofi of Persia, and Selim his son completed it, by subduing the Mamelukes. This Sultan, having prevailed on them to approach Aleppo, in 1517, under pretext of soliciting their assistance in the war against Persia, suddenly turned his arms against them, and took from them successively Syria and Egypt. From that period the Turks established themselves in that country; but they are not very numerous among the villages. Individuals of that nation are seldom met with, but at Cairo, where they exercise the arts, and occupy the religious and military employments. Formerly they were admitted to offices under government, but, within the last

thirty years, a tacit revolution has taken place, which has deprived them of the reality of power, without taking from them the title.

This revolution was effected by a fourth and last race; the individuals of which were born at the foot of Mount Caucasus: they are distinguished from the other inhabitants by the colour of their hair, which is flaxen, and entirely different from that of the natives of Egypt. These were distinguished by the Crusaders in the thirteenth century, and called by them Mamelukes: after remaining almost in a state of annihilation for two hundred and thirty years, under the government of the Ottomans, they may be said to have regained their consequence.

SECTION II.

A Summary of the History of the Mamelukes—The Present State of Egypt—Military Constitution of the Mamelukes—Their Accoutrements—Education—Manners.

THE Greeks of Constantinople, under a despotic and bigoted government, let the finest provinces of their empire, during the course of the seventh century, fall a prey to a new people. The Arabs, though inflamed by fanaticism, and corrupted by luxuries to which they had been unaccustomed, conquered, within eighty years, the north of Africa, and the south of Asia, as far as the river Indus: but though the Arabs knew how to conquer, they were strangers to the art of governing, and their edifice of power soon mouldered into ruins. The vast empire of the Caliphs, passing from despotism to anarchy, became dismembered on every side; and the temporal governors every where erected themselves into sovereigns, and formed independent states*.

Ad-had-el-din, the last of that race, after having been invaded by the crusaders, who had imposed on him a tribute, one of his generals, whom he had dismissed his service, threatened to deprive him of a power of which he seemed absolutely unworthy. Knowing he could not confide in a nation, which his conduct had alienated from him, he had recourse to foreigners. He called in the tribe of Turkmans who had enslaved the Bagdad Caliphs, and implored the sovereign of Aleppo, to send an army into that country. These troops speedily delivered Adhad from the tribute, and the menaces of the general. But the Caliph soon discovered that he had only changed his enemies: they left him only the shadow of power; and Selah-el-din, who took the command of the army in 1171, concluded by strangling him. The Egyptian Arabs thus became subjected to strangers, whose princes began a new dynasty in the person of Selah-el-din.

During these transactions in Egypt, and while the Crusaders were, by ill conduct, laying a foundation for their expulsion from Syria, other revolutions were preparing in Upper Asia. Dienkiz-Kan become the chief of most of the Tartar hordes, waited for an opportunity to invade the neighbouring states: an insult committed on some merchants, under his protection, induced him to turn his arms against the Sultan of Balk, and the eastern part of Persia; countries which, about the year 1218, became the theatre of the most bloody devastations. The Moguls

* But though Egypt was not the last to follow this example, it was not till 969, that a regular power was established in that country, in the person of princes, who, assuming the name of Fatmite Caliphs, disputed the title of their dignity with those of Bagdad. The latter, then stripped of their authority by the Turkmen soldiers, could no longer oppose their pretensions; and thus the Egyptian Caliphs peaceably obtained possession of that rich country, of which they might have formed a powerful state. But the sovereigns of Egypt, no less despotic than those of Bagdad, took part in the quarrels of religious sects; they even set up new ones, and endeavoured to create proselytes by persecution. One of them, named *Hakem b'amr ellah**, was so absurdly and extravagantly impious to pronounce himself a God; and had the folly and wickedness to set fire to Cairo, for his amusement. Others dissipated the public treasure in a capricious luxury, and their courtiers were eager in partaking of the spoils: the people, whom they oppressed, were thus induced to hold them in abhorrence.

* *Governor by the command of God.*

sword in hand, pillaging, burning, and murdering, without distinction, reduced the whole country of Sibouh to a heap of ashes; and extended their ravages even into Russia and the Cuban. This expedition, in 1227, eventually introduced the Mamelukes into Egypt. The Tartars, weary of massacring, had brought back with them a vast quantity of young slaves of both sexes; the camps and markets of Asia were full of them. The successors of Selah-el-din, who corresponded with the coasts of the Caspian Sea, saw they had now an opportunity of forming, at a cheap rate, a fine body of soldiers of tried courage, one of them purchased twelve thousand of these young men, who were Circassians, Mingrelians, and Abazans. He caused them to be trained up to military exercises, and he thus obtained a body of the handsomest and best soldiers in Asia, though they were mutinous and unexperienced. This soldiery, like the Pretorian bands, in a short time gave laws to their master: they grew more insolent under his successor, whom they deposed in 1250, and slew the last Turkman prince; substituting one of their own chiefs, with the title of Sultan; retaining to themselves that of Mamelukes, which signifies military slaves *.

In the year 1517, Selim, Sultan of the Ottomans, having seized and hanged Toumaa Bey, the last chief of the Mamelukes, put a period to that dynasty.

To conceive the nature of this revolution, let us consider the manner in which the Mamelukes are continued and multiplied in Egypt. On finding them resident in this country for several centuries, it seems reasonable to imagine their race is preserved by the ordinary means; but if their first establishment was a singular event, their continuation is at least equally so. Though there have been Mamelukes in Egypt upwards of five hundred and fifty years, not one of them has left subsisting issue: not a single family of them exists in the second generation: all their children perish in the first or second descent. The same is also asserted with regard to the Turks †; and it is observed, that their only method of securing the continuance of their families, is to marry women who are natives, which the Mamelukes have always disdained. Let the naturalist explain why men, married to healthy women, are unable to naturalize on the banks of the Nile, a race born at the foot of Mount Caucasus!—And let it be remembered, that the plants of Europe, in that country, are equally unable to continue their species! Some persons may not believe this extraordinary fact, but it is not, on that account, the less certain, nor does it appear to be new. The ancients have made observations of the same nature.

The Sultan's orders are received, as they express it, *on the head* and *on the eyes*; that is with the greatest respect; but this appearance of reverence is not obediently attended to. Abiding by her usual policy, the Porte is blind to many abuses, well knowing, that to correct them, will require expensive efforts, and probably an open war, in which the dignity of the empire might suffer. Urgent affairs, for some years past, have also made it necessary to collect all their forces

* Without any other public right to authority, than that of conquest, the Mamelukes had no other rule of conduct and government, than that of a licentious and insolent soldiery. The first leader whom they elected, whose turbulent spirit was employed in the conquest of Syria, reigned seventeen years; but not one of them has since governed so long; the bow-string, poison, the sword, or private assassination, having been the fate of a series of tyrants; forty-seven of whom are enumerated in the space of two hundred and fifty-seven years.

† The Turks, however, are not difficult to please: if a woman is fair, they pronounce her handsome; and if she be fat, she is enchanting: "Her countenance is like the full moon: her haunches are like cushions," say they, to express the superlative of beauty. They may be said to measure them by the quintal. They have besides a proverb worthy the notice of naturalists: "Take a fair female for thy eyes, but for pleasure an Egyptian." Experience has proved to them that the northern women are colder than those of the south.

Since the revolution of Ibrahim Kisya, the Ottoman power has become more precarious in Egypt than in any other province. The Porte, indeed, still retains a Pacha there: but this Pacha watched in the castle of Cairo, is rather the prisoner of the Mamelukes, that the representative of the Sultan. He is deposed, exiled, or expelled at pleasure; and, merely by the summons of a herald, clothed in black, must instantly descend * from his high station. Some Pachas, chosen for that purpose by the Porte, have endeavoured, by intrigues, to recover the power formerly annexed to their title; but the beys have now rendered such attempts so dangerous, that they quietly submit to their three years' captivity, and confine themselves to the peaceable enjoyment of their salary and emoluments.

* *The formulary of deposition consists in the word ouael, that is, descend from the castle.*

towards

towards the north. Desirous of bestowing the utmost attention to Constantinople, they leave the restoration of their authority in the distant provinces to time and the course of events. They find it necessary, however, to create divisions among the rival parties, that none of them may acquire an established power; a practice that is found beneficial to the state, as well as advantageous to the great officers, who derive large emoluments from the rebels, by purchasing their influence and protection.

The Mamelukes, on obtaining the government of Egypt, adopted measures calculated to secure them the possession of the country. They immediately degraded the military corps of the Azabs and Janissaries: these two bodies, formerly the terror of the Pacha, are now as insignificant as himself. Of this the corrupt government of the Turks has been the principal cause; for, previous to the insurrection of Ibrahim Kiaya, the number of Turkish troops, which should consist of forty thousand men, had been reduced to half that number, by the avarice of their officers, who appropriated the pay to their own use. After Ibrahim, Ali Bey completely terminated their consequence. He first displaced all the officers whose conduct he did not perfectly approve, and left unfilled the places that became vacant, deprived the commanders of all influence, and so effectually [illegible]aded all the Turkish troops, that at this d[illegible]e Janissaries, the Azabs, and the five other corps, are a mere rabble of artizans and vagabonds, who guard the gates of those who pay them, and tremble in the presence of the Mamelukes, as much as the populace of Cairo. The whole military force of Egypt really consist in the Mamelukes; some hundreds of them are dispersed throughout the country, and in the villages, to support the authority of their corps, collect the tributes, and practise every opportunity of extortion: but the main body reside continually at Cairo. From the most accurate computation it appears, that their number amounts to eight thousand five hundred men, including Beys and Cachefs, common-freed men, and Mamelukes who are still slaves. In this number there are a multitude of youth under twenty-two years of age.

The most powerful house is that of Ibrahim Bey, who has six hundred Mamelukes: Murad has about four hundred; the rest of the Beys, amounting to eighteen or twenty, have each of them about fifty to two hundred. There are also many Mamelukes, who may be called *individual*: these, being sprung from distinct houses, sometimes attach themselves to one, and sometimes to another, as their interest or inclination dictates, though they generally enter into the service of the best bidder. There are also some Serradies, a sort of domestic on horseback, who carry the orders of the Beys; but the whole together does not exceed ten thousand horse. Infantry are not mentioned here, as not being known or esteemed in Turkey, especially in the Asiatic provinces. The ancient prejudices of the Persians and the Tartars, continue to prevail in those countries, where war consists only in flight and pursuit, and the horsemen, who is best qualified for both these, is reputed the only soldier; and the warrior is alone the man of distinction. Walking on foot being held to be degrading, that exercise is reserved for the common people: The Mamelukes, indeed, permit the inhabitants of Egypt to ride on mules or asses, appropriating to themselves the exclusive privilege of being carried by a horse*. Of this peculiar distinction they make a very sufficient use, whether they are in town or country; for, if they only make a visit

* But by proper management, and liberal presents, strangers of consequence, who came only to visit the country, may be excused from this humiliating restriction. Lord *Algernon Percy*, now *Lord Louvaine*, and the Earl of Claremont, obtained permission to ride on horseback in 1776.

The dress of the Mamelukes consists of a wide shirt of thin cotton, of a yellowish colour, over which they wear an Indian linen gown, or a sort of gown made of the light stuffs of Damascus and Aleppo. This robe, which is called *antari*, reaches from the neck to the ankles, folding over the fore-part of the body, towards the hips, where it is fastened by two strings. A second covering of the same form and width, is worn over it, having ample sleeves descending to the finger ends, this is called a *coftan*, and is usually made of silk stuff, richer than the former. Both these robes are fastened at the waist by a long belt, dividing the dress into two bundles. About this is a third, called *ajouba*, made of cloth without lining, in nearly the form of the other; only the sleeves are cut at the elbow. In winter, and sometimes in summer, this habit is lined with fur, and formed into a pelisse. Over all these three wrappers, they put on an outer garment called the *benishe*, which is the robe of ceremony, and completely covers the whole body, even to the ends of the fingers, which it would be highly indecorous to exhibit before the great: The whole habit, with the benishe on, appears like a sack, from

visit to the next door, they never are seen but on horseback.

So far with respect to the dress of the Mamelukes, let us now advert to their horse accoutrements. Since the Europeans have had the good sense to examine into the principles of every art, they have found that the horse, to enable him to move freely under his rider, should be as little harnessed as the necessary solidity would permit. This improvement, which has taken place among us in the eighteenth century, has been totally neglected by the Mamelukes, who have hardly arrived at the knowledge of the ninth. Continually the slaves of custom, the horse's saddle among them is a clumsy frame, loaded with wood, leather, and iron, on which a trussequin rises behind: and a pummel before projects so much as to endanger his breast, if he should stoop. Under the saddle they spread three thick woollen coverings, and the whole is fastened by a surcingle, tied with leather thongs. Each stirrup is a plate of copper, longer and wider than the foot, with circular edges, which are sharp and used instead of spurs, to make long wounds in the horse's sides. The horse's furniture altogether weighs above thirty-six pounds, which is rendered the more ridiculous, by the Egyptian horses being so very small. The bridle is a kind of snaffle, but without a joint, and with a curb, which being an iron ring, binds the jaw so as to lacerate the skin. Instead of managing the mouth of a horse like us, the Mamelukes destroy it by violent and sudden checks. This consists in putting a horse on a full gallop, and suddenly stopping him, when at the highest speed. Checked thus by the bit, the horse bends in his legs, stiffens the fore-legs, and slides along like a wooden horse. This manœuvre must greatly injure the legs and mouth of the horse; but the Mamelukes think it graceful, and it is adapted to their mode of fighting. It must be admitted, however, that they are firm and vigorous horsemen, and that they have a warlike appearance, which pleases the eye even of a stranger.

Their principal weapon is an English carbine, about thirty inches long, of so capacious a bore as to discharge ten or twelve balls at a time, which, without much skill, cannot fail of great execution. They also carry two large pistols in a belt, fastened to some part of their garments by a silken string. A heavy mace sometimes hangs at the bow of the saddle, ready to knock down an enemy; and on the left thigh is suspended, by a shoulder-belt, a crooked sabre. The Mamelukes usually procure their blades from Constantinople, and from Europe; but the Beys rival each other in Persian blades, and the sabres of the ancient steel of Damascus, for they sometimes pay the extraordinary price of forty or fifty pounds sterling*.

In Europe, when we hear of troops, and of war, we figure to ourselves a number of men distributed into companies and squadrons, with uniforms, ranks, and lines; and a system of operations founded on established principles. The Mamelukes know nothing of our military arts; and they are strangers to uniforms, to order, to discipline, or even to subordination. Their troops

from which is thrust a bare neck, and a bald head, covered with a turban. The turban of the Mamelukes is yellow, and of a cylindrical form, turned up on the outside with a roll of muslin. They wear, on their feet, a sock of yellow leather, reaching up to the heels, and slippers without quarters: they have a sort of pantaloon, or trowsers, so long as to reach up to the chin, and so wide that what is provided for one of the legs, is large enough to contain the whole body.

* The art of using these arms to perfection, constitutes the education of the Mamelukes, and is the whole occupation of their lives. Early every morning the greater part of them resort to a plain, near Cairo, and there, riding full speed, exercise themselves in judiciously drawing out their carbine from the bandaleer, discharging it with excellent aim, and then throwing it under their thigh, to seize a pistol, which they fire and throw over their shoulder; immediately firing a second. They are encouraged by the Beys who are present, and whoever breaks the earthen vessel which is used as a Butt, receives great commendations and a reward. They also practise the management of the sabre; and shoot with bows and arrows, though they no longer employ them in battle. But their favourite exercise is throwing the *djerid*. Though the proper signification of this word is a reed, it is used to signify any staff thrown by the hand, after the manner of the Roman pilum. The Mamelukes use branches of the palm-tree, fresh stripped: these branches are four feet long, and weigh five or six pounds. Armed with these, the Cavaliers enter the list, and, riding full speed, dart them at each other from a considerable distance. When the assailant has thrown, he turns his horse, and his antagonist throws his in his turn. The horses, accustomed to this exercise, are so delighted with it, that they sometimes enjoy it as much as their masters. But this practice is attended with danger; for some of them can dart the weapon with such force as to wound, and sometimes mortally.

are a mob, their march a riot, their battles duels, and their war a scene of robbery and plunder, which generally happen even in the city of Cairo, where there is the least reason to apprehend any thing of the kind: a cabal gathers together, the Beys appear on horseback, the alarm spreads, and their adversaries present themselves: they charge each other in the street, sabre in hand; a few murders terminate the quarrel, and the weakest is probably exiled. The people give themselves little concern in these affrays. It is of no material importance to them that these tyrants cut each others throats. They do not, however, remain spectators of the contest, as there would be danger in the midst of bullets and scymetars: every one, therefore, quits the scene of action till tranquillity is restored; and sometimes the populace plunder the houses of the exiled, which the conquerors seldom endeavour to prevent. In the differences and quarrels of the Beys, the people are merely passive instruments*.

The young peasant, sold in Mingrelia or Georgia, no sooner arrives in Egypt than a new and extraordinary scene opens before him, and every thing conduces to awaken his audacity and ambition: though now a slave, he seems destined to become a master, and assumes the spirit of his future condition. He considers how far he is necessary to his patron, and rates himself accordingly. No sooner is a slave enfranchised than he aspires to greatness. In those who command, he observes no superiority of talents which can impress him with respect; he only beholds soldiers like himself, arrived at power by the decree of fate; and if fate should be equally favourable to him, he thinks he shall not be less able in the art of governing, which consists only in taking money, and giving blows with the sabre†.

Such are the men who now govern and decide the fate of Egypt: some fortunate strokes, with abundance of cunning and audacity, have given them this pre-eminence: but the change of fortune has not wrought a change of character in these vile upstarts; they have still the meanness of slaves though elevated to the rank of monarchs. Sovereignty with them is only the means of more luxury, more toys, more horses and slaves, and of gratifying all their caprices. The whole administration is conducted on this principle. It consists in managing the court of Constantinople so as to elude the tribute, or the menaces of the Sultan; and in purchasing a number of slaves, countermining plots, and taking off their secret enemies by poison, or

* Sometimes the war is transferred to the country, when the strongest and most daring party pursues the other. If they suppose themselves nearly equal in courage or force, they wait for each other, or appoint a rendezvous where the respective troops assemble in platoons, the boldest marching at their head. After mutual defiances, the attack begins, and every one chooses his man: they fire, if they can, after which they begin to fall on with the sabre: it is then that the dexterity of the horse and the cavalier are displayed: if the former falls, the destruction of the latter is inevitable. In defeats the valets, who always attend, remount their masters; but should they happen to be unobserved, they knock them on the head, to get the sequins they may happen to have about them. The battle is frequently terminated by the death of two or three of the combatants. If they are overcome, they capitulate with the conqueror, and return to find a master at Cairo who pays: there they live, at his expence, till some new revolution may happen to take place.

† Luxury is now so excessive among the Mamelukes, that there is not one of them whose maintenance costs less than one hundred and four pounds annually, and many of them consume double that sum. At every Ramadan they must have a new suit of French and Venetian cloths, and Damascus and India stuffs. They must also have new horses and harness, with pistols and sabres from Damascus, gilt stirrups, and saddles and bridles plated with silver. The chiefs must have trinkets, precious stones, fine Arabian horses, rich shawls of Cashmire, and variety of pelisses. The women disdain any longer to wear sequins on the head and breast, as not sufficiently gay and splendid, and figure away with diamonds, rubies, and the finest pearls; to which they have added a passion for Lyons stuffs and laces.

The manners of the Mamelukes are horrible, though most of them pretend to the rites of the Greek church, and are circumcised the moment they are bought, even the Turks themselves consider them as renegadoes, void of faith and of religion. Strangers to each other, they are destitute of those natural ties which unite the rest of mankind. Without parents, without children, the past has done nothing for them, and they provide nothing for the future. Ignorant and superstitious, they become ferocious by the commission of frequent murders, perfidious from their numerous cabals, seditious from tumults, and base, deceitful, and corrupted by every species of debauchery. They are even addicted to that abominable vice, which has been so shamelessly practised by the Greeks and the Tartars. It is certain that there is not a single Mameluke that is not polluted by this depravity; and the contagion has extended among the inhabitants of Cairo, and even among the Christians of Syria who reside in that city.

the dagger. Ever tortured by suspicion, the chiefs suffer as much as the ancient tyrants of Syracuse. Morab and Ibrahim sleep continually amidst sabres and carbines, being absolute strangers to a police, or a well regulated government *.

SECTION III.

Condition of the People of Egypt—Of the Diseases of Egypt—The Small Pox.

IN such a country, every thing is analogous to so wretched a government. Where the cultivator cannot enjoy the fruit of his labour, he works only by constraint, and agriculture languishes. Where there is no security in property, there can be no industry to procure it. The greater part of the lands are in the hands of the Beys, the Mamelukes, and the professors of the law; they have few other proprietors, and the little property of theirs is liable to a thousand impositions. Contributions are continually required of them, and there is no right of succession for real property; every thing returns to government, from which every thing must be re-purchased. The peasants are hired labourers, who are permitted to retain what is barely sufficient to sustain life: they can reserve for themselves nothing but dourra, or Indian millet, of which they make a wretched tasteless sort of bread, without leaven. This bread is baked by a fire made with the dry dung of buffaloes and cows †, which, with water and raw onions, is their only food throughout the year. They think themselves extremely happy if they can sometimes procure a little honey, cheese, sour milk, and dates. Flesh meat and fat can only be procured by those who are in the best circumstances, and on the greatest festivals.

Their whole clothing consists in a shirt of coarse blue linen, and a kind of black cloak: their head-dress is a cloth bonnet, with a red woollen handkerchief rolled over it. Their legs, arms, and breasts are naked; many of them not being provided even with drawers. Their habitations are mud-walled huts, in which they are almost suffocated with heat and smoke; to these distresses are added continual alarms, the dread of the robberies of the Arabs, the extortions of the Mamelukes, family feuds, and the calamities of a civil war.

Such is the picture of all the villages, and the towns have not a more agreeable aspect. Even at Cairo, the stranger on his arrival, is struck with the universal appearance of wretchedness and misery. The crowds, with which the streets are thronged, present to the spectator nothing but filthy rags and disgusting nudities. Sometimes, indeed, he meets with a horseman richly clad, which renders indigence the more shocking by being contrasted with the display of luxury. The blood of man is here lavished with that of the vilest animals: justice herself inflicts death without formality. The officer of the night, and even of the day, frequently judge, condemn, and execute, in the twinkling of an eye, without appeal. Unfortunate is that man who is suspected of being in easy circumstances; a multitude of spies are ready every moment to accuse him; and it is only by assuming the appearance of poverty, that he can have any chance of escaping the rapacity of power.

Not many years ago, the capital of Egypt, as well as the whole country presented a spectacle of the most deplorable misery. To the constant evils of uncontrouled tyranny, were added natural calamities still more destructive. The plague, brought from Constantinople in November 1783, made its accustomed ravages during the whole winter. Fifteen hundred dead bodies were supposed to be carried out of the gates of Cairo. The summer, indeed, asswaged its fury, but another scourge, equally terrible, soon fol-

* When M. Volney was at Cairo, some Mamelukes carried off the wife of a Jew, who was passing the Nile with her husband. The Jew complained to Morad, who in his rough tone of voice replied—"Well, let the young folks amuse themselves!"—In the evening, one of the Mamelukes informed the Jew that they would restore him his wife, if he would pay him one hundred piasters for *his trouble*, and to these terms he was obliged to submit. This instance is the more remarkable, since in this country women are held more sacred than even life itself.

† The reader need not be informed that Egypt is a naked country, which affords no fire wood.

lowed

lowed. The inundation of 1783 was not sufficient, therefore a considerable part of the land could not be sown for want of being watered, and another part for want of seed. In 1784, the Nile did not rise so high as was wished, and the dearth became excessive. Soon after November, the famine carried off at Cairo, almost as many as the plague; the streets, which before swarmed with beggars, was now free from them; all of them having perished, or deserted the city. It was generally supposed that the country had lost about a sixth part of its inhabitants. The streets and public places swarmed with meagre and dying skeletons, who implored, in vain, the pity of passengers. These wretches expired before the doors of the Beys, who had large hoards of rice and corn; and frequently the Mamelukes, importuned by their cries, drove them with blows. M. Volney relates that, when he was returning from Syria to France, in March 1785, he saw, under the walls of ancient Alexandria, two wretches sitting on the dead carcase of a camel, "and disputing its putrid fragments with the dogs*."

In this state of barbarism, it seems extraordinary that commerce should still continue so flourishing as we find at Cairo; but, from an examination of the sources, it appears that two powerful causes have contributed to render Cairo the seat of a very extensive trade: the first is, that all the commodities consumed in Egypt are collected within the walls of that city; and all the persons of property, such as the Mamelukes and lawyers, are assembled there, and draw thither their whole revenues, without making any return to the country from which they receive them.

The situation making this city a centre of circulation, is the second cause, while, by the Red Sea, it corresponds with Arabia and India; by the Nile, with Abyssinia, and the interior parts of Africa; and by the Mediterranean, with Europe and the empire of Turkey. Every year a caravan arrives at Cairo, with black slaves, elephants' teeth, gold-dust, ostrich feathers, parrots, and monkeys †; while another, destined for Mecca, coasts along the Mediterranean, and arrives by the desert of Alexandria, consisting of three or four thousand camels. From thence it proceeds to Cairo, and joins the caravan of Egypt, and they afterwards set out jointly for Mecca. The lading of these caravans consists in India stuffs, pearls, shawls, gums, perfumes, and the coffee of Yemen.

The same commodities arrive by another route at Suez: small caravans also come from Damascus, with silk and cotton stuffs, oils, and dried fruits. During the favourable season vessels frequently come in the road of Damietta, unloading hogsheads of tobacco from Latakia, the consumption of which in Egypt is wonderfully great. Vessels come likewise from Marseilles, Leghorn, and Venice, with cloths, and a variety of other articles, which are conveyed by sea to Rosetta, in barks called djern‡. We need not therefore hesitate to admit the report of the commissioner-

* In the present situation of the Egyptians, they may not display probably much courage; though the seeds of it may not be wanting in them, or that it is denied them by the climate. Instead of the degree of heat, it is the ardour of the passions, and the confidence we have in our own powers which enables us to brave danger. We deceive ourselves if we represent the Egyptians as enervated by heat, or effeminate by debauchery. The men of opulence may indeed be a prey to that effeminacy, which is common to them in every climate; but the wretched despised peasants, denominated *fellahs*, endure astonishing fatigues. Volney says, "I have seen them pass whole days in drawing water from the Nile, exposed naked to a sun which would kill us." Those who are valets to the Mamelukes follow their masters every where, and always on foot; they will run, for whole days, before or after their horses, and, when fatigued, will tie themselves to their tails, rather than be left behind.

* *It is not uncommon for them to be put to death, merely on suspicion, and this is equally the practice in Syria. At Ramala, a peasant came into the market for several days, having his cloak stained with the blood of his daughter whom he had thus killed; and the action was generally approved. Turkish justice never interferes in these affairs.*

The character of their minds is perfectly correspondent with the hardiness of their bodies: their implacability in their hatreds, their obstinacy in battles between contending villages; their sense of honour in suffering the bastinado, rather than divulge a secret; and the severity with which they punish deviations from chastity in either wives or daughters*, will shew that they are capable of great energy, which only wants a proper direction to become a formidable courage.

† This caravan comes by land along the Nile; it was that in which Mr. Bruce returned in 1772, from Abyssinia, after having performed the most adventurous journey attempted in the present age. In traversing the desert, the provisions of the caravan were nearly consumed, and the travellers were supported, by gum only, for several days.

‡ Boats which carry a very large lateen sail, striped with blue and brown, like ticking.

general

general of the customs, who asserted, that in 1783, Cairo had traded to almost the amount of one hundred and fifty millions of livres. But, if we consider the channels into which this wealth is poured, we shall be convinced that all this commerce is carried on without adding greatly to the riches of Egypt, or the benefit of the inhabitants.

Having mentioned the commerce carried on at Cairo, with Arabia and India, a question naturally arises, whether it would be practicable to cut through the isthmus which separates the Red Sea from the Mediterranean, that vessels might arrive at India, by a shorter route than the Cape of Good Hope *.

The only method, therefore, of effecting this junction, is that which has been already practised at different times; which is to make the river itself the medium of communication, the ground being extremely well calculated for that purpose; for Mount Mokottom suddenly terminating in the latitude of Cairo, forms only a low and semicircular mound, round which there is a continual plain from the banks of the Nile, as far as the point of the Red Sea. The ancients adopted the idea of joining the two seas by a canal connected with the river †. At present the commerce of Cairo with Suez is only carried on by means of caravans, which wait the arrival of the vessels, and set out on their departure. That which I accompanied in 1783, consisted of three thousand camels, and five or six thousand men ‡. There were also a number of pilgrims who preferred a sea voyage to a land journey: It also carried the necessary provisions, for no place upon earth is more destitute of every necessary than Suez. From the tops of the terraces, the eye, surveying the sandy plain to the north-west, cannot discern even a single tree, or the smallest spot of verdure. Suez affords no prospect but extensive yellow sands, or a lake of green water; the ruinous condition of the houses heightening the melancholy scenery. The only water that can be drank is brought from the *spring*, at the distance of three hours' journey on the Arabian shore; but it is so extremely brackish that it cannot be drank by Europeans, without a mixture of rum in it. The sea might probably furnish plenty of shell and other fish, but the Arabs are not expert fishermen; and the governor, who is a Mameluke, is only left with twelve or fourteen persons at Suez; these form his household, and the garrison §.

Next to the christians of Syria, the most considerable body of merchants is that of the Europeans, known in the Levant by the name of *Franks* ‖. The principal article of French trade in Egypt, consists in light cloths of Languedoc, of which they sell annually between nine hundred and a thousand bales. The other articles of importation are iron, lead, groceries, cochineal, laces, Lyons stuffs, dollars, and sequins. In exchange they take coffee of Arabia, coarse cottons, African gums, untanned hides, sal ammoniac and rice. Cairo is the most precarious and most disagreeable factory of the Levant. Fifteen years ago there were nine French mercantile houses at Cairo; in 1785 they were reduced

* The space which separates the two seas does not exceed eighteen or nineteen leagues; neither is this interval intersected by mountains. It seems also acknowledged that the difference of levels affords no material objection to such a junction: but the great difficulty arises from the nature of the corresponding coasts of the Mediterranean and the Red Sea, which are low and sandy, forming lakes, shoals, morasses, which will not render the near approach of vessels practicable. It is indeed thought impossible to dig a permanent canal amid these shifting sands. It must also be considered that the country has not a drop of fresh water; nor can a supply of that article be procured for the inhabitants, without bringing it as far as from the Nile.

† *Strabo, lib.* 17.

‡ It continued forty days assembled, deferring its departure for various reasons; among others, on account of the *unlucky* days, in which respect the Turks are as superstitious as the Romans formerly were. It set out, however, on the 27th of July, and arrived the 29th at Suez, having performed twenty-nine hours by the route of the Haouatat Arabs, a league farther to the south than the Lake of the Pilgrims.

§ The fortress is a defenceless mass of ruins, which the Arabs consider as a citadel, as it contains six four pounders, and two Greek gunners, who cautiously turn their heads aside when they fire. There the merchandize is embarked, to be conveyed over the banks of sand to the vessels which anchor in the road, and which might be attacked without opposition; the ships themselves are incapable of resistance, none of them having any other artillery than four rusty swivels. Their number diminishes annually, for, by continually coasting along a shore full of shoals, one out of nine or ten is generally shipwrecked. In 1783, one of them was surprised by the Arabs, while the crew were sleeping on the shore. Having plundered it of fifteen hundred bags of coffee, they abandoned the vessel to the wind, which blew it upon the coast.

‖ The orientals usually hold the manners of Europe in detestation, which prevents every idea of emigration.

duced to three, and shortly, it is presumed, there will not remain one. The Christians of Syria, settled some time ago at Leghorn, have given a fatal blow to the French factories at this place, by the immediate correspondence they carry on with their countrymen: and the Grand Duke of Tuscany, who treats them like his other subjects, contributes materially to the encouragement of their trade.

As Grand Cairo is a celebrated city, it deserves to be more particularly described. The founder of this capital gave it the name of *El Kahera;* the Arabs know it only by that of *Masr*, which seems to have been the ancient eastern name of the Lower Egypt. This city stands on the eastern bank of the Nile, about a quarter of a league from the river. When we hear of *Grand Cairo*, we naturally suppose it to be a capital, at least, like those of Europe; but when it is considered, that towns have only begun to be made convenient and elegant within these hundred years, we shall easily conceive that a country which has not been improved since the tenth century, must partake of the common barbarism: Cairo, indeed, contains none of those elegant public or private edifices, in which the architect displays his genius. The environs are embellished with heaps of dirt, formed by the rubbish, which keeps daily multiplying and augmenting, while the immensity of tombs, with the stench of the common sewers, are eqnally offensive to the smell and to the sight. Within the walls, the streets are crooked, narrow, and unpaved, in consequence of which the crowds of men, camels, asses, and dogs, with which they are thronged, occasion continual clouds of dust. Individuals frequently water their doors, and to this dust succeeds mud and pestiferous exhalations. The houses here have two or three stories, which is contrary to the general custom of the east: they have, however, the appearance of prisons, as they have not any light from the street; it being very dangerous to have many windows in such a country, and the entering door is made very low. Their rooms within are ill contrived. The superior people, however, are not without ornaments and conveniences: they have spacious halls, in which are water-spouts; discharging into marble basons, and are well adapted to the climate. The paved floor, inlaid with marble and earthen ware, is covered with mats and mattresses, over which is spread a rich carpet, on which they sit cross-legged. A sofa, with cushions, also embellishes the apartment; and above, at the height of seven or eight feet, a range of shelves, decorated with China and Japanese porcelain. The walls, which in other respects are naked, abound with sentences extracted from the Koran, and painted flowers. Their windows are without glass, or moving sashes; but they have an open lattice work, which may probably be more expensive than our glazing. The light enters from the inner courts, from whence the sycamores reflect a pleasing verdure. An opening to the north, or at the top of the cieling, invites a refreshing breeze, though the different individuals, at the same moment, carefully wrap themselves up in furs, and warm woollen cloths. The rich are thus careful of themselves to avoid diseases, but the common people, with their coarse covering, are perhaps less liable to take cold, and are more rational candidates for superior health *.

A great number of ugly dogs roam about the streets of Cairo, and kites in abundance skim over the houses with frequent and dolorous cries. Though both these creatures are held unclean by the Mussulmen, they never kill them; but, on the contrary, throw them the fragments of the tables; and devotees endow charitable foundations of bread and water for the dogs †. These animals

* The population of Cairo has often been a subject of dispute. Anthony Faraoun, who was the head officer of the customs, says it approaches seven hundred thousand souls *, including Boulak, a port and suburb: but no calculations of the number of inhabitants of Turkey can be relied on, as no registers are kept of births, marriages, or deaths. The Mahometans have superstitious prejudices against numbering their people; though the Christians may be estimated by their tickets of capitation. According to the plan of M. Niebuhr, taken in 1761, Cairo is three leagues in circumference, which is about the same with Paris, by the line of the Boulevards. Now, if Paris does not contain above seven hundred thousand inhabitants, though the houses are five stories high, it cannot be supposed that Cairo, where they are but two stories, can contain more than two hundred and fifty thousand. It is equally impracticable to give a genuine estimate of the population of all Egypt. But as it is known that the number of all the towns and villages does not exceed two thousand three hundred, and the number of inhabitants in each, on the average, does not exceed a thousand, the total cannot be more than two millions, three hundred thousand.

† Turtle-doves, which are very numerous, build their nests in the houses, and even the children do not venture to touch them.

* *Cited by Baron de Tott.*

animals have also the resource of the common sewers, which does not, however, prevent their suffering greatly from hunger and thirst; but it seems very extraordinary that these extremities never produce madness*. Canine madness is wholly unknown in Syria; though the name of the malady is to be found in the Arabic language, and is not borrowed from any foreign tongue.

Blindness is not the only remarkable disease in this country, there being several others which equally deserve attention. It is indeed extraordinary, that such a prodigious number of persons are seen in Egypt whose sight is either lost or impaired. "Out of a hundred persons," says M. Volney, "that I have met while walking the streets of Cairo, twenty have been quite blind, ten wanting an eye, and twenty others have had their eyes red, purulent, or blemished: almost every one wears a fillet, a token of approaching or convalescent opthalmy." But nothing astonished him more than the indifference with which they support so dreadful a misfortune. *It was decreed*, says the Mussulman, *praised be God!—God has willed it*, says the Christian, *blessed be his name!*—Though resignation is the best resource when the evil has happened, it prevents an enquiry into the cause of the disorder, and precludes the discovery of its cure. The following observations may probably assist others in future enquiries:

1st. Defluxions on the eyes are not peculiar to Egypt; they are also frequent in Syria, but not so general; and the inhabitants of the sea-coast are alone subject to them.

2d. In Cairo, which is always full of filth, these disorders prevail more than in the rest of Egypt. They happen more frequently among the common people, than on those in easy circumstances, and among the natives more than foreigners. The Mamelukes are seldom attacked by them: The peasants of the Delta are afflicted with them more than the Bedouin Arabs.

3d. They happen at no certain periods, as Prosper Alpinus has declared, but are common to every month of the year, and to every age.

We cannot ascribe these maladies to any subtile dust in the air, because the peasants are more exposed to this than the inhabitants of towns: the custom of sleeping on the terraces appears a more probable cause. The usual diet of the Egyptians seems to be a powerful cause. Cheese, sour milk, honey, confection of grapes, green fruits, and raw vegetables, which constitute the common food of the people, create a disorder in the stomach, which physicians say effects the sight: raw onions, in particular, of which they devour great quantities, have a peculiar heating quality, which the Monks of Syria induced me to remark on myself. Bodies thus nourished, accumulate corrupted humours which are constantly endeavouring to discharge themselves. Diverted from the proper channel, by habitual perspiration, they fly to the exterior parts, and take possession where they find the least resistance. They naturally attack the head, because the Egyptians, by shaving it once a week, and covering it with a very hot head-dress, principally attract the perspiration to that part, and if the head receives any impression of cold, on being uncovered, this perspiration is suppressed, and falls upon the teeth, and more particularly on the eyes, as being the tenderest part: every additional cold weakens that organ, and at length it becomes totally destroyed. To strengthen the probability that the excessive perspiration of the head is a principal cause, it is certain that the ancient Egyptians, who were bare-headed, are not mentioned by physicians as being so much afflicted with opthalmies†; and that the Arabs of the desert, who cover it very slightly, are equally exempt from them.

Blindness in Egypt is frequently in consequence of the small-pox, a very fatal disorder in that country, and very improperly treated. During the three first days, *debs*, or confection of grapes, honey, and sugar, are administered to the patients; and, after the seventh, they are permitted to take milk, meat, and salt-fish: at the time of suppuration, they are never purged, and carefully avoid washing their eyes, even though they are full of pus, and their eye-lids closed by the glutinous matter: they never perform this operation till after forty days, and, in that time, the pus, by irritating the ball, produces an inflammation which affects the whole eye. Inoculation is not entirely unknown among them, but they seldom practise it, nor is it much

countenanced

* This remark has been made by Prosper Alpinus, in his treatise on the Physic of the Egyptians.

† History, however, relates that several of the Pharaohs died blind.

countenanced by the Syrians, and the inhabitants of Anadolia, who have long been acquainted with it*.

This improper regimen is more pernicious than the climate, which is far from unhealthy†. To unwholesome food may be attributed both the deformity of the beggars, and the wretched appearance of the children of Cairo. Their hollow eyes, pale and puffed faces, swollen bellies, meagre extremities, and yellow skins, give them all the appearance of being hastening to the grave. Their simple mothers pretend that this is the effect of the *evil eye* of some envious person, who has bewitched them. This ancient prejudice is still general in Turkey: but the real cause is their pernicious food‡.

Another troublesome complaint, peculiar to the climate of Egypt, is a cutaneous eruption that returns every year: towards the end of June, or the beginning of July, red spots and pimples appear all over the body, occasioning much pain. As this eruption regularly happened at the time of the new waters, several physicians have supposed, that it was occasioned by the salts with which these waters are impregnated: but M. Volney assigns another reason; he says the waters of the Nile become corrupted, towards the end of April, in the bed of the river, and, when drank, produces malignant humours. When the new water arrives, it occasions a fermentation in the blood, which separates the vicious humours, and expel them towards the skin whither they are invited by the perspiration. It is in effect, a real purgative depuration, and is always salutary. Another disease, common at Cairo, is the swelling of the testicles, which sometimes turns to an enormous hydrocele. It is said, principally, to attack the Greeks and Copts; whence a suspicion arises that it is occasioned by the great quantity of oil which they use two-thirds of the year. It is also conjectured that the immoderate use of the hot baths§ contribute to it, and produces other effects equally injurious to health.

The spring, which in Egypt is the summer of our climates, introduces malignant fevers, which soon arrive at a crisis. A French Physician, who has attended many persons afflicted with them, says, that the bark, given in the intermissions, in doses of two or three ounces, has frequently saved the patient at the last extremity‖. As soon as the disease appears, the patient must be restricted to a vegetable acid regimen: meat and fish are prohibited, and especially eggs: the latter are a sort of poison in Egypt. In this country, and in Syria, bleeding is more injurious than beneficial, even in cases where it appears to be most necessary. The Egyptians are, in general, of a bilious habit, as appears from their eyes, and their black eye-brows, their brown complexion, and meagre form. The cholic is an habitual malady among them; and most of them frequently complain of a sourness in the throat, and an acid nausea; emetics, and cream of tartar are therefore generally successful.

Some persons have expressed an opinion that the plague originates in Egypt**; but this sup-

* The operation is performed by inserting a thread into the flesh, or by making the patient inhale, or swallow, the powder of dried pustules.

† The Mamelukes, from a wholesome diet, and a proper regimen, enjoy the most robust state of health.

‡ Another very general distemper at Cairo is vulgarly called the *Blessed Evil*, called also the *Neapolitan* and *French disease*, with which half Cairo is infected. Many of the inhabitants suppose it to proceed from *fright*, *witchcraft*, or *uncleanness*. Some of them suspect the real cause, but are too reserved to mention their suspicions. This *blessed evil* is found very difficult to cure; mercury generally fails; sudorific vegetables succeed better, but are not infallible: fortunately, the virus is not very active, on account of the great and natural perspiration. Both in this country, and in Spain, we see old men carrying the disorder about them to the age of eighty; but its effects are fatal to children born with the infection; it is also very improper to carry into a cold country, where it never fails to make a rapid progress, becoming more inveterate from transplantation.

§ The Egyptians, and the Turks in general, have a fondness for the stove-baths. The law of the Koran, which enjoins a complete ablution after the conjugal act, is alone a very powerful motive; and the gratification of their vanity in its observance is another. With respect to the women they have other motives; First, the bath is the only place where they can make a parade of their luxury, and regale themselves with melons, fruits, pastry, and other delicacies. Secondly, they believe that the bath gives them that *embonpoint* which passes for beauty. Strangers differ in their opinions: many merchants of Cairo are pleased with the baths; to others they are disagreeable. *M. Volney* found the bath produce in him a vertigo, and a trembling in the knees, which continued two days: He candidly acknowledges, that he does not envy the Turks either their opium, or their stoves.

‖ The next day he always administers a clyster to expel the bark.

** Prosper Alpinus, who wrote in 1591, also says that the plague never originates in Egypt; that it is brought from Greece, Syria, and Barbary; that the heats destroy it, &c. See *Medecina Ægyptiorum*, p. 28.

position proceeds from vague prejudices. The European merchants, who have resided many years at Alexandria concur with the Egyptians in declaring that the plague never proceeds from the interior parts of the country, but first appears on the coast at Alexandria, from thence passes to Rosestta, then to Cairo, then to Damietta, and through the rest of the Delta. They also observe, that it is always preceded by the arrival of some vessel from Smyrna, or Constantinople; and when the plague has been violent in one of these cities during the summer, the danger is greater for themselves the following winter. It is well known that it really originates from Constantinople, where it is continued by the folly and negligence of the Turks, who publicly sell the effects of persons known to have died of that distemper. The ships which go to Alexandria, carry the furs and woollen cloths purchased on these occasions, which they expose to sale in the Bazar of that city, and most effectually spreads the contagion. The Greeks, who deal in these articles, usually become the first victims; and by degrees the infection reaches Rosetta and Cairo. When it is confirmed, the European merchants shut themselves and their domestics up in their Kans, and have no further communication with the city. Their provisions, which are deposited at the gate of the Kan, are received there by the porter, who cautiously takes them up with iron tongs, and plunges them into a barrel of water provided for the purpose. If they have occasion to speak to any one, they carefully avoid coming near enough to touch his clothes, or even to breathe near them. This imprisonment sometimes continues for three or four months, during which time they have no other amusement than that of walking, in the evening, on the terraces, or playing at cards.

At Constantinople the plague prevails during the summer, and is weakened, or ceases in the winter: in Egypt it is most violent in winter, and ends in the months of June. In Egypt the winter nourishes the plague, on account of its being mild and humid; but the summer being hot and dry, it destroys it. Egypt is afflicted with the plague every fourth or fifth year, and its ravages would probably depopulate the country, did not great numbers of strangers resort thither from every part of the empire, and in a great measure repair its losses.

In Syria the plague is not so common: twenty-five years have elapsed since it has been known there *.

Every man has his peculiar taste, according to which he judges. To an Egyptian, Egypt will perhaps be the most beautiful country upon earth: but if I am permitted to give my judgment, from what I have myself seen, I cannot entertain so high an opinion of it. I am not unwilling to do justice to its extreme fertility, to the variety of its productions, and its excellent situation for commerce. I admit that it is but little subject to the variations of weather which discourage the harvest with us; and the hurricanes of America are unknown there, and that earthquakes † are extremely rare. I will even admit that the heat which is so insupportable to Europeans, is not any inconvenience to the natives; but I cannot be reconciled to the pestilential southern blast, the north-east winds which constantly occasion the most violent head-achs, or those swarms of scorpions, gnats and flies, that it is impossible for any person to eat without the danger of swallowing them. Besides no country presents such an uninteresting sameness of aspect: a boundless naked plain, with an horizon every where flat and uniform; date-trees, with bare slender trunks, or mud-walled huts on the causeways, are all that present themselves to the eye. No richness of landscape, no variety of objects, or diversity of scenery, which is so gratifying to true taste! No country is less picturesque, or less adapted to the pencil of the painter, or the descriptions of the poet. We cannot be surprised that neither the Arabs nor the ancients make any mention of Egyptian poets. They know nothing of limpid streams, nor verdant lawns, nor solitary caves; and they are equally strangers to vallies, mountains sides, and pendent rocks. The face of nature, there eternally the same, presents,

* The doctrine of predestination, and the barbarism of the government, have prevented the Turks from guarding against this destructive disease. It is said, however, that an edict was issued last year for establishing a Lazaretto at Constantinople, and three others at Smyrna, Candia, and Alexandria: but the Turkish police is every where so wretched, that little success can be expected from these establishments, though of such infinite importance to commerce, and the safety of the Mediterranean states.

† A very violent earthquake happened there in 1112.

it will be admitted, well-fed herds, fertile fields, a muddy river, a sea of fresh water, with villages rising out of it, resembling islands. Should the eye reach the horizon, it beholds nothing but savage deserts, where the wandering traveller exhausted with fatigue and thirst, shudders at the immense space by which he is separated from the world: in vain he invokes heaven and earth; his cries, lost in the boundless plain, do not receive an echo in return: destitute of every thing, and separated from mankind, he perishes in despair amid a gloomy desert, without the consolation of exciting a sympathising tear. The contrast of this melancholy scene, so near, has probably given to the cultivated fields of Egypt all their charms.

The Turks are strangers to the art of gardening, so much cultivated by polished nations, and despise every kind of cultivation: their gardens are but wild orchards, in which trees are indiscriminately planted, but they have not even the merit of a pleasing irregularity. In vain they inform us of the orange-trees and cedars, which grow naturally in the fields: in Egypt, where they are frequent, they are vulgar, as being associated with the misery of the huts they cover, and recal only the idea of poverty and desolation. In vain do they describe the Turk, reposing under their shade, and happily smoking his pipe, without care or reflection. Ignorance have their enjoyments, as well as wit and learning; but I never could enjoy the repose of slaves, or dignify the name of insensibility with happiness.

It has been frequently remarked that travellers delight in boasting of the countries through which they themselves have travelled. Vanity, which pervades every thing, becomes one of the principal causes of the propensity we all have; either to believe, or to recount prodigies. We have also less desire to be instructed than amused: for these reasons, tale-makers of every kind, have always held a distinguished rank in the esteem of mankind, and in the class of writers.

SECTION IV.

Geography and Natural History of Syria—Rocks—Mountains, Caverns, Earthquakes, Locusts, Animals—Of the Inhabitants of Syria—Of the Pastoral or wandering Tribes—The Turkmans—The Curds—The Bedouin Arabs.

LEAVING Egypt by the Isthmus which separates Africa from Asia, and following the coast of the Mediterranean, we enter SYRIA, another province of Turkey. The name which has been transmitted to us by the Greeks, is an abridgement of *Assyria*, and was first adopted by the Ionians who frequented those coasts, after the Assyrians of Nineveh had made that country a province of their empire. The name of Syria had not therefore so extensive a signification as it has since obtained: it neither included Phœnicia nor Palestine. If we examine a map of Syria, we shall find that this country is little more than a chain of mountains, which are distributed in various directions from one leading branch: and such is the appearance it presents, when we approach it from the side of the sea, or by the immense plains of the desert. It first runs close to the sea, between Alexandretta and the Orontes, and continues its course to the southward, and stretches as far as the source of the Jordan, where it separates into two branches, to inclose, in a kind of bason, this river, and its three lakes. As these mountains change their levels and situations, they are also greatly changed in their form and appearance. Between Alexandretta and Orontes, the firs, oaks, box-trees, laurels, yews, and myrtles, which are numerous, give them an air of liveliness which delights the traveller, disgusted with the melancholy nakedness of the Isle of Cyprus *.

On some declivities he observes cottages, environed with fig-trees, and vineyards. Extending to the northward of Aleppo, the country exhibits nothing but bare rocks, without earth or verdure. To the south of Antioch, and on the sea-coast, the hill-sides are cultivated for tobacco, olives, and vines. Towards Lebanon, though

* Vessels in their passage to Alexandria, touch at Cyprus, the southern part of which is a naked and desolate plain.

the

the mountains are lofty, they are covered with as much earth as qualifies them for cultivation. After leaving the country of the Druzes, the mountains are neither so high, nor so rugged, and are therefore better calculated for tillage. To the south-east of Mount Carmel they rise again, and are covered with woods, affording very agreeable prospects: but on our nearer approach to Judea, they lose their verdure, their valleys become narrower, and they are dry and stoney; terminating, at the Dead Sea in a pile of desolate rocks, full of precipices and caverns *. To the west of Jordan, and the Lake, a higher and more rugged chain of rocks present themselves, making a more gloomy prospect, and announcing the entrance of the desert, and the end of the habitable lands.

The most elevated point of all Syria is Lebanon, on the south-east of Tripoli. As soon as we depart from Larneca, in Cyprus, though at the distance of thirty leagues, we discover its summit, capped with clouds. This is also discernible on the map, from the course of the rivers. The Orontes flows from the mountains of Damascus, and loses itself below Antioch: The Kasmie, from the north of the Balbec, takes its course towards Tyre; and the Jordan, forced by the declivities, towards the south, prove that this is the highest point. Next to Lebanon, the most elevated part of the country is Mount Akkar: it has the appearance of an enormous flattened stone, and is in view for two days journey: in winter their tops are covered with snow, from Alexandretta to Jerusalem. Since it is well known that snow, in this latitude, requires the elevation of fifteen or sixteen hundred fathoms, we may conclude that to be the height of Lebanon, and consequently much lower than the Alps, or even the Pyrenees †.

If we examine the substance of these mountains, we shall discover that they consist of a hard calcareous stone, of a whitish colour, and disposed in strata variously inclined. In travelling from Aleppo to Hama, veins of the same rock are continually seen in the plain, while the mountains on the right present hugh piles, appearing like the ruins of towns and castles. The same stone, under a more regular form, also composes the greater part of Lebanon, Anti-Lebanon, the Mountains of the Druzes, Galilee, and Mount Carmel, and stretches to the Lake Asphaltites. The bed of the torrent of Azkalan, in Palestine, is also lined with a heavy stone, porous and salt, which contains a great number of small volutes and bivalves of the Mediterranean. Pococke saw a large quantity of them in the rocks which border on the Red Sea. Iron is very abundant here. Every summer the inhabitants of Judea cannot be without it, for Moses observed, above three thousand years ago, that its stones were of iron ‡.

Syria,

* The place is called *The Grottoes of Engaddi*, which has been a refuge for vagabonds for several ages, some of which are sufficiently capacious to contain fifteen hundred people.

† Mount Blanc, the highest of the Alps, is estimated at two thousand four hundred fathom above the level of the sea, and the peak of Ossian, in the Pyrenees, at nineteen hundred.

Lebanon, which gives its name to the whole chain of the Kesraouan, and the country of the Druzes, presents variety of majestic mountains. Every step displays either beauty, majesty, or grandeur. When we land on the coast, the loftiness and steep ascent of this mountainous ridge, which seems to enclose the country, inspire astonishment and awe. Here the curious traveller seems to command the whole world, now surveying the successive chains of mountains, while the wandering eye, in an instant, transports the imagination from Antioch to Jerusalem; and now approaching the surrounding objects, more minutely examines the rocks, woods, torrents, villages, and towns. He contemplates the valley, obscured by stormy clouds, with some degree of pleasure, and smiles at hearing the thunder, which had so often burst over his head, now growling under his feet.

‡ The south of Syria, which is the hollow through which the Jordan flows, is a country of volcanoes: the sulphurous sources of the Lake Asphaltites, the lava, and the hot bath of Taberia, plainly demonstrate that this valley has been the seat of a subterraneous fire not yet extinguished. Clouds of smoke are often seen issuing from the lake, and new crevices appear formed upon its banks. It seems probable that the whole valley has been occasioned by a violent sinking of a country, which formerly poured the Jordan into the Mediterranean. It is, however, certain that, at least, the catastrophe of five cities, destroyed by fire, must have been from the eruption of a volcano, then burning *. The quantities of ruins, still found on the western border, seems to be a confirmation of this. Though these eruptions have long ceased, earthquakes continue to be felt, at intervals, in this country. History gives us many examples of earthquakes, which have changed the face of Antioch, Laodicea, Tripoli, Berytus, Tyre, and Sidon. Even so

* *Strabo says, "that the tradition of the inhabitants of the country (that is of the Jews themselves) was, that formerly the valley of the lake was peopled by thirteen flourishing cities, and that they were swallowed up by a volcano."* *Lib.* 16. *p.* 764.

lately

Syria, Egypt, Persia, and most of the southern parts of Asia, are subject to clouds of locusts, so often mentioned by travellers. The quantity of these insects is almost incredible, the whole earth being covered with them for the space of several leagues. The noise they make in browzing on the trees and herbage, may be heard at a considerable distance. A person would suppose that fire had followed their progress: wherever their myriads spread, the verdure of the earth disappears; trees and plants, deprived of their foliage, and reduced to their naked boughs and stems, compel the winter instantly to succeed to the rich scenery of the spring. When these clouds of locusts take their flight, to traverse more rapidly a desert soil, the heavens appear to be obscured by them. Happily, indeed, this calamity is not frequently repeated, for it is the certain fore-runner of famine, and the maladies it occasions. The Syrians have remarked, that they are usually bred by two mild winters, and that they invariably come from the desert of Arabia. Hence it may be apprehended, that the cold has not been sufficiently rigid to destroy their eggs, innumerable legions issue forth. When they make their first appearance in the cultivated country, the inhabitants endeavour to drive them off with clouds of smoke, but they cannot always procure a sufficiency of herbage and wet straw: they then dig trenches, in which many of them are buried; but the two most effectual destroyers of them, are the south, or south-easterly winds, and the bird called the *sarmarmar*. These birds, which resemble the wood-pecker, follow them in great multitudes, devouring as many as they can, and destroying large quantities of them. They are therefore much respected by the peasants, who never disturb or injure them. As the winds, just mentioned, drive these myriads of locusts over the Mediterranean, such immense quantities of them are drowned, that when their carcases are wafted to the shore, they infect the air for several days, even to a considerable distance.

In so extensive a country as Syria, we cannot suppose the quality of their soil is every where the same. The mountains are generally harsh and stoney; and the plains flat and loamy, exhibiting every sign of the greatest fecundity. In the territory of Aleppo, near Antioch, it resembles brick-dust, or Spanish snuff. The waters of the Orontes, which pass through this district, are whitish, acquiring that colour from the nature of the land towards its source. The earth, in general, is brown, and as fine as garden mould. Hardly a pebble is to be found in the plains of Hauran, Gaza, and Balbec.

The grand ideas which travellers usually give of distant objects, have accustomed us to mention the waters of Syria with respect. We are frequently induced to say the river *Jordan* *, the river *Orontes*, and the river *Adonis*. If we would, however, wish to speak properly, we should hardly find any respectable streams but *Rivulets* in this country: the channels of the Orontes and the Jordan, though the two most considerable, are hardly sixty paces wide at their mouths; the others are hardly considerable enough to be mentioned. They may be said to be nothing but Torrents and Cascades, that from the proximity of the mountains, among which they rise to the sea, the waters have not time to collect in long valleys, and to form rivers. The obstacles by some of these mountains, form lakes, some of which are considerable, as those of Antioch, Aleppo, Damascus, Tabaria, and that which has been honoured with the name of the Dead Sea, or Lake Asphaltites. All these lakes, except the last, contain fresh water †.

It

lately as 1579, an earthquake happened which made wonderful ravages. It destroyed, in the valley of Balbec, upwards of twenty thousand persons: the inhabitants of Lebanon were so terrified at the shocks of it, that for three months they abandoned their houses and dwelt under tents. —"When I was at Aleppo, in December, 1783," says Mr. Volney, "so violent a shock was felt, as to ring the bell in the house of the French consul."—It is remarked, in Syria, that earthquakes seldom happen but in winter, when the autumnal rains have ceased.

* The Jordan, however, has considerable depth; but if the Orontes, were not impeded by successive obstacles, it would be perfectly dry during the summer.

† Lake Asphaltites contains neither animal nor vegetable life: its waters are without fish, and its banks without verdure; the extreme saltness of the water far exceeds that of the sea, and is therefore hostile to animals and vegetables. The soil around it is so impregnated with this saline quality, that it produces no plenty: hence the melancholy aspect which reigns about this lake. The origin of this mineral was particularly noticed by *M. Volney*, who says, that on the south-west shore, there "are mines of fossil salt, of which I have brought away several specimens." On this shore are also found fragments of sulphur and bitumen, which the Arabs convert into trifling articles of commerce. Unshapen blocks are observed here, which pass with superstitious pilgrims for monuments of the Adventures of *Lot's Wife*, though it is no where pretended that she was metamorphosed into stone, but into *salt*.

The lake of Antioch abounds with eels, and a sort of red

It is generally said that Syria is a very hot country; but several distinctions are necessary to be made: first, on account of the difference of latitude, which, from the two extremes, is not less than six degrees; secondly, from the division of the country into low and flat, and high and mountainous. We may venture then to establish two general climates; the one very hot, which is that of the coast, and the interior plains, as those of Antioch, Balbec, Tripoli, Gaza, Acre, &c. The other temperate.

In this climate, the order of the seasons nearly tallies with the middle provinces of France: the winter, which continues from November to March, is sharp and severe. Not a year passes without snow, and the earth is frequently covered with it, several feet deep: the spring and autumn are mild, and the summer heat is absolutely insupportable. In the plains, on the contrary, when the sun returns to the equator, the transition is rapid to oppressive heats, which continue till the conclusion of October. But the winter is so moderate, that the orange, banana, and other delicate trees, thrive in the open air. It appears equally extraordinary to an European at Tripoli, to see, under his window, in the month of January, orange-trees, well stocked with flowers and fruit, while the towering head of Lebanon is covered with ice and snow. In the northern parts, and to the east of the mountains the winter is indeed more rigorous, without the summer being less hot. At Antioch, Damascus, and Aleppo, there are several weeks of frost and snow every winter; which arises more from the situation of the country, than from the difference of the latitude; the plains to the eastern mountains being high above the level of the sea, and exposed to all the parching blasts of the north and south-east, and screened from the humid winds of the south and south-west.

In spite of the barbarism of Syria, which is an enemy to all industry and improvement, we are astonished at the variety it affords. Besides wheat, rye, barley, beans, and the cotton plant, we find a multitude of useful and agreeable productions. Palestine abounds in sesanum, from which oil is procured, and dourra as good as that of Egypt. Maize thrives in Balbec, and rice is successfully cultivated on the borders of the marshy country of Havula. Indigo grows without cultivating, on the banks of the Jordan, in the country of Bisan, and with care may be made of a very excellent quality. The hill-sides of Latakia produce tobacco, a principal article of the commerce of that town with Damietta and Cairo. The olive tree of Provence grows at Antioch, and at Ramle to the height of the beech. The white mulberry-tree enriches the whole country of the Druzes, by the beautiful silks which are produced on it, while the vine supported on poles, supplies grapes which produce red and white wines that might rival those of Bourdeaux. Raffa, besides its lemons, produces enormous citrons; and water melons, superior even to those of Brulos. Gaza produces dates like Mecca, and Pomegranates like Algiers. The oranges of Tripoli are equal to those of Malta, and Bairut figs like those of Marseilles. Aleppo has the exclusive advantage of producing pistachios, and Damascus possesses all the fruits that are known in the provinces. Its stony soil is equally suitable to the apples of Normandy, the plums of Torraine, and the peaches of Paris. No less than twenty sorts of apricots are reckoned there; one of which contains a kernel much esteemed through all Turkey. The cochineal plant also grows on that coast, in as high perfection as in Mexico and St. Domingo *. When we consider that the mountains of the Yemen, which produce most excellent coffee, and that they are only a continuation of those of Syria, and that their soil and climate are nearly the same †, we may reasonably suppose that Judea might easily cultivate this valuable production of Arabia ‡.

The face of the heavens, in Syria, especially on

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ed fish not very excellent; but the Greeks, who keep a perpetual lent, consume great quantities of them. Lake Tabaria is still richer; crabs, especially, are very numerous in it; but the environs, being inhabited only by Mahometans, they are very seldom disturbed.

* It was long supposed that the insect of the cochineal was peculiar to Mexico; and the Spaniards, to secure the exclusive possession of it, have prohibited the exportation of the living cochineal, under pain of death; but M. Thieril, who succeeded in bringing it away in 1771, and carried it to St. Domingo, found the nopals of that island contained it before his arrival. It seems as if Nature hardly ever separated insects from the plants appropriated to them.

† The situation of the country of Yemen and Tahama is very similar to that of Syria. See M. Niebuhr, *Voyage en Arabie*.

‡ With all the advantages of soil and climate it is not surprising that Syria should have always been esteemed a most

on the coast, and in the desert, is more constant and regular than in our climates; the sun is seldom obscured for two successive days. In the course of a whole summer, we see few clouds, and still less rain. It begins about the end of October, and is then neither long nor plentiful. The husbandmen wish for it to sow what they call their winter crop, meaning their wheat and barley. In December and January, they have heavier and more frequent rain, and sometimes snow in the higher country. Sometimes also it rains in March and April, when the husbandman embraces the opportunity of sowing his *summer* crop of sesamum, doure, cotton, tobacco, beans, and water-melons. The remainder of the year is uniform, but the inhabitants more frequently complain of drought, than of too much wet.

The winds in Syria are, in some degree, periodical, and governed by the seasons. About the autumnal equinox, the north-west wind begins to blow stronger, and more frequently. It occasions the air to be dry, clear, and sharp; and on the sea-coast, it causes the head-ach, like the north-east wind in Egypt; and more in the northern than in the southern parts. It also usually blows three days successively, like the south and south-east at the other equinox, and it usually prevails till November. These winds are followed by the north-west, the west, and the south-west, which continue from November to February. In March the pernicious winds arise from the southern quarter, with the same circumstances as in Egypt; but they are less violent as we advance towards the north, and more supportable in the mountains, than in the flat country. Their duration, at each return, is usually twenty-four hours, or three days. The easterly winds, which follow, continue till June, when a north wind succeeds. At the same season, also, the wind varies through all the points, every day; passing with the sun from the east to the south, and from the south to the west, to return by the north, and then re-commence the same circuit. A local wind, called the land breeze, at this time prevails along the coast during the night; it springs up after sun-set, continues till sun-rising, and extends only two or three leagues out at sea.

No country is better adapted to observations than Syria: the confined horizon which bounds our view, circumscribes also our ideas. In Syria, on the contrary, an immense scene opens before us, and the great agents of nature are collected in a place where her various operations may be watched. To the west is displayed the vast liquid plain of the Mediterranean; to the east, the vast desert, but absolutely dry: Amidst these two level surfaces, rise the mountains, of

most delicious country, and that the Greeks and Romans ranked it among the best of their provinces; they did not even think it inferior to Egypt. In more modern times, a Pacha, who well knew both these provinces, being asked to which he gave the preference, thus delivered his answer—"Egypt is certainly a most beautiful farm, but Syria is a charming country house."

To the natural history of Syria we may add, that it produces all our domestic animals, as well as the buffalo and camel, whose ability is so well known. We also find gazelles (antelopes,) in the plains, and a number of wild boars in the mountains. Jackalls are very numerous, they march in droves, and frequent the environs of towns, where they feed on what carrion they can find. They never attack any person, but are ever ready to save themselves by flight. Every evening they give each other the watch word, to begin howling, and sometimes amuse themselves thus, in very doleful strains for a quarter of an hour. In unfrequented places there are also hyenas, and ounces; (properly called) but the country is free from lions and bears: water-fowl are plentiful; but game is not so abundant: The hare and the red partridge are the most common. The colibri, (or humming bird) still exists in the territory of Saide. Them, and the pelican, are the only remarkable birds in Syria.

The qualities of the air and waters in Syria ought not to remain unnoticed. These elements in Syria present very remarkable phenomena. On the mountains, and all the plains, which stretch to the eastward, the air is light, pure, and dry; but on the coast, and particularly from Alexandretta to Yafa, it is moist and heavy. The air of the desert, and the mountains, though not unwholesome for such as are in no danger of pulmonary complaints, is injurious to those who are; and it is necessary to send such from Aleppo to Lahakic or Saide. The salutary air on the coast, is, however, over-balanced by those that are pernicious: and it may, in general, be pronounced unhealthy, as it occasions intermittent and putrid fevers, with destructions of the eyes. The evening dews, and sleeping on the terraces, are found much less prejudicial in the mountainous and interior parts of the country, the distance from the sea being greater.

There is also a remarkable difference in the waters of this country: In the mountains, that of the springs is light and good; but in the plain, both to the east and west, we find nothing but brackish water, which becomes more so the nearer we approach the desert, where there is not a drop of any other. From this inconvenience rain is so desirable to the inhabitants of the frontiers, that they have at all times taken care to collect it in wells and caverns, properly closed: hence, among all ruins, cisterns are usually some of the first things that we discover.

which the summits are so many observatories, from whence objects at thirty leagues distance may be perceived. Four observers might discern the whole extent of Syria. They might observe how the region of the sea, at first unclouded, veils itself with vapours; how these vapours form into groupes, and separate, and by a perpetual mechanism, ascend above the mountains: while the desert, invariably clear, never produces clouds, and has only those it has received from the sea. They would be sensible of the truth of an axiom, which should no longer be disputed, "That the heat is greater in proportion as we approach the surface of the earth, and diminishes as we remove from it." Hence it seems to proceed only from the action of the rays of the sun upon the earth. In short, they might attempt the solution of the greatest part of meteorological problems.

Syria, as well as Egypt, has had many revolutions, which have confounded the different races of its inhabitants. Within two thousand five hundred years, it has been ten times invaded, and the invaders have introduced into that country a succession of foreign nations. First, the Assyrians of Nineveh, who, about the year 750 before the Chistian æra, obtained possession of almost the whole country lying to the north of Judea. Next the Chaldeans, or Babylonians, who completed the conquest of Syria, except the Isle of Tyre. The Chaldæans were followed by the Persians, under Cyrus; and the Persians by the Macedonians, under Alexander.

It then appeared probable that Syria would cease to be subject to foreign powers, and that it would obtain a distinct independent government; but the people, who found in the Seleucida only despots and oppressors, perceiving they were reduced to the necessity of bearing some yoke, preferred the lightest; and Syria, yielding to the arms of Pompey, became a province of the Roman empire.

Five centuries after, when the sons of Theodosius divided their immense patrimony, this country changed the capital to which it was to appertain, without changing its masters, and was annexed to the empire of Constantinople. Such was its situation in 622, when the Arabian tribes, collected under the banners of Mahomet, seized it and nearly laid it waste. Since that period, torn to pieces by the civil wars of the Talmites, and the Ominiades, wrested from the Caliphs by their rebellious brothers, taken from them by the Turkman soldiery, invaded by the European crusaders, retaken by the Mamelukes of Egypt, and ravaged by Tamerlane and his Tartars, it at length fell into the hands of the Ottoman Turks, who have been its masters for two hundred and eighty-six years.

These vicissitudes have introduced into the country so many distinct tribes of inhabitants, that the people of Syria must not be considered as one single nation, but rather as a mixture of different nations.

They may be divided into three principal classes: First, the posterity of the people conquered by the Arabs; that is the Greeks of the Lower Empire.—Secondly, the posterity of the Arabian Conquerors.—Thirdly, the present ruling people, the Ottoman Turks *.

The disorders prevalent in Syria are dysenteries, inflammatory and intermittent fevers, produced by pernicious fruits, which the people greedily devour. The small-pox is often fatal; but the most frequent illness is the cholic; the causes of which are very evident when we consider the vast consumption of raw vegetables, unripe fruit, cheese, olives, sour milk, and ill-fermented bread. Hence, the first prescriptions in almost all disorders, is an emetic.

The Arabic tongue is the general language of Syria: though it is said by Niebuhr, that the Syriac is still used in some villages of the mountains. The Turkish language is only used in

* Syria has not, like Egypt, refused to adopt the foreign races: they are all become equally naturalized to the country. The inhabitants of the southern plains are more swarthy than those of the northern; and these more so than the inhabitants of the mountains. The women of Damascus and Tripoli are celebrated for the fairness of their complexion and the regularity of their features, but as they perpetually wear a veil, these perfections are perhaps overrated; no person having it in his power to make nice observations. In several districts, however, the women are less scrupulous. In Palestine, for example, married women are seen unveiled, but want and fatigue have deprived them of many of their charms. Their eyes are generally very beautiful, and the long drapery, which forms their general dress, display the shape of the body; which is not always elegant, though hardly ever deformed. *M. Volney* says—"I do not recollect having seen in Syria, nor even in Egypt, two persons crooked or deformed."

The Syrians are, in general, of a middling stature, and less corpulent than the inhabitants of the north. We find, however, in the cities, some individuals, whose corpulence sufficiently proves the influence of diet even in a warm climate.

Syria, by the military, persons in office, and the Turkman hordes*. The Arabic of Syria is much harsher than that of Egypt, but *M. Niebuhr* says, that of the inhabitants of Yemen, and the southern coast, is much softer, and gives a fluency to the Arabic beyond what could have been supposed.

Among the variety of inhabitants of Syria some are dispersed over different parts of the country, and others confine themselves to particular spots†.

All their property consists in cattle; that is, in camels, buffaloes, goats, and sheep. They live on milk, and sell or barter the surplus in the neighbouring country, for arms, clothes, money, and corn. Their women spin wool, and make carpets. The men are wholly occupied in smoking, and looking after their flocks. Continually on horseback, with their lances on their shoulders, their sabres by their sides, and their pistols in their belts, they are expert horsemen, and indefatigable soldiers. The Pachalits of Aleppo and Damascus, which are the only parts of Syria they frequent, are supposed to contain thirty thousand wandering Turkmans. Many of these tribes pass, in summer, into Armenia and Caramania, where plenty of grass may be found; and in winter they return to their former quarters. The Turkmans are reputed Mussulmen, and have generally submitted to the operation of circumcision; but they seem to give themselves very little concern about religion. They have not the reputation of being robbers, like the Arabs, and they are said not to be deficient in hospitality or generosity. When we consider that they live in plenty, without being rich, and are inured to war, fatigue, and danger, we may reasonably suppose they are equally removed from the ignorance and servility of the peasants, and the corruption of the mercenary inhabitants of towns.

The Curds are another national body, the tribes of which are dispersed over the Lower Asia, and have much extended themselves during the last century. Their original country is the chain of mountains, from whence issue the different branches of the Tigris. In modern geography it is known by the name of *Curd-estan*. This country is mentioned in the most ancient histories of the east. Among the curds, each village has its chief, and the whole nation is divided into different and independent factions. The disputes, inseparable from this state of anarchy, have detached from the nation a great number of tribes and families, which have adopted the wandering life of the Turkmans and Arabs.

These are dispersed in the Diarbekir, and over the plains of Arzroum, Erivan, Sivas, Aleppo, and Damascus. All their tribes united amount to about one hundred and forty thousand tents, or one hundred and forty thousand armed men. Like the Turkmans, these Curds are pastors and wanderers, but differ from them in some particular cases. The Turkmans give their daughters a marriage dower; the Curds receive a premium for them. The Turkmans disregard antiquity of extraction: the Curds esteem it highly honourable. The Turkmans have an aversion to stealing; the Curds are accused of being plunderers, and are therefore much dreaded in the neighbourhood of Aleppo, Antioch, &c. In their Pachalic, and in that of Damascus, their number exceeds twenty thousand tents and huts. They are reputed Muhometans, but think little of religious rites or opinions. The language of the Curds is divided into three dialects. It has neither the aspirations, nor the gutturals of the Arabic‡.

The soil, however, varies considerably in dif-

* At Alexandretta, and Beilam, they speak Turkish, but these places must be regarded as frontiers of Caramania, where Turkish is the vulgar tongue.

† The Turkmans are among the Tartar hordes, who, on the great revolutions of the empire of the Caliph, emigrated from the eastward of the Caspian Sea, and spread themselves over the plains of Armenia and Asia Minor. Their language is the same with that of the Turks, and their mode of life resembling that of the Bedonin Arabs. Like them they are obliged to travel over immense tracts of land, to procure subsistence for their numerous herds. But the countries frequented by the Turkmans being rich in pasturage, they can feed more cattle on them, and are consequently less dispersed than the Arabs of the desert.

‡ A third wandering people in Syria, as well as in Egypt, are the Bedouin-Arabs. With respect to the Arabs, they seem especially condemned to a wandering life, by the nature of the deserts. To have an idea of these deserts, the reader must imagine to himself a sky almost perpetually inflamed, and without clouds, immense plains, without houses, trees, rivulets, or hills: where the eye generally meets nothing but an extensive and uniform horizon, like the sea, though in some places the land is uneven and stony. Almost naked on every side, the soil presents nothing but a few wild plants, thinly scattered, and thickets, whose solitude is hardly ever disturbed but by antelopes, hares, rats, and locusts. Such is the description of the whole country, which extends six hundred leagues in length, and three hundred in breadth: it stretches from Aleppo to the Arabian sea, and from Egypt to the Persian gulph.

ferent places: On the frontiers of Syria, for example, the earth is cultivable, and even fruitful. As much may be said of the banks of the Euphrates; but in the interior parts of the country, and towards the south, it becomes white and chalky, as in the parallel of Damascus: rocky, as in the Tih, and the Hedjaz; and a pure sand, as to the eastward of the Yemen. This variety in the qualities of the soil occasions some minute differences in the condition of the Bedouins: for instance, in the most sterile countries, the tribes are feeble, and very distant, as in the desert of Suez, that of the Red Sea, and the interior of the Great Desert, called the Najd. Where the soil is more fruitful, as between Damascus and the Euphrates, the tribes are more numerous, and not so far distant from each other: and in the cultivable districts, the camps are frequent and contiguous. In the former case, the Bedouins subsist only on the produce of their herds, a few dates, and flesh meat, which they eat fresh, or dried in the sun, and reduced to a powder. In the latter, they cultivate some land, and add cheese, barley, and rice to their flesh and milk *.

No creature seems more peculiarly fitted for the soil and climate it inhabits than the camel. It cannot be doubted but the nature of the one, has been adapted to that of the other by some disposing intelligence. Designing the camel to dwell in a country where little nourishment is to be found, Nature has been sparing of her materials in his formation; she seems to have furnished him with nothing but what is absolutely necessary: she has not bestowed on him the plump fleshiness of the ox, horse, or elephant; she has given him a small head without ears, at the head of a meagre long neck without flesh. She has withheld from his legs and thighs every muscle not absolutely requisite for motion, and has barely given to his withered body only the vessels and tendons necessary to connect its frame together. She has allowed him a strong jaw, to enable him to grind the hardest aliments; but, that he might not consume too much, she has contracted his stomach, and obliged him to chew the cud. She has incumbered his foot with a lump of flesh, which, sliding in the mud, and being incapable of climbing, renders him unfit for any soil that is not dry, level, and sandy, like that of Arabia. She has evidently calculated him for a life of slavery, by refusing him any sort of defence against his enemies. Without the horns of a bull, the hoof of the horse, the tooth of the elephant, and the speed of the stag, how can he avoid the attacks of the lion, the tiger, or the wolf?—Nature has therefore, to preserve the species, concealed him in the depth of the immense deserts, where the absence of vegetables can attract no game, and whence the want of game repels every voracious animal. Tyranny must have expelled man from the habitable parts of the earth, before the camel could have lost his liberty. Become domestic, he has rendered habitable the most barren soil: he alone supplies the whole that his master wants. The milk of the camel nourishes the family of the Arab, under the various forms of curds, cheese, and butter; and they frequently feed upon his flesh. Slippers and harness are fabricated from his skin, and tents and cloathing of his hair. Heavy burthens are transported, by his means, from place to place; and, when the earth denies forage to a horse, so essential to the Bedouin, the female camel supplies that deficiency by her milk, for the trifling consideration of a few stalks of brambles or wormwood, and pounded date kernels. Of such importance to the desert is the camel, that without that useful animal, it must infallibly lose every inhabitant †.

It has already been observed, that the Bedouin Arabs

* The causes of the sterility and uncultivated state of the desert, is principally to be attributed to the absence of fountains and rivers; and, in general, to the want of water. This want of water is occasioned by the nature of the country, which being flat and destitute of mountains, the clouds glide over its heated surface. They never rest there but in winter, when the coldness of the atmosphere hinders them from rising, and condenses them into rain. The nakedness of the country is another cause of drought, as the air is consequently more easily heated, and compels the clouds to rise.

† The Bedouins are, in general, small, meagre, and tawny, and their complexion is darker than that of the neighbouring peasants. The rich, and their attendants, are, however, taller, and more corpulent than the common class, some of them are five feet six inches high, though, in general, they do not exceed five feet two inches. The lower class of Bedouins live in a state of habitual wretchedness and famine: their difference, therefore, can only be attributed to their food, with which the former are supplied more abundantly than the latter. Abstinence is most remarkable among the tribes of the Naid and the Hedjaz. Six or seven dates, soaked in melted butter, with a little fresh milk, or curds, serve a man a whole day: he is rendered

Arabs are divided into tribes, which constitute so many distinct nations. Each of these tribes possess a certain tract of land, and are collected in one or more camps. If a tribe, or any of its subjects, enter upon a foreign territory, they are considered as enemies and robbers, and a war is the consequence. The manner of proceeding, on such occasions, is very simple. The offence being made known, they mount their horses, and seek the enemy: having met, they enter into a parley; when the matter is either adjusted, or they proceed to the attack either in small bodies, or man to man. They encounter each other at full speed, with fixed lances; which, notwithstanding their length, they sometimes dart at the flying enemy: the victory is seldom contested; the vanquished generally take their flight full-gallop over the naked plain of the desert. Night generally favours their escape from the conqueror. The tribe which has lost the battle, strikes its tents, removes to a considerable distance, by forced marches, and seeks protection among its allies. The enemy, pleased with their success, drive their herds farther on, and the fugitives soon after return to their former situation.

The camps of the Bedouins are formed in a kind of irregular circle, composed of a single row of tents. Each tent, inhabited by a family, is divided by a curtain into two apartments, one of which is appropriated to the women. The empty space, within the large circle, folds their cattle every evening. They have no intrenchments, and their only advanced guards and patroles are dogs: their horses always remain saddled, that they may be ready to mount on the first alarm; but they are strangers to all order and discipline.

The tribes which live in the vicinity of the Turks are still in more danger of attacks and alarms; for these strangers arrogating to themselves, in right of conquest, the property of the whole country, treat the Arabs as rebel vassals, or as dangerous enemies. And on this principle, they continually wage secret or open war against them.

Each tribe is composed of one or more principal families, the numbers of which bear the title of shaiks, *i. e.* chiefs or lords. These families resemble the patricians of Rome, and the nobles of modern Europe. One of the shaiks has the supreme command over the others. He is general of their little army, and enjoys the title of *Emir*, signifying commander and Prince. To these he adds particular adherents whom he studiously attaches to him by kindness and generosity. A number of small families, who are not wholly independent, stand also in need of his protection and support, and therefore range themselves under his banners. Such an union is called *kabila*, or tribe; and these tribes are distinguished from each other, by the name of their respective chiefs, or by that of the ruling family.

The government of this society is at once republican, aristocratical, and even despotic, without exactly attending to any one of these forms. It is republican, as the people have a great influence in all affairs, and every thing is transacted by the consent of a majority. It is aristocratical, because the families of the shaiks possess some of the prerogatives which every where accompany power; and it is despotic, because the principal shaik has an indefinite and almost absolute authority *.

The simplicity and poverty of the lower class of the Bedouins is proportioned to that of their chiefs.

dered extremely happy, if he can add a small quantity of coarse flour, or a small ball of rice. Meat is only to be eaten at the greatest festivals; and they never kill a kid but for a marriage or funeral. In times of dearth, the common people do not disdain the most wretched kinds of food, and eat rats, lizards, locusts, and serpents.

But we are by no means justified in concluding, that the frugality of the Arabs is a virtue of choice, or even of climate. The extreme heat facilitates their abstinence, by destroying that activity which cold gives to the stomach. Their being habituated to a sparing diet also prevents the extension of that part, and enables them the better to support abstemiousness.

* The principal shaik in every tribe defrays the expences of all who arrive at, or quit the camp: he receives the visits of the allies, and every person who has business to transact with him. Contiguous to his tent is a large pavilion, for the reception of all strangers and passengers. There frequent assemblies of the shaiks and principal men are held to determine on peace and war, on encampments and removals, and on the differences with the Turkish governors, and the villages; as well as the litigations and quarrels of individuals. To this crowd, which enters successively he must keep open table: it is indeed of importance to him to be generous; as on the exercise of generosity depend his credit and his power. The Arab places the liberality which feeds him before any other virtue. They bear in mind the proverb, *A Close Fist has a Narrow Heart.* To defray these expences, the shaik has only his herds, a few spots of cultivated ground, the profits of plunder,

chiefs. All the wealth of the family is like the following inventory. A few male and female camels; a mare, her bridle, and saddle, some goats, and poultry; a tent, lance, a crooked sabre, a rusty musquet, a pipe, a portable mill, a pot for cooking, a leather bucket, a small coffee-roaster, a mat, some clothes, a mantle of black woollen, and a few glass or silver rings, which the women wear upon their legs and arms. But what the poor man takes the greatest pleasure in, is his mare: with her the Bedouin makes his excursions against hostile tribes, or seeks plunder on the highways. The wants of the Arabs, indeed are few, and their industry is very inconsiderable: all their arts consist in weaving their clumsy tents, and in making mats and butter. They are absolute strangers to all science: all their literature consists in reciting tales and histories, like the Arabian Nights Entertainments. They delight exceedingly in such stories. The Bedouins have also their Love Songs, which abound with sentimental and natural characters. When we consider how much the condition of the Bedouins, especially in the Desert, resembles that of the savages in America, it seems wonderful that they should not have the same ferocity.

It seems, at first view, that America, being rich in pasturage, lakes, and forests, is more adapted to the pastoral mode of life than to any other. But when we consider that these forests, by affording an easy refuge to animals, protect them securely from the power of man: we may reasonably conclude that the savage has become a hunter instead of a shepherd, by the nature of the country. In this state all its habits have contributed to give him a ferocity of character: the fatigues of the chace have hardened his body, and frequent and extreme hunger has rendered him voracious. The habit of taking away life, and tearing his prey has reconciled him to the sight of death and sufferings. Tormented by extreme hunger, he has desired flesh; and, finding that a fellow easily obtained, he did not long hesitate to kill him to gratify the cravings of his appetite. After the first experiment, this cruelty degenerates into a habit; he becomes a cannibal, sanguinary and atrocious; and his mind acquires the insensibility of his body.

The situation of the Arab is wholly different. Amid his extensive naked plains, without water, and without forests, he could not become a hunter or a fisherman. Finding, however, a light but constant and sufficient nourishment, he has acquired the habit of frugality. Content with milk and dates, he had not any desire for flesh, and he shed no blood: his hands were unaccustomed to slaughter, and his ears were never tortured with the cries of suffering creatures; he has therefore preserved a humane and feeling heart. When the savage shepherd became acquainted with the use of the horse, a considerable change was effected in his mode of life. The facility of passing rapidly over extensive plains rendered him a wanderer. Rather a plunderer than a warrior, the Arab possesses no sanguinary courage: he attacks only with a view of advantage, and, if he meets with resistance, never risks his life for an inconsiderable booty. To irritate him, you must shed his blood, when you will find him as obstinate in his vengeance, as he was cautious in avoiding danger.

Among themselves the Arabs are remarkable for good faith, and a disinterested generosity which would do honour to the most civilised nation. If a stranger only touches the tent of the Bedouins, from that instant his person becomes inviolable. It is thought disgraceful in the extreme to satisfy even a just vengeance at the expence of hospitality. When a Bedouin has consented to eat bread and salt with his guest, nothing can induce him to betray him. Rapacious as he is without his camp, he has no sooner set his foot within it, than he becomes liberal and generous. What little he possesses, he is ever ready to devide.

The Bedouins, from policy, preserve the appearance of Mahometanism; but so relaxed is their observance of its ceremonies, and so little fervor has their devotion, that they are generally supposed to be infidels, who have neither law nor prophet. They jocularly observe, that the religion

plunder, and the tribute he levies on the high roads. The shaik, with whom I resided at Gaza, in 1781, did not seem to live at a greater expence than an opulent farmer. We must not, therefore, when we speak of the Bedouins, affix to the words *Prince* and *Lord*, the idea they usually convey. A shaik, who commands five hundred horsemen, saddles, and bridles his own, and furnishes him with barley and chopped straw. His wife does not disdain to make the coffee, knead the dough, and superintend the dressing of the victuals, while his daughters and kinswomen wash the linen.

ligión of Mahomet was not made for them, for, say they, "How shall we make ablutions who have no water? How can we bestow alms who are not rich? Why should we fast in the Radaman, since the whole year with us is one continued fast? and why should we make the pilgrimage to Mecca, if God be present every where?"—In short, every man acts and thinks as he pleases, and the most perfect toleration is established among them. It must be acknowledged that there are few polished nations whose morality is, in general, so much esteemed as that of the Bedouin Arabs; and it is remarkable that the same virtues are equally to be found in the Turkman hordes, and the Curds. Among these also, religion is perfectly free from exterior forms; no man has ever seen, among the Bedouins, the Turkmans, or Curds, either priests, temples, or regular worship.

SECTION VII.

People of Syria—Of the Ausarians—The Maronites—The Druzes—The Motonalis.

THE AUSARIANS.

THE first people to be distinguished from the rest of the inhabitants of Syria, among those who employ themselves in cultivation, are those called, in the country, by the plural name Ausaria, in Delisle's map styled Emsyrians. The territory occupied by these Ausaria, is that chain of mountains, extending from Antakia to the Great River. These Ausarians are principally inhabitants of the mountains before mentioned. When the crusaders waged war in these countries, they marched from Marrah towards Lebanon, and engaged with some of these Ausarians, many of whom they slew. William of Tyre *, who mentions this fact, confounds them with the *assassins* †.

The Ausarians are divided into several tribes, among which are mentioned the Shamsia, or adorers of the Sun: the Kelbia, or worshippers of the Dog, and the Kadmousia, who pay particular homage to the sexual characteristic in women.

M. Niebuhr, who had the same circumstances related to him, could not suppose it possible, because says he, it seems astonishing that mankind should *so far* degrade themselves: but this mode of reasoning is contradicted by the history of all nations: which shews that the human mind is capable of the most extravagant excesses, as well as the most palpable absurdities.

Historians remark, that, notwithstanding the vicinity of Antioch, Christianity penetrated very feebly into these countries: very few proselytes were made there, even after the reign of Julian: and from that period to the invasion of the Arabs, there was but little time for its establishment. The progress made by Christianity among these mountaineers, could only tend to pave the way for Mahometanism, a doctrine more suitable to their habits and inclinations.

About one hundred and fifty years after, Mahommed-el-Dourzi having formed a sect, the Ausarians did not approve of its principal article, the divinity of the Caliph Hakem: on this account they remain distinct from the Druzes, though they agree with them in several particulars. Some of the Ausarians believe in the Metempsychosis; others reject the immortality of the soul. In general, civil and religious anarchy is so prevalent among them, that they adopt what opinions they think proper, following the sect that best pleases them, and frequently attaching themselves to none.

Their country is divided into three principal districts, and their tribute is paid to the pacha of

* Lib. xx. chap. 30.

† In the year of the Greeks, 1202, (A. D. 891) an old man lived at *Nasar*, in the environs of Koufa, who, from his fastings, his prayers and his poverty, passed for a saint. But a magistrate, alarmed at his proceedings, seized him, and committed him to prison. In this reverse of fortune, a poor girl, who was slave to the gaoler, took pity on him, and gave him his liberty. She took the keys of the prison from under the pillow of her master, liberated the old man, and afterwards returned them to the place from whence she had taken them. From this transaction, it was reported, and generally believed, that he had been delivered by an angel. He therefore found little difficulty in establishing a new sect called, from him, *Ausarians*.

Tripoli. Their mountains are not so elevated as those of Lebanon, and are therefore more capable of cultivation. They are, however, more exposed to the Turks, and are more thinly inhabited than those of her neighbours the Maronites and the Druzes.

THE MARONITES.

Between the Ausarians to the north, and the Druzes to the south, we find an inconsiderable people known under the name of *Mawarna* or *Maronites*. Their origin and progress have been much discussed by ecclesiastical writers; but all that is known with certainty respecting them, may be thus related.

Towards the conclusion of the sixth age of the church, while the spirit of retirement from the world was novel and fervid, a hermit, named *Maroun* lived on the banks of the Orontes, who by his fasting, austerities, and solitary mode of life, attracted the respect of the neighbouring people. In the disputes which then arose between Rome and Constantinople, he exerted his interest in favour of the western Christians. His death, instead of abating the ardour of his followers, gave fresh energy to their zeal: Reports had been propagated that miracles had been wrought by his remains, in consequence of which many persons from Kinesrin, Awasem, and other places, built at Hama a chapel and a tomb, whence soon arose a convent, much celebrated in that part of Syria.

The dissentions of the two Metropolitan churches increased, and the whole empire entered warmly into the quarrel of the priests and princes. About the end of the seventh century, a monk, named John the Maronite, from his eminent talents as a preacher, obtained the reputation of being one of the most powerful supporters of the cause of the Pope. Their opponents, who supported the cause of the emperor, and were therefore called *Melkites*, or Royalists, made great progress at that time in Lebanon. To oppose them the more effectually, the Latins resolved to send thither John the Maronite: he was accordingly presented to the agent of the Pope at Antioch, who, after consecrating him bishop of Diebal, sent him to preach in that part of the world. John lost no time in rallying his partizans, and in augmenting their number; but, opposed by the intrigues, and even the attacks of the Melkites, he collected all the Latins, and settled himself with them at Lebanon. This is related by the historian of the Lower Empire in the following words: "In the eighth year of the reign of Constantine Pogonatus (A. D. 676), the Mardaites, collecting themselves together, took possession of Lebanon, which became the asylum of vagabonds, and all sorts of rabble. They grew so powerful there, as to stop the progress of the Arabs, and to compel the Caliph Moawia to request of the Greeks a truce for thirty years, obliging himself to pay a tribute of fifty horses, one hundred slaves, and ten thousand pieces of gold *."

The name of Mardaites, used by this author, is derived from a Syriac word, signifying rebel, and is opposed to *Melkites*, or Royalists. Before Constantine Pogonatus, the mountains became the refuge of malcontents, or rebels, who fled from the bigotry of the emperors and their governors. It was probably, from a similarity in their opinions, that John and his disciples took refuge there; and, from the ascendancy they acquired, or already possessed, the whole nation took the name of Maronites. John, however, established order and military discipline among the mountaineers, and provided them with arms and leaders. They employed themselves in combating the common enemies of the empire, and their little state soon became masters of almost all the mountains as far as Jerusalem. The schism which, at this juncture, took place among the Mahometans, facilitated their conquest. Moawia rebelling against Ali at Damascus, Caliph Koufa, to avoid engaging in two wars at once, made a disadvantageous peace with the Greeks in 678. Seven years after, Abd-el Malek renewed it with Justinian II, on condition that the emperor should free him from the Maronites. To this proposal Justinian consented, but was base enough to get their chief assassinated by an ambassador. Soon after another persecution menaced the Maronites with destruction; for the same Justinian sent troops against them, who destroyed the monastery of Hama, and massacred five hundred monks: after which they extended the war into Kesraouan; but, happily, Justinian was deposed, when on the point of causing a general massacre in Constantinople: and the Maronites,

* Cedrenus.

authorized by his successor, attacked Maurice, and slew the greater part of his army, in an engagement in which he himself perished.

From this period we lose sight of them till the invasion of the Crusaders, with whom they were sometimes in alliance, and sometimes at variance. During this interval of more than three centuries, they were deprived of part of their possessions, and reduced to their present state, paying tribute whenever the Arabian or Turkman governors were able to compel them. This was the case with the Caliph of Egypt, Hakem-Bam-Ellah, who in 1014, ceded their territory to a Turkman, Prince of Aleppo. About the year 1215, the Maronites effected a re-union with Rome. William of Tyre, who relates this circumstance, says, they had forty thousand men able to bear arms. In concert with the Druzes, and their emir, the celebrated Faker-el-din, they made continual encroachments on the Ottomans; but Amarath the Third, sending against them Ibrahim, Pacha of Cairo, that general reduced them to obedience, in 1588, and subjected them to the annual tribute*.

In religious matters, the Maronites are dependent on Rome. They acknowledge the supremacy of the Pope, but their clergy elect a head, with the title of patriarch of Antioch. Their priests marry, but their wives must be maidens; and they are not permitted to marry a second time. They celebrate mass in Syriac. The Gospel is read aloud in Arabic. Their priests have no stated revenues, but subsist on the produce of their masses, the generosity of their hearers, and the labour of their hands. Some of them exercise trades, others cultivate the soil, and all are industriously employed for the support of their families, and the edification of their flock. Their poverty is rewarded by the respect they receive, and their vanity is incessantly flattered: whoever approaches them is anxious to kiss their hands, which they readily present. Each village has its chapel, and its priest; and each chapel has its bell: a thing unheard of in any other part of Turkey. The Maronites are vain of this privilege, and to preserve it pure, they will not permit a Mahometan to live among them. They also assume to themselves the privilege of wearing the green turban, which, except in this territory, would cost a Christian his life†.

In the country of the Maronites there are about two hundred convents for men and women. These religious are of the order of Saint Anthony. The dress of the monks consists of brown coarse woollen stuff, resembling that of the capuchin friars in Europe: They never eat flesh, but in other respects their food is the same as that of the peasants: they fast frequently, and make long prayers at stated hours in the night, as well as the day. The court of Rome, in affiliating the Maronites, has granted them an Hospitium at

* Since that period, the Pachas have frequently attempted to introduce their garrisons into the mountains of the Maronites; but, being constantly repulsed, they have been obliged to abide by their treaties. The subjection of the Maronites therefore only consists in the payment of a tribute to the Pacha of Tripoli, of whom they hold their country. This impost is principally levied on the mulberry trees and vineyards, which are almost the sole objects of culture

The form of government is founded merely on usages and customs. Thus the government preserves itself in a natural equilibrium; for, customs supplying the place of laws, the Maronites are, to this day, equally strangers to the oppression of despotism, and the disorders of anarchy. The nation may be said to be divided into two classes; the common people, and the shaiks; the latter must be understood to be the most eminent of the inhabitants, who, from the antiquity of their families, and the opulence of their fortunes, are superior to the common class. They are all dispersed in the mountains, in villages, hamlets, and detached houses. The whole nation consists of cultivators: every man manages his little domain. Even the shaiks live in the same manner, but they are distinguished from the rest by a pelisse, a horse, and some additional advantages in board and lodging. They all live frugally, and have but few enjoyments. Their wants are also few, for they are unacquainted with the ideas of luxury. The nation, indeed is poor, but no one wants necessaries. Property is held as sacred among them as in Europe, nor are robberies and extortions so frequent among them as among the Turks. Travellers may pass with safety, either by night or day; and the stranger is received with hospitality. They have, however, retained the Arab custom of retaliation, and the nearest relation of a murdered person engages to avenge him. Every man, whether shaik or peasant, walks armed with a musquet and poniards; hence they are not novices in the use of arms, when required to be employed against the Turks. The number of men capable of bearing arms, amounts to thirty-five thousand.

† Italy has not a greater plenty of bishops than this little corner of Syria; and they still retain the simplicity of the primitive ages; they are often seen on the roads, mounted on a mule, and followed by a single Sacristan. Their usual annual revenue does not exceed sixty-three pounds, which, in this plentiful country, enables them to live very comfortably. They are chosen from the class of monks, but the priests, in general, know very little more than the catechism and the bible.

Rome,

Rome, to which they send many of their youth, to receive a gratuitous education.

THE DRUZES.

The Druzes, of whom frequent mention has been made about the end of the sixteenth century, are an inconsiderable people, whose mode of life, language, and customs bear a striking resemblance to the Maronites. They practise neither circumcision, nor prayers, nor fasting; they observe neither festivals nor prohibitions. They drink wine, eat pork, and permit marriage between brothers and sisters, though not between fathers and children. From hence it may be concluded that the Druzes have no religion; one class of them must, however, be excepted, whose religious customs are very singular. Those who compose it, assume the name of *Okkals*, which means spiritualists: they have various degrees of initiation, the highest orders of which require cellibacy: these wear a white turban, as a symbol of their purity; and so vain are they of this emblem, that they even suppose themselves sullied by barely touching a profane person. To eat out of their plate, or drink out of their cup, occasions the immediate demolition of both the offending articles.

They have one or two books, which they carefully conceal; but chance has betrayed their secrecy: these volumes contain only a mystic jargon, which seems to be principally valuable from its obscurity. Hakem Bamr-ellah is there spoken of, by whom they mean God, incarnated in the person of the Caliph: it also treats of another life, and of future rewards and punishments, where the *Okkals* shall be most distinguished. Many degrees of perfection are mentioned, to which they arrive by successive trials. In other respects these sectaries have abundance of insolence and superstition*.

The Druzes, as well as the Maronites, consist of two classes; the common people, and those of eminence and property, distinguished by the title of Shaiks, and Emirs, or descendants of Princes. The most considerable part are cultivators, either as farmers or proprietors: every man manages his inheritance, improving his mulberry trees and vineyards, and, in some districts, superintending his tobacco, cotton, and grain.

The chief, called *Hakem*, or governor, is a sort of king, or general, uniting, in his own person, the civil and military powers. His authority sometimes devolves from father to son, sometimes from one brother to another; and sometimes the succession is determined rather by force, than by the operation of certain laws. Females are totally incapable of this dignity. Among the Druzes, when the male line of any family becomes extinct, the government devolves to him who possesses the greatest number of suffrages and resources. But the approbation of the Turks must be first obtained, of whom he becomes the vassal and tributary. The office of governor is to watch over the affairs of state, and to prevent the Emirs, Shaiks, and villages from engaging in war against each other: and, in case of disobedience, he may employ force. Being at the head of the civil power, he names the Cadiz, always reserving to himself the power of life and death. He collects the tribute, of which he pays to the Pacha a stated sum. This tribute varies, according to the exigences of the state. Every thing, however, depends upon circumstances: if the governor be a man of ability, he is absolute; if weak, a mere cypher. This is occasioned from there being no fixed laws; a defect common to all Asia, and the radical cause of all the disorders in the government of the Asiatic nations†.

By the last estimates it appears, that the number

* The rest of the Druzes, who are not thus spiritualized, are perfectly indifferent about religious matters. The Christians, who live in their country, pretend that many of them believe in the Metempsychosis; that others pay their adorations to the sun, moon, and stars. When they are among the Turks, they affect the exterior of Mahometans, attend the mosques, and perform their ablutions and prayers: among the Maronites, they accompany them to church, and, imitating them, make use of holy water. Many of them, at the request of Missionaries, suffer themselves to be baptized; and, when importuned by the Turks, receive circumcision, and conclude by dying, partly as Christians and partly as Mahometans.

† Neither the chief, nor the respective Emirs maintain troops; they only retain persons attached to the domestic service of their houses, and a few black slaves. When a nation declares war, every man able to bear arms is called upon to march; he takes with him a small bag of flour, a musquet, some bullets, and some gun-powder, and repairs to the rendezvous appointed by the governor. If it be a civil war, the servants, the farmers, and their friends, arm for their patron, and repair to his standard.

Troops

ber of men able to bear arms was forty thousand. It may therefore be reasonably asked, Whence arises such a portion of inhabitants, within so small a space?—No other cause is apparent, but that ray of liberty which glimmers in this country. Unlike the Turks, every man enjoys, in perfect security, his life and property. The peasant is not richer than in other countries, but he is free: "He fears not that the Aga, the Kaimmakam, or the Pacha should send their soldiers to pillage his house, carry off his family, or give him the bastinado." Such oppressions are never exercised among these mountains*.

The Druzes have all the prejudices of the Bedouins respecting birth; and, like them, pay proportionable respect to the antiquity of families. But their rank does not exempt them from paying tribute, in proportion to their revenues. Every man, after paying his miri, and his rent, is master of his property. By a particular privilege, the Druzes and Maronites pay no fine for their succession; nor does the Emir, like the Sultan, arrogate to himself original and universal property. Fathers have, however, as in the Roman law, the privilege of preferring such of their children as they think proper.

The Druzes seldom make alliances out of their own families; they prefer even an indigent relation to a rich stranger. They also observe, to a certain degree, the custom of the Hebrews, which directed that a brother should marry his brother's widow. In short, the Druzes have a sort of republican spirit, which gives them more energy than any other subjects of the Turkish government, and an indifference about religion, forming a striking contrast with the zeal of the Mahometans and Christians. In other respects, their manners and customs are similar to those of the other Orientals.

They may marry wives, and repudiate them at

* Troops of this kind, it may reasonably be supposed, have little resemblance to our European soldiers; they have neither uniforms, nor discipline, nor order. They are a mob of peasants, with short coats, naked legs, and musquets in their hands; but differing from the Turks and Mamelukes, as they are all on foot; the Shaiks and Emirs only having horses, which are but ill calculated for the rugged nature of the country: war can therefore only be a war of posts. The Druzes never venture to engage in the plain; well knowing that they should be unable to stand the shock of cavalry, having no bayonets to their musquets. Their dexterity consists in climbing rocks, and creeping among the bushes, and blocks of stone, from whence they fire successfully; for, by the practice of hunting, and military sports, they have acquired the habit of hitting a mark with precision. They are accustomed to surprises by night, ambuscades, and those *coups de main*, which require to attack suddenly, and come to close engagement with the enemy. In the campaign of 1784, they passed three months in the open air, without tents, or any other covering than a sheep-skin. Their provisions consisted, as before, of small loaves baked on the ashes, cheese, raw onions, olives, fruits, and a little wine. The table of the chiefs was nearly as frugal. They are totally ignorant of the science of fortification, the management of artillery, or encampments, nor any thing which constitutes the art of war.

* The Druzes delight in the practice of hospitality: whoever presents himself at their door, as a suppliant or passenger, may depend upon being entertained with food and lodging, in the most generous and unaffected manner. I have often seen a poor peasant bestow the last morsel of bread he had in the house to a hungry traveller; and when I have accused them of want of prudence, their answer was usually to this effect—"God is liberal and great, and we are brethren. As there are no inns in this country, any more than in the rest of Turkey; when they have once contracted with their guest, the engagement of *bread and salt*, nothing can induce them to violate it. Various instances of this are related which do honour to their character.

The following anecdote is extracted from an Arabian manuscript. "In the time of the Caliphs, when Abdallah, the *shedder of blood*, had murdered every descendant of Ommiah, within his reach, one of that family, named Ibrahim, the son of Soliman, had the good fortune to escape, and reached Koufa in disguise. Not knowing any person in whom he could confide, he sat down under the portico of a large house. Soon after, the master arriving, followed by several servants, alighted from his horse, entered, and, seeing the stranger, asked him who he was?—*I am an unfortunate man*, replies Ibrahim, *and request from thee an asylum.—God protect thee*, said the rich man; *enter, and remain in peace.* Ibrahim lived several months in this house, without being interrogated by his host. But, astonished to see him daily go out on horseback, and return at a particular hour, he one day ventured to enquire the reason—*I have been informed*, replied the rich man, *that a person named Ibrahim, the son of Soliman, is concealed in this town; he has slain my father, and I am searching for him to retaliate.—Then I knew*, said Ibrahim, *that God had purposely conducted me to that place:* I adored his decree, and, resigning myself to death, I answered—*God has determined to avenge thee, offended man: thy victim is at thy feet.* The rich man, in astonishment, replied—*O! stranger, I perceive that thy misfortunes have made thee weary of life; thou seekest to lose it, but my hand cannot commit such a crime—I do not deprive thee*, said Ibrahim; *thy father was such a one* (naming him) we met in such a place, and the affair happened in such a manner. A violent trembling instantly seized the rich man; his teeth chattered, his eyes alternately sparkled with fury, and overflowed with tears. In this agitation he continued a long time: at length, turning to Ibrahim—*To-morrow*, said he, *destiny shall join thee to my father, and God will have retaliated. But as for me, how can I violate the sacred laws of hospitality? Wretched stranger, fly from my presence—There, take these hundred sequins: Begone, quickly, and let me never behold thee more!*"

pleasure

pleasure; but such a custom is seldom practised, except by Emirs, and men of eminence. Occupied with thir rural labours, they experience no artificial wants, nor those inordinate passions which result from the idleness and the luxury of towns and cities. The veil, worn by their women, is a preservative against the birth of criminal desires, which occasion many evils in society. No man is acquainted with the face of any other woman than his wife, his mother, his sister, and sister-in-law. Every one confines himself to the bosom of his own family, and rambles abroad but little. The women, not even excepting those of the shaiks, make the bread, roast the coffee, wash the linen, cook the provisions, and perform all the other domestic offices. The men cultivate the lands, and form convenient canals for watering them. In the evening they sometimes assemble in the area or house of the chief of the village. There, seated in a circle, with legs crossed, and blowing each a consequential pipe; while, with their poniards at their belts, they recapitulate their various labours, the product of their harvests, peace or war, the conduct of the Emir, or the amount of taxes: they recount past transactions, discuss the present topics, and form conjectures on the future. Their children, wearied with play, attend to the curious debates, and a stranger is surprised to hear them. Here it is generally mentioned how many musquets there were in such a particular camp, and who had the best mare.

Such is their education: they are not taught to read the Psalms, as among the Maronites, nor the Koran, like the Mahometans; but if their minds are not enriched with useful information, they are not debased by injurious ideas. This advantage, however, results from it, that, their understandings being nearly on a level, the inequality of conditions is hardly perceptible: we do not discover, among the Druzes, that immense distance, which in many other societies degrades the inferior, without augmenting the advantage of the great. All the Druzes, whether they are shaiks or peasants, treat each other with respectful familiarity, equally remote from rudeness or servility. The grand Emir, himself, associates with the rest; appearing as a respectable country gentleman, who does not hesitate to admit the meanest farmer to his table. In a word, their manners are those of ancient times; and their rustic life only points out the origin of every nation, and that they are, at present, only in the infancy of the social state.

THE MOTOUALIS.

In the deep valley of the country of the Druzes, which separates their mountains from those of Damascus, we find another small nation, known in Syria by the name of Motoualis. Like the Persians, they are of the sect of Ali; while all the Turks follow that of Omar or Moawia. The sectaries of Omar, who consider themselves purely orthodox, assume the title of *Somnites*. The word *Motouali* has the same meaning in the dialect of Syria. The followers of Ali, displeased with this name, substitute that of *Adlia*, which signifies asserters of *Justice*, a denomination which they have assumed in consequence of a doctrinal point advanced by them in opposition to the Somnite faith. A small Arabic Treatise, entitled THEOLOGICAL FRAGMENTS, &c. has the following passage*.

To this doctrine, which opposes the system of the Somnites, the Motoualis add certain ceremonies, which heighten their aversion: They curse Omer and Moawia as rebels, and consider Ali and Hosain as canonized saints. They commence the ablutions at the elbow, instead of the end of the finger, as practised by the Turks; and conceive themselves defiled by the touch of a stranger. Contrary to the general practice of the east, they will neither eat nor drink out of a vessel which has been used for either of those purposes, by a person who was not of their sect, nor will they condescend to sit with him at the same table.

These singular doctrines, by separating the

* "Those sectaries who teach that God acts only on principles of justice, conformable to human reason, are called Adlia, or Justicliarians. God cannot, say they, commend an impracticable worship, nor order impossible actions, nor enjoin men to perform what is beyond their ability; but whenever he requires obedience, will bestow the power to obey. He removes the cause of evil, he allows us to reason, and imposes only what is easy, not what is difficult: he makes no man responsible for the actions of another, nor punishes him for that in which he has no part; he imputes not as a crime what himself has created in man; nor does he require him to avoid what destiny has decreed. This would be injustice and tyranny, of which God is incapable, from the perfection of the divine nature."

Motoualis from their neighbours have caused them to become a distinct society. They are said indeed, to have long existed as a nation in this country, but they have never been mentioned by any European writer till the present century. La Roque, who visited their country about a hundred years ago, gave them the name of Amedians: but in later times, their wars, robberies, and various changes of fortune, have brought them into consequence in Syria. Till about the middle of this century, they only inhabited Balbec, their capital, a few places in the valley, and Anti-Lebanon, which appears to have been their original country. After 1750, they established themselves among the heights of Beck, and some of them got footing in Lebanon, where they procured lands from the Maronites almost as far as Besharrai. They even became so offensive by their ravages, as to induce the Emir Yousef to attack and expel them. But, on the other side, they advanced along the river, to the neighbourhood of Sour. In this situation, Shaik Dasher took an opportunity, in 1760, to attach them to his party. The Pachas of Saide and Damascus claimed tributes, which they had neglected paying, and complained of several outrages and robberies committed on their subjects by the Motoualis. They were desirous of chastising them; but Daher interposed, became security for the tribute, and, promising to prevent any depredations, procured allies who were able to arm ten thousand horsemen. Soon after they took possession of Sour, and made that village their principal sea-port. In 1771, they assisted Ali Bey and Daher against the Turks.

But Emir Yousef having, in their absence, armed the Druzes ravaged their country. He was besieging the castle of Djezik, when the Motoualis became informed of the invasion. From the accounts of the barbarities committed by the Druzes, an advanced corps, of only five hundred men, were so extremely enraged, that they instantly rushed forward against the enemy, resolving to perish, or be revenged. But the surprize and confusion they occasioned, and the misunderstanding that had ensued between the two factions of Mansour and Yousef, were so favourable to this desperate attack, that the whole army of twenty thousand men was completely overthrown*.

Such are the distinct tribes in Syria: the other inhabitants, who are considerably the most numerous, are composed of Turks, Greeks, and Arabs. It now remains to give some account of the divisions of the country under the Turkish administration, accompanied with general reflections on its forces, revenues, and form of government.

SECTION VI.

Of the Distribution of Syria into PACHALICS, *under the* TURKISH GOVERNMENT.

WHEN Sultan Selim had taken Syria from the Mamelukes, he subjected that province, like the rest of the empire, to the government of Viceroys, or Pachas, invested with unlimited power. To secure his authority more effectually, he divided the country into five governments or Pachalics, as it now remains. These Pachalics are denominated as follows:

* In the following year, the affairs of Daher, taking a favourable turn, the Motoualis began to look cool upon him, and finally abandoned him in the catastrophe which deprived him of life: but they have suffered severely for their imprudence, under the administration of the Pacha who succeeded him. Since the year 1771 Djezzar, master of Acre and Saide has indefatigably laboured to destroy them. His persecution, in 1784, obliged them to be reconciled with the Druzes, and to form an alliance with the Emir Yousef. Though reduced to seven hundred armed men, they achieved greater things in that campaign than fifteen or twenty thousand Druzes and Maronites assembled at Dair-el-Kaman. They alone took the strong fortress of Mar-Djebaa, and slew fifty or sixty Arnauts*, who defended it. But the animosities which prevailed among the chiefs of the Druzes, having rendered all their operations abortive, the Pacha has taken possession of the whole valley, and even of the city of Balbec itself. At this period, no more than five hundred families of the Motoualis remained, who took refuge in Anti-Lebanon, and the Lebanon of the Maronites; and, as they are now driven from their native soil, it is supposed they will shortly be annihilated, and even their name become extinct.

* *The name given by the Turks to the Macedonian and Epirot soldiers.*

1. *Aleppo*, 2. *Tripoly*, 3. *Saide*, lately removed to Acre—4. *Damascus*, and 5. *Palestine*, the seat of which is sometimes at Gaza, and sometimes at Jerusalem. Since the time of Selim, the limits of the Pachalics have frequently varied, but their general extent has continued nearly the same. I shall now proceed to give a more minute detail of the most interesting particulars of their present state, especially with regard to the revenues, productions, forces, and the most remarkable places.

THE PACHALIC OF ALEPPO.

This Pachalic comprehends the whole country, extending from the Euphrates to the Mediterranean. This space consists principally of two plains; that of Antioch to the west, and that of Aleppo to the east: the north and the sea-coast are occupied by lofty mountains, known to the ancients by the names of Amanus and of Rhosus. The soil of the principal part of this government is fat and loamy: the lofty plants, which shoot up after the winter rains, seem to indicate great fertility, but its actual fruitfulness is not very considerable. The principal part of the land lies waste; hardly any appearance of cultivation appearing in the environs of the towns and villages. Its chief produce is wheat, barley, and cotton, of which no inconsiderable quantity may be observed, especially in the flat country: on the mountains they rather choose to cultivate the vine, mulberry, olive, and fig-trees. Tobacco is produced on the sides of the hills towards the sea-coast, and pistachios are cultivated in the territory of Aleppo. The pasturage hardly requires any mention to be made of it, as it is abandoned to the wandering Hordes of the Turkmen and Curds*.

Custom has stipulated that the commission of the Pacha shall not exceed the period of three months; but it is frequently extended to six, and even to twelve months. His office is to enforce obedience in his province, and provide for the security of the country against enemies; to accomplish this, he maintains five or six hundred horse, and about the same number of infantry. He has also the command of the Janisaries, a sort of enrolled militia.

The Janisaries, in each Pachalic, consist of a certain number of enrolled men, who must hold themselves in readiness to march whenever they are required. There being certain privileges and exemptions granted to this corps, there is a competition to obtain admission into it. They were subject formerly to regular exercise and discipline, but that practice having been neglected for the last sixty or eighty years, not the slightest trace of their ancient good order remains. These sham soldiers are merely a crowd of artisans and peasants; as ignorant as the rest of that class, but infinitely more ungovernable. When a Pacha abuses his authority, they are the first ready to erect the standard of sedition. They deposed Abdi Pacha from Aleppo, and obliged the Porte to send another in his stead. The Turkish government, indeed, revenges itself, by ordering the most active mutineers to be strangled, but the Janisaries take the earliest opportunity to create other chiefs, and affairs return immediately to their usual course. The Pachas, finding their measures thus counteracted, have had recourse to the expedient made use of in similar cases; they have taken foreign soldiers into their service, who have neither friends nor families in the country†.

By such iniquitous proceedings, the greater part

* In most of the Pachalics, the Pacha is the Viceroy and Farmer-general of the country; but in that of Aleppo, he does not enjoy the latter office; the Porte having bestowed it on a *Mehassel*, or collector, who is accountable for what he receives. The Pacha, deprived of this lucrative branch of the administration, receives a stated allowance of eighty thousand piasters (eight thousand three hundred and thirty pounds.) A sum which has always been found inadequate to the expences; for besides being obliged to maintain the troops, and repair the highways and fortresses; he is also under the necessity of making large presents to the minister to enable him to keep possession of his place. But the Porte adds to the account, the contributions he may levy on the Curds and Turkmans, and his extortions from the villages, and certain individuals; nor do the Pachas come short of this calculation. Alidi Pacha, who governed about thirteen years ago, carried away with him, at the end of fifteen months, upwards of four millions of livres (one hundred and sixty thousand pounds) by laying under contribution every kind of trade. He did not even excuse the poor cleaners of tobacco pipes. Very lately another person has been obliged to fly for similar oppressions. The former was rewarded with the command of the army against the Russians; but if the latter has not sufficiently enriched himself, he will be strangled as an extortioner. Such things are not very uncommon in the progress of affairs in Turkey.

† Their cavalry are armed with short sabres, pistols, musquets, and lances: they wear a kind of cap, nine or ten

part of the Pachalics in the empire are impoverished, and laid waste. Thus it happened with that of Aleppo: in the ancient registers of imposts, upwards of three thousand two hundred villages were reckoned; but the traveller now hardly sees any thing but houses in ruins, cisterns rendered useless, and fields abandoned. Those who cultivated them are fled into the towns, where the population is absorbed, and where every individual is happy to conceal himself among the crowd from the rapacious hand of despotism.

The most considerable places in this Pachalic are, first, the city of Aleppo; it is the capital of the province, and the residence of the Pacha. It is situated on the vast plain, exrending from the Orontes to the Euphrates, and which towards the south, terminates in the desert. The situation of Aleppo, besides the advantage of a fertile soil, is enriched with a stream of fresh water, which never becomes dry. This rivulet rises in the mountains of Aentab, and terminates six leagues below Aleppo, in a morass abounding with wild boars and pelicans. The city is one of the most agreeable in Syria, and is supposed to be the cleanest and best built of any in Turkey. Its numerous minarets and domes present an agreeable relief to the eye, after its having been fatigued by the unvaried sameness and sterility of the plains. An artificial mountain, surrounded by a dry ditch, contains a ruinous fortress; from whence the whole city may be surveyed; and, towards the north, the snowy tops of the mountains of Bailan are descried; on the west, those which separate the Orontes from the sea; while to the south and east, the eye can discern as far as the Euphrates. In the time of Omar, this castle impeded the progress of the Arabs for several months, and was, at last, taken by treachery, but it cannot now resist the most inconsiderable assault. Its wall is in ruins, and its old towers are in a similar condition: it has not four cannon fit for service. Three hundred and fifty Janisaries, who should form the garrison, are now busy in their shops, and the aga can hardly find room in it to lodge his retinue. Many rising grounds encircle it, which, in case of a siege, would greatly facilitate the approaches of the assailants: Aleppo, therefore, cannot be considered as a place of importance in time of war; but, as a commercial city, it has a different appearance. It is the emporium of Armenia and the Diarbekar: it sends caravans to Bagdad, and into Persia; and communicates with the Persian Gulph and India, by Basra; with Egypt and Mecca, by Damascus; and with Europe by Alexandretta and Latakia. The French have a consul at Aleppo; the English and the Venetians two; and the merchants of Leghorn and Holland one.

Aleppo is equal in extent to any city in Turkey, except Constantinople and Cairo, and perhaps Smyrna. The number of inhabitants is estimated at two hundred thousand; and the people in general are esteemed the most civilized of any in Turkey. The European merchants no where enjoy so much liberty, or are treated with so much civility and respect*.

Next

ten inches high, without any projecting rim. Their saddles are made in the English manner, of a single skin stretched upon a wooden tree. Their tattered clothes, rusty arms, and horses of different sizes, give them the appearance of banditti rather than soldiers. Most of the cavalry in Syria are Turkmans, Curds, or Caramanians; throughout the country they are formed of plunderers, who roam from place to place: they are the scourge of the country, which they lay waste; and of the peasants, whom they often pillage by open force.

The infantry are, in all respects, inferior to the cavalry. Formerly they were procured from the inhabitants of the country by forced enlistments; but, within the last fifty years, the peasants of Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco, seek in Syria that respect which is denied them in their own country. It is impossible for any troops to be less encumbered than these; for their whole accoutrements and baggage are confined to a rusty firelock, a large knife, a leathern bag, a cotton shirt, a pair of drawers, a red cap, and sometimes a pair of slippers. Their pay is about [illegible] shillings and ten pence per month, from which they are obliged to furnish themselves with arms and cloathing. They are maintained at the expence of the Pacha. Their troops are divided in the ancient Tartar manner, by colours; each colour is reckoned ten men, but they seldom consist of more than six effectives; for the *Agas* being entrusted with the pay of the soldiers, maintain as few as possible, to secure to themselves the advantage of the deficiency. The superior Agas connive at these abuses, and partake of the spoils.

* The air of Aleppo, though dry and piercing, is found salutary to those who are troubled with asthmatic complaints. The inhabitants, however, are subject to an endemial disorder, called the ringworm or pimple of Aleppo; it is, at first, an inflammatory pimple, and at length becomes an ulcer; its usual duration is about a year: it generally fixes on the face, and leaves a scar with which a great number of the inhabitants are disfigured. It is said that every

Next to Aleppo, Antioch claims our attention; it is called Antakia by the Arabs. This city, anciently renowned for the luxury of its inhabitants, is now a ruinous town, the houses of which are composed of mud and straw, and its narrow dirty streets, exhibit every appearance of wretchedness and misery. It is situated on the southern bank of the Orontes, and is covered to the south by a mountain, on the slope of which is a wall, built by the Crusaders.

Antioch was better calculated than Aleppo for the emporium of the Europeans: by clearing the mouth of the Orontes, which is six leagues lower down, boats might have been towed, though they could not have *sailed* up that river, the current being too rapid. Its breadth at Antioch is about forty paces. We no longer hear of the Grove of Daphne, or of the voluptuous scenes of which it was the theatre. Though the soil of Antioch is excellent, the plain is uncultivated, and abandoned to the Turkmans; but the hills on the side of the Orontes abound in plantations of figs, olives, vines, and mulberry-trees. The Macedonian king, Seleucus Nicator, who founded Antioch, also built a large city, at the mouth of the Orontes, which bore his name; but not a single habitation of it at present remains. Nothing is to be seen but heaps of rubbish. In the sea, however, may be perceived the traces of two piers, which are indications of an ancient port, now choaked up.

The Gulph, towards the north-east, is remarkable for nothing but the town of Alexandretta, or Skandaroon, of which it bears the name. This town, which is situated on the sea-shore, is no more than a village without walls, in which the tombs are more numerous than the houses, and which owes its existence chiefly to the road which it commands. This is the only road in Syria, where vessels anchor on a solid bottom; but, in other respects, it has many inconveniences. First, it is exposed, during winter, to a wind, peculiar to this place, which, rushing from the snowy summits of the mountains, frequently forces the ships to drag their anchors several leagues. Secondly, when the snow begins to cover the mountains which environ the gulph, tempestuous winds arise, which sometimes prevent vessels from entering for two or three months together. Thirdly, the road from Alexandretta to Aleppo, by the plain, is infested by Curd robbers, who conceal themselves among the rocks*.

A few years ago, the merchants of Aleppo, disgusted with the innumerable inconveniences of Alexandretta, wished to abandon that port, and carry the trade to Latakia. They proposed to the Pacha of Tripoli to repair the harbour at their own expence, on his granting them an exemption from all duties for ten years. To induce him to comply with this request they again talked much of the advantage, which would, *in time*, result to the whole country. "But, what signifies to me what may happen *in time?* replied the Pacha; why should I deprive myself of present advantages, which are *certain*, for future benefits I cannot hope to partake? The European factors were therefore obliged to remain at Skandaroon. The only curiosity, with which they can amuse strangers, consists in six or seven marble monuments, sent from England; on which you read—*Here lies such a one, taken*

every stranger, who resides there three months, is afflicted with it: experience has taught mankind that the best mode of treating it is to apply no remedy.

Much has been said of the pigeons of Aleppo, which serve as couriers at Alexandretta and Bagdad. They have been little noticed for the last thirty or forty years, because the Curd robbers were assiduously employed in destroying them. The manner of sending advice by these pigeons was; to take pairs, which had young ones, and convey them on horseback to the place from whence they wished them to return, giving them an opportunity to take a full view. When any important intelligence was received, the correspondent tied a billet to the pigeon's foot, and let it loose. The bird, impatient to see its young, flew rapidly away, and arrived at Aleppo in ten hours from Alexandretta, and in two days from Bagdad. They had no difficulty in finding their way back, as Aleppo may be perceived at an immense distance. This pigeon has nothing peculiar in its form, except its nostrils, which are rough and swelled instead of being smooth and even.

* Another reason, still more forcible, presents itself; the air of Alexandretta is unwholesome in the extreme. It is said to carry off one third of the crews of the vessels which remain there during the summer: it is not, indeed, thought extraordinary, for ships to lose all their men in the course of two months. The season for this epidemic disorder is usually from May to the end of September: it is a malignant intermitting fever, accompanied with obstructions of the liver, which terminates in a dropsy. The cities of Tripoli, Acre, and Larneca in Cyprus, are subject to the same, though in a less violent degree: the cause of this contagion is to be ascribed to the adjoining morasses, stagnant waters, and consequent vapours and mephitic exhalations.

off in the flower of his age, by the fatal effects of a contagious air *.

The village of Martawan, on the road from Alexandretta to Aleppo, is celebrated among the Turks and Europeans, for the extraordinary practice of the inhabitants, who let out their wives and daughters for a trifling sum. This prostitution, much abhorred by the Arabs, is supposed to have originated in some religious custom, which may be sought for in the ancient worship of the goddess Venus. The Franks pretend that the women are pretty; but it is probable that long abstinence at sea has rendered them additionally fascinating to those lately landed: their exterior certainly announces, to an impartial spectator, nothing but disgusting misery and wretchedness.

To the north-east of Aleppo is the town of Mambedj; anciently so celebrated under the names of Bambyce, and Heriapolis. No traces remain of the temple of that goddess, with whose worship we are made acquainted by Lucian. The only remarkable monument is a subterraneous canal. All this country was formerly full of aqueducts: the Assyrians, Medes, and Persians thought it a religious duty to convey the water to the desert, in order to multiply, according to the doctrine of Zoroaster, the principles of life and of abundance: at every step we meet with astonishing proofs of ancient population. Along the road from Aleppo to Hama, we behold the ruins of ancient villages, cisterns fallen in, and the remains of fortresses and temples. A quantity of oval and round hillocks were scattered at regular intervals of nearly a league from each other, covered with the ruins of citadels, and were probably sacred places, dedicated to the adoration of some deity; from the well-known practice of the ancients worshipping "on high places."

At present, instead of the high cultivation which might naturally have been expected, we meet with only waste and desolated lands: the soil, however, is of a good quality, and the small quantity it produces of grain, cotton, and sesanum is very excellent; but the frontiers of the desert are wholly destitute of springs and running water. That of the wells is brackish; and the winter rains, on which the inhabitants principally depend, sometimes fail. For this reason, nothing can be conceived more melancholy than these parched and dusty plains, without trees or verdure; or more miserable than the appearance of the straw and earthen huts which compose their villages; nor can more extreme distress be imagined than that of the peasants, exposed to the cruel oppression of the Turks, and the daring robberies of the Bedouin Arabs.

THE PACHALIC OF TRIPOLI.

This Pachalic comprehends the country, stretching along the Mediterranean, from Latakia to the Narh-el-Kelb, and is bounded on the west by that torrent, and the chain of mountains overlooking the Orontes. The greater part of this country is hilly; though the sea-coast, between Tripoli and Latakia is level. The rivulets, with which it is watered, greatly promote its fertility; but the plain is notwithstanding less cultivated than the mountains, without even excepting Lebanon, with its numerous rocks and pine-trees. Its principal productions are wheat, barley, and cotton. In Latakia, tobacco and olives are chiefly attended to; and in Lebanon, and the Kesraouan, white mulberries trees and vineyards.

This Pachalic contains several tribes and religions. From Lebanon to Latakia, the mountains are inhabited by the Ausarians; Lebanon, and Kesraouan by the Maronites; and the sea-coast and cities, by Greeks, Latins, and the descendants of the Arabs.

The Pacha of Tripoli has all the privileges of his place: the military department, and the finances are under his controul. He also farms the government from the Porte, on an annual lease, at the rent of thirty-nine thousand pounds. He is also obliged to supply the caravan of Mecca with corn, the expences of which are also estimated at seven hundred and fifty purses more. He must likewise conduct this convoy into the Desert, to meet the pilgrims: to indemnify him for these expences he receives the Miri, the customs, and several other emoluments; besides

* The sight of these is additionally distressing, from the languid air, livid eyes, yellow complexion, and dropsical bellies of those who shew them; as it seems extremely probable that they cannot long escape a similar fate. But they have some resource in the village of Bailen, three leagues from Alexandretta, the pure air and excellent waters of which are found very salubrious.

many annual extortions and exactions. He maintains five hundred cavalry, not in a better style than those of Aleppo, and a few Mograbian infantry.

The Pacha of Tripoli has ever been desirous of personally governing the country of the Ausarians, and the Maronites; but these people having always forcibly opposed the entrance of the Turks into their mountains, the collection of the tribute was intrusted to under farmers, approved of by the inhabitants. Their office is not limited to the year, like that of the Pacha, but is disposed of by auction, which creates a competition among wealthy persons.

The farm of the Ausarians is now divided among three chiefs; that of the Maronites is contracted for by the Emir Yousef, who pays fifteen hundred and sixty pounds for it. Among the places in this Pachalic, we shall first mention Tripoli, the residence of the Pacha. It is situated on the river Kadisha, not far from its mouth, and exactly at the foot of Mount Lebanon. It is separated from the sea by a small triangular plain, half a league in breadth, near a village, called *La Marine*, by the Franks. There is no harbour, but a simple road, extending from the shore to the shoals called, *The Rabbit and Pigeon Islands**. In the time of the Crusades, this road was defended by towers, seven of which remain, serving merely as a place of resort for birds of prey†.

The commerce of Tripoli is in the hands of the French: they have a consul here, and three commercial houses.

The town of Latakia, founded by Seleucus Nicator, is situated on the southern side of a small peninsula. Its port is a sort of bason, environed by a mole, the entrance of which is very narrow: it might have contained about twenty-five vessels, but the Turks have suffered it to be so far choaked up as to be hardly capable of admitting four. Ships of four hundred tons cannot ride here; and many are stranded in the entrance. Still, however, Latakia has considerable commerce, particularly in tobacco, of which not less than twenty cargoes are anually sent to Diametta. In the time of Strabo, instead of tobacco, the exports consisted of its celebrated wines, the produce of the hill sides. At that time, Egypt was the market, by way of Alexandria. Neither Latakia nor Tripoli are places of strength; they have neither cannon nor soldiers. A single privateer would capture them both. Each of these places are supposed to contain four or five thousand inhabitants.

On the coast, between these towns, we observe several inhabited villages, which were formerly considerable cities: such are Djebila Merkah, and Tartousa; but we find many places which are only half destroyed, with remains of ancient habitations. Among the latter, one of the principal is the rock of Rouad, formerly a respectable city and republic, known by the name of *Aradus*. Not a wall is remaining of that multitude of houses, which, according to Strabo, had more stories than even those of Rome. The liberty enjoyed by the inhabitants was the cause of its becoming populous, and it subsisted by naval commerce, manufactures, and arts.

* Tripoli is a Greek name signifying three cities, it having been built by three colonies. from Sidon, Tyre, and Aradus who each formed settlements so near each other, that they were soon united into one.

† The environs of Tripoli are laid out in orchards, where the nopal grows spontaneously, and the white mulberry is cultivated for the silk worm; and the pomegranate, the orange, and the lemon-tree, for their beautiful fruit. But though these places delight the eye, they are unhealthy. Epidemic fevers reign here annually from July to September, like those of Skandaroon and Cyprus.

The commerce of Tripoli consists principally in different coarse silks which are used for laces. It is observed that they are daily losing their quality: this, by well-informed people, is supposed to be in consequence of the decay of the mulberry-trees, of which hardly any thing now remains but some hollow trunks. A question then naturally occurs, Why not plant new ones? An European might with propriety start such a proposition:—but here they never plant; for, should they venture to build or plant, the Pacha would say—"This man has got money;" he would send for him, and demand it of him. Should he deny that he is possessed of any, he must suffer the bastinado;—Should he then confess, the drubbing is still continued to extort a further discovery. The Tripolitans are not, however, remarkable for their patience; they are, on the contrary, considered as extremely mutinous. Their title of Janisaries, and the green turban they wear, give turbulence to their domineering spirit. About a dozen years ago, the extortions of a Pacha drove them to extremities; they expelled him, and remained eight months in a state of independence; but the Porte sent a man of deep intrigue, who, by promises, oaths, and pardons, gained, and dispersed them; and concluded by terminating the lives of eight hundred in one day, whose heads may still be seen in a cave near Kadishka.—Such is the government of the Turks!

To

To the south of Tripoli is the country of the Kesraouan, extending from Nahr-el-kelb to Tripoli. Djebail, the ancient Byblos, is the principal town in this territory, though it does not contain above six thousand inhabitants. The river Ibrahim, the ancient *Adonis*, two leagues to the southward, has the only bridge to be seen from thence to Antioch, except that of Tripoli. It consists of a single arch, fifty feet wide, and about thirty feet high: it is of a light architecture, and seems to have been a work of the Arabs.

The places most frequented by the Europeans, among the mountains, are the villages of Eden and Basharrai, where the missionaries have a house. In the winter, many of the inhabitants leave their houses under the snow, and remove to the sea-coast. On the frontiers of the Kesraouan, a mile north of Nahr-el-kelb, is the village of Antoura, where the Jesuits have established a respectable house. It is situated on the side of the hill; the limpid waters of which refresh its vineyards and mulberry trees: its distant view of the sea, and its command over the valley, also contribute to render it a most agreeable hermitage. The Jesuits endeavoured to annex it to a convent of nuns, situated at the distance of a quarter of a league; but the Greek Christians having dispossessed them, they erected one close to them, to which they gave the name of the *Visitation*.

THE PACHALIC OF SAIDE OR ACRE.

To the south of Tripoli, and on the same coast, a third Pachalic has, till now, borne the name of Saide, but may hereafter assume that of Acre, to which place the Pacha had lately transferred his residence. The extent of this government has considerably varied at different times. Before Shaik Daher it included the country of the Druzes, and the coast as far as Mount Carmel; but, after the ruin of Daher, the government resumed its ancient limits. Djezzar, who succeeded that chief in quality of Pacha for the Turks, has annexed to the Pachalic the countries of Safad, Tabaria, and Balbec. This Pacha, perceiving the advantage of the works erected by Daher at Acre, transferred his residence to that city, which is now become the capital of the province.

By these augmentations the Pachalic of Acre now includes all the country from the Nahr-el-kelb, to the south of Kaisaria. It derives the more importance from this extent, from its uniting the valuable advantages of situation and soil. The plains of Acre, &c. are justly boasted for their fertility: Kasairia possesses a forest of oaks, the only one in Syria. Safad furnishes cottons, which, from their whiteness, are as highly esteemed as those of Cyprus: the mountains of Sour produce as excellent tobacco as Latakia; and in a part of them a perfume of cloves is made, which is exclusively reserved for the use of the Sultan and his women. The country of the Druzes also abounds in wines and silks; and from the situation of the coast, and the number of its creeks, this Pachalic is become the emporium of Damascus, and all the interior parts of Syria*.

The Porte is now on good terms with Djezzar, in consequence of his former services; particularly for his having greatly contributed to the ruin of Daher†.

By sea, he has one frigate, two galliots, and a xebeck,

* The Pacha enjoys all the privileges and emoluments of his office; he is despotic governor, and farmer-general. He annually remits to the Porte the fixed sum of seven hundred and fifty purses; and he is also obliged to furnish provisions for the pilgrims of Mecca. The time of his government is limited to a year, but this is generally prolonged. His revenues are the Miri; the farms of the tributaries; the fees from successions and extortions; and the produce of the customs on exports and imports, which article alone amounted to upwards of fifty thousand pouads, when Djezzar farmed the harbours and creeks in 1784. This Pacha also, as is usually the case with the Turkish governors in Asia, cultivates land on his own account, associates in partnership with merchants and manufacturers, and lends money at interest to husbandmen and traders. The total, arising from these different emoluments is estimated at between nine and ten millions of French money (about four hundred thousand pounds.) The tribute, when once settled, never varies; but if the Pacha become rich, methods are employed to squeeze him. He is sometimes permitted to accumulate long without molestation; but when he is known to have amassed great wealth, some expedient will not fail to be contrived to bring to Constantinople his coffers or his head.

† He extirpated the family of that prince, curbed the Bedouin of Saker, humbled the Druzes, and almost annihilated the Motoualis. These successes secured him in his government for ten years. He was lately honoured with the three tails, and the title of Visir* which accompanies them: but the Porte begins to be jealous of his good for-

* *Every Pacha of three tails is stiled Visir.*

xebeck, which he has lately taken from the Maltese: thus he apparently means to put himself on his guard against the stratagems of the Divan. Several invidious attempts have been made for his destruction, but they have all proved abortive; the *cholic*, of which two or three of his enemies have suddenly died, has cooled the zeal of those who might otherwise engage more willingly in so hazardous a business. Besides, he has retained several spies in his service, in the Seraglio, or palace of the Sultan. He has just obtained the Pachalic of Damascus, which is acknowledged to be the most important in all Syria: that of Acre he has resigned to a Mameluke, named Selim, his bosom friend, who is so firmly attached to him that Djezzar may be considered as in possession of both the governments. He is said to be soliciting that of Aleppo; and should his endeavours be crowned with success, he will almost possess the whole of Syria, when the Porte will probably find in him a rebel more dangerous than Daher.

Among the most remarkable places in this Pachalic, the first that presents itself is the town of *Berytus*, pronounced Bairout by the Arabs. It is situated on a plain, which, from the foot of Lebanon, runs out into the sea, and forms a long road, receiving the river Nahr-el Salib. Proceeding westward towards the point, we reach the town of Bairout, which, till lately, belonged to the Druzes; but was taken from them by Djezzar, who made it a Turkish garrison. It still continues the emporium of the Maronites and the Druzes, where they export their cottons and silks, the principal part of which are sent to Cairo. The dialect of the inhabitants is censured as the most corrupt of any in the country, as it unites the twelve faults enumerated by the Arabian grammarians.

The port of Bairout, like all the others, is choaked up with sands and ruins. The town is surrounded by a wall of soft and sandy stone, which may be pierced by a cannon ball. Two inconveniences attend it which will ever prevent Bairout from becoming a place of strength; it is commanded by a chain of hills to the south-east, and is entirely destitute of water: the women are obliged to fetch what they want from a well at a considerable distance, and when they have got it, they find it very indifferent. By digging, in order to form reservoirs, subterraneous ruins have been discovered, from which it appears that the modern town possesses the same spot on which the former erections were made. The same observations occur with respect to Latakia, Antioch, Tripoli, Saide, and many places on the coast, which have been destroyed by earthquakes, at various periods. Without the town we find, to the west, heaps of rubbish, and some shafts of columns, which indicate that Bairout has formerly been much larger than it is at present. The surrounding plain is planted with white mulberry trees, which, unlike those of Tripoli, are young and prosperous; because, among the Druzes, there is no danger in renewing them; the silk produced here is, therefore, of the finest quality*.

The principal place in the country of the Druzes is *Dair-el-Kamar*, or the house of the Moon, which is the capital, and the residence of the Emirs. It is a large, dirty, ill-built town, situated on the back of a mountain, at the foot of which flows one of the branches of the ancient river Tamras, now the rivulet of Damour. It is inhabited by Greek Catholics and Schismatics, Maronites, and Druzes, to the number of about sixteen hundred. The palace of the prince is a large wretched house in a very ruinous state†.

In

tune; and is alarmed at his enterprizing spirit: and the Pacha begins to be apprehensive of the duplicity of the Divan; a mutual distrust consequently prevails, from whence important matters may be expected. The Pacha maintains a greater number of soldiers, and is a more respectable condition than any other of his rank; and is particularly careful to enroll none but those of his own country: these consist of nine hundred horsemen, and to these are added nine thousand Mograbian infantry.

* In summer, the air of Bairout is thought too sultry; the town, however, is supposed not to be unhealthy, though it was formerly thought so. It has ceased to be unhealthy since the Emir Fakr-el-din, planted a wood of fir-trees which are still standing, a league to the southward of the town. The monks of Mahr-Henna have made this observation respecting several convents; they assert, that since the heights have been planted with pines, the waters of the springs have been more abundant, and more salubrious*.

* *Dr. Franklin has given very satisfactory reasons for the salutary effect of trees, particularly pines: the subject has also been well treated by several English and French philosophers; among others, by the Marquis de Chastellux, in his Travels to North America, under the article Virginia.*

† The Greek Catholics, availing themselves of the per-

In the administration of this house, and the manners of the religious who occupy it, we find some singularities which may deserve attention. Their order is that of Saint Basil, who is to the Orientals what Saint Benedict is to the western Christians. They may pronounce the vows at the age of sixteen; and these vows are, as every where else, vows of poverty, obedience, devotion to the order, and chastity. The condition of the oriental monks is infinitely more severe than that of the Europeans, as appears from the following account of their domestic life. They rise at four in the morning, and retire to rest at nine in the evening, during which time they have only two meals, *viz.* at nine and five. They live wholly on meagre diet, and hardly allow themselves flesh meat on the most necessary occasions. Like the other Greeks, they have three Lents a year, and a multitude of fasts, during which they are not to eat eggs, milk, butter, nor cheese. Almost the whole year they live on lentils and beans with oil, rice and butter, curds, olives, and a very little salt fish. They have a coarse little loaf of bread, badly leavened, which is to last them two days, and is fresh made only twice a week. With this food they suppose they are less subject to maladies than the peasants, though it is well known that they have all issues in their arms, and many of them are attacked by kernias; occasioned, it is supposed, by their immoderate use of oil. Each of them lodges in a narrow cell, his whole furniture consisting of a mat, a matrass, and a blanket. They have no occasion for sheets, as they sleep with their cloaths on, which consists of a coarse cotton shirt, striped with blue, a waistcoat, a pair of drawers, and a surplice of coarse brown cloth. Contrary to the custom of the country, they wear their hair eight inches long, and, by way of hood, a cylinder of felt ten inches high, like those of the Turkish cavalry. Every one of them exercises some trade, or undertakes some useful employment in the house. Two of them manage the kitchen, four work at the printing-press, four are book-binders, and all assist at the bake-house on the days appointed for making bread. The expence of supporting forty or forty-five persons, of which the convent consists, does not exceed six hundred and twenty-five pounds; and from this must be deducted the amount of their hospitality to all passengers, which is a very considerable article: It must be admitted indeed that most of the passengers leave presents of alms, which forms a part of the revenue of the house; the other part arises from the culture of the lands. They form a considerable extent of ground: these lands were cleared out by the first monks themselves; but now they commit the culture of them to the peasants, who allow them half the produce. Formerly the religious would not indulge themselves with wine; but they have gradually relaxed from their primitive austerity: they have even begun to allow the use of tobacco and coffee, notwithstanding the remonstrances of the more aged Monks, who are cautious of granting too many indulgencies to youth *.

Next to Mar-Hanna, the convent of *Dair Mokalles*, or Saint Saviour, is the most remarkable. It is three hours journey north-east of Saide. The religious there had collected a considerable number of printed Arabic books and manuscripts; but Djezzar having practised hostilities in these districts about eight years ago, his soldiers pillaged the house, and carried away all the books.

Returning to the sea-coast, we first remark

mission granted them for that purpose, have founded twelve convents within the last seventy years. The principal of these is Mar-Hanna: it is situated opposite the village of Shonair, on a steep declivity, at the bottom of which a torrent runs in winter into the Nahr-el kelb. This convent consists of a dormitory, with two rows of cells, and maintains forty monks. It has an Arabic Printing-press, the only one which has succeeded in the Turkish empire.

* The same regulations are observed in all the twelve houses of the order. The whole number of these religious amount to about one hundred and fifty, with five convents of women which depend on them. The first superiors who established them, supposed they had performed a meritorious act; but they now repent that it has been done; because nuns are dangerous things in a Turkish country, who, as they are connected with the wealthiest merchants, get rid of their daughters for a stipulated sum, by placing them in these convents; the merchants also bestow on them considerable alms, without requiring any thing in return but their prayers to God, that he would preserve them from the rapacity of the Pachas. But neither their presents, nor the prayers of the religious, can protect them from extortion.

Not long ago, one of these merchants ventured to build a house at Damascus, which cost him upwards of five thousand pounds. The Pacha observing it, intimated to the owner, that he should be happy to see his new house, and would pay a visit for that purpose, as well as to take a dish of coffee with him. As it was, therefore, probable that the Pacha might have been so charmed with it, as not to have quitted it again, he thought it necessary, to avoid his politeness, by making him a present of seven thousand five hundred pounds.

Saide, the unworthy offspring of ancient Sidon*. This place, once the residence of the Pacha, is a mean ill-built town, and full of modern ruins. On the south side, a fort is built on an eminence, from whence a view may be taken of the sea, the city, and the country: a very few cannon would destroy the whole work, which is only a tower of a single story, already half in ruins. At the other extremity of the town, is the castle, built in the sea, eighty paces from the main land, to which it is joined by arches. To the west is a shoal, fifteen feet high above the sea, and about two hundred paces long: the shoal has a bason, enclosed by a decayed pier; this was the ancient port, but it is now almost choaked up by sand. The whole artillery does not exceed six cannon, without either carriages or gunners: the garrison hardly amounts to one hundred men.

Saide is a capital trading town, the chief emporium of Damascus, and the interior country: the French have a consul here, and five or six commercial houses. Their exports are silks, and raw and spun cottons. The number of inhabitants may be estimated at about five thousand.

Six leagues to the south of Saide, keeping along the coast, we arrive at the village of Sour; in which name we recognize that of *Tyre*, which we receive from the Latins. The name of *Tyre* recalls to the memory so many great events, and suggests so many reflections, that some minuteness will doubtless be excused in the description of a place which was anciently the theatre of an immense commerce.

Sour is situated on a peninsula, projecting from the shore into the sea, in the form of a mallet with an oval head. This head is a solid rock, covered with brown earth, forming a plain of about eight hundred paces long, by four hundred broad. The isthmus, joining this plain to the continent, is of pure sea sand. The village of Sour is situated at the junction of this isthmus with the ancient island. The point to the north is occupied by a bason, which is at present choaked up. The opening at the point, is defended by two towers, opposite to each other.

Further on in the sea, to the north-west of the point, is a ridge of rocks rising to the surface of the water. The space which separates them from the main land in front, forms a kind of road, where vessels may more safely anchor than at Saide, but they are not perfectly free from danger, as they are exposed to the north-west winds, and the bottom injures the cables. The village contains about fifty or sixty poor families, which are barely supported by the produce of their small quantity of land, and a trifling fishery. Unlike the edifices in the time of Strabo, which were three or four stories high, they now consist of wretched huts, ready to crumble to pieces. Formerly they were defenceless towards the land, but the Motoualis, who obtained this place in 1766, enclosed it with a high wall, which still subsists. The most remarkable building is a ruin at the south-end corner: it was a Christian church, built by the crusaders, but only a part of the choir is now remaining. Two beautiful columns, with shafts of granite, are observed here, of a kind unknown in Syria. Djezzar wished to ornament his mosque at Acre with them, but his engineers were unable even to move them.

The vicissitudes of time, or rather the barbarism of the Greeks and the Lower Empire, and the Mahometans, have accomplished the prediction†. Instead of that ancient commerce, so active and extensive, Sour is now a miserable village, without any other trade than the exportation of a few sacks of corn, and raw cotton; nor any merchant but a single Greek factor, who finds it difficult to procure support for his family ‡.

That part of the bay of Acre where the ships anchor

* The name still subsists in a small village half a league from Saide.

† Ezekiel, ch. 27.

‡ Nine miles to the south of Sour stands the city of Acre, anciently known under the name of Aco, and afterwards by that of Ptolemais. After the expulsion of the Crusaders, it was almost deserted; but it was again revived by the industry of Daher: and the works lately erected by Djezzar, have rendered it a very considerable town. The mosque of this Pacha is considered a master-piece of eastern taste: the covered market is equal to those of Aleppo, and its public fountain surpasses in elegance those of Damascus. The Pacha derives infinite honour from these works, as he was himself both the engineer and the architect. The port of Acre is finely situated on the coast, being sheltered from the north and north-west winds by the town itself; but as it has been greatly choaked up since the time of Fakr-el-din, Djezzar has only made it a landing-place for boats. The fortifications are unimportant: only a few rusty iron pieces of cannon so bad, that some of them burst every time of firing. Its defence on the land side is nothing more than a garden wall, without any ditch.

The

anchor with the greatest security lies to the north of mount Carmel, below Haifa: the bottom is good holding ground, but this harbour is open to the north-west wind. Mount Carmel is a flattened cone, and very rocky; it is about two thousand feet high. As we go towards the east, at about six leagues distance, we see *Nasra*, or Nazareth, so celebrated in the history of Christianity: it is a small village, a third of whose inhabitants are Mahometans; the other two thirds are Greek Catholics. The fathers of the Holy Land have an Hospitium and a church here. In Daher's time, every one was obliged to bestow a present to every wife he married; he seldom failed to marry about one a week.

Two leagues to the south-east of Nasra is Mount Tabor, from whence is beheld the finest prospect in all Syria: the summit is two [illegible] of a league in circumference. It had anciently a citadel, a few stones of which now only remain. From hence we discover, to the south, a series of vallies and mountains, which extend to Jerusalem; and to the east the valley of Jordan, and Lake Tabaria appears as if under our feet; beyond this, the eye loses itself towards the plains of Hauran: when, turning to the north, we take a cursory view of the fertile plains of Galilee.

The bank of Lake Tabaria presents nothing remarkable: the town takes its name from the lake. It has a fountain of warm mineral waters in the neighbourhood: for want of cleaning, it is filled with a black mud, which is a genuine Ethiops Mineral. Persons afflicted with rheumatic complaints, find great relief from baths of this mud. The town is little more than a heap of ruins, and hardly contains a hundred families. Seven leagues to the north of Tabaria stands the village of Safad, the seat of Daher's power. Under the government of this Shaik an Arabian college was established there, in which the Motoualis doctors instructed youth in grammar, and an allegorical interpretation of the Koran. The Jews, who supposed the Messiah will establish the seat of his empire at Safad, grew fond of this place, and assembled about sixty families in it; but the earthquake of 1759, demolished every thing, and Safad is now almost a deserted village.

Proceeding towards the north, we follow a chain of lofty mountains named Dejebal-el-Shaik, among which are the sources of the Jordan, as well as those of several rivulets which water the plain of Damascus. Before the earthquake of 1759, the country was covered with the villages and plantations of the Motoualis; but that calamity, and the war with the Turks, have occasioned general devastation. The only place of importance is the city of Balbec.

That city, so celebrated by the Greeks and Latins, under the name of *Heliopolis*, or the city of the Sun, is situated at the foot of Anti-Lebanon, on the last rising ground where the mountain terminates in the plain. As we arrive from the south, we discover the city at the distance of about a league and a half, behind a hedge of trees, over the tops of which appears a white edging of domes and Minarets. After an hour's journey we reach these trees, which produce excellent walnuts, and crossing some gardens, we arrive, by winding paths, at the entrance of the city. We there perceive a ruined wall, flanked with square towers. This wall enables us to take a view of those void spaces and heaps of ruins which appear in every Turkish city; but what greatly attracts our attention, is a large edifice on the left, which by its lofty walls, and rich columns, seems to be one of those temples, which antiquity has left for our admiration. These ruins, which are some of the most beautiful in Asia, as well as the best preserved, demand a particular description.

After having crossed the rubbish and huts, with which it is filled, we arrive at a part which appears to have been a square: there, in a front towards the west, we observe a grand ruin, consisted of two pavilions ornamented with pilastres, joined at their bottom angle by a wall one hundred and sixty feet in length. The front commands the open country, from a sort of terrace, on the edge of which we distinguish the bases of twelve columns: the principal gate is obstructed by heaps of stones. That obstacle surmounted,

The Pacha, by an abuse too common throughout the Turkish empire, has monopolized all the trade; no cotton can be sold but to him; and from him every purchase must be made. The European merchants claimed the privileges granted them by the Sultan, but in vain—Djezzar said, he was the sultan in his country, and continued his monopoly. These merchants are chiefly French; they have six houses at Acre, with a consul. An imperial agent is also lately settled there, and a resident from Russia.

we enter an hexagonal court of one hundred and eighty feet diameter. This court is strewed with broken columns, mutilated capitals, entablatures, and cornices. Around it we observe a row of edifices, displaying all the ornaments of the richest architecture. At the end of this court, is an outlet, through which we behold a more extensive range of magnificent ruins. To have a full prospect of these, we must ascend a slope, and we then arrive at the entrance of a large square court. The eye is first attracted by the end of this court, where six majestic columns render the scene astonishingly grand and picturesque. A second range of columns to the left, appear to have been part of the peristyle of a temple. But we cannot refuse particular attention to a sort of gallery which contains various chambers; seven of which may be reckoned in each of the principal wings. At length we arrive at the foot of the six columns, and then first conceive all the boldness of their elevation, and the richness of their workmanship. Their shafts are twenty-five feet eight inches in circumference, and fifty-eight feet high: the total height, including the entablature, is from seventy-one to seventy-two feet. The sight of this superb ruin, thus unaccompanied, at first strikes us with astonishment; but, on extensive examination, we discover a series of foundations of two hundred and sixty eight feet in length, and one hundred and forty-six wide. It presented to the great court a front of ten columns, with nineteen on each side. The ground on which it stood was an oblong square. The esplanade this produces, fronts the open country, towards the west by a sloping wall of about thirty feet. The descent, as you approach the city, becomes less steep. Such was the former state of this edifice; but the southern side of the grand temple was afterwards blocked up to build a smaller one, the peristyle and walls of which are still remaining. This temple, situated some feet lower than the other, presents a side of thirteen columns, by eight in front, which are also of the Corinthian order: their shafts are fifteen feet eight inches in circumference, and forty-four in height *.

When we reflect on the extraordinary magnificence of the temple of Balbec, we are astonished at the silence of the Greek and Roman authors. Mr. Wood, who has minutely examined all the ancient writers, has seen no mention of it, but in a fragment of John of Antioch, who attributes the building of these superb works to Antoninus Pius. The inscriptions which remain seem to corroborate

* The walls of the Corinthian order, now present nothing but pediments of niches, and tabernacles, of which almost all the supporters are fallen to the ground. Between these niches is a range of fluted pilasters, whose capitals support a broken entablature; but what remains of it displays a rich frize of foliage, resting on the heads of satyrs, horses, bulls, &c. Over this entablature was the ancient roof, which was fifty-seven feet wide, and one hundred and ten in length. No idea can be formed of the ornaments of this roof, but from the fragments lying on the ground. It would perhaps be thought tedious to enter more minutely into the description of this astonishing edifice. The lovers of the arts will find it accurately described in a work published in London in 1757, under the title of Ruins of Balbec. This work, written by Mr. Wood, the world owes to the attention and liberality of Mr. Dawkins, who, in 1751, visited Balbec and Palmyra.

Several changes, however, have taken place since their journey: for example, they found nine large columns standing; and, in 1784, I found but six. They reckoned twenty-nine at the lesser temple, but there now remain but twenty. The others have been overthrown by the earthquake in 1759.

Nothing can surpass the workmanship of these astonishing columns: though they are joined without any cement, there is not room for the blade of a knife between their interstices; and, after so many ages, they in general still maintain their original whiteness. But the enormous stones which compose the sloping wall are truly astonishing. To the west, the second layer is formed of stones from twenty-eight to thirty-five feet long, by about nine in height. There is still lying there a stone, hewn on three sides, which is sixty-nine feet two inches long, twelve feet ten inches broad, and thirteen feet three in thickness. By what means could the ancients move these enormous masses?—This is doubtless a problem in mechanics curious to resolve. The inhabitants of Balbec, indeed, have a very commodious manner of explaining it, by supposing these edifices to have been constructed by Genii, who obeyed the orders of king Solomon; adding, that the intention of such immense works was to conceal, in subterraneous caverns, immense treasures, which still remain there.

The belief in hidden treasures has been confirmed by discoveries which have been really made from time to time. Not more than ten years ago a small coffer was found at *Hebron*, containing a quantity of gold and silver medals; with an ancient arabic book on medicine. In the country of the Druzes, an individual also found, some time since, a jar full of gold coin, in the form of a crescent: but as the chiefs and governors claim all such discoveries, and persecute those who make them, those who really find any thing valuable endeavour carefully to conceal it. Perhaps they secretly melt the antique coins, and even bury them again in the same place where they found them, the same fears operating upon them which caused their first concealment; and which also prove that the same tyranny formerly existed in these countries.

roborate this opinion, and account for the constant use of the Corinthian order, as that order was not in general use till the third age of Rome. But we are justified in mentioning as an additional proof, the bird sculptured over the gate; for, if his crooked back, large claws, and the caduceus he bears, give him the general appearance of an eagle, the tufted feathers on his head demonstrate that he is not a Roman Eagle. Let it also be observed, that the same bird is found in the temple of Palmyra, and is there evidently an oriental eagle, consecrated to the Sun, the Divinity adored in both these temples. His worship existed at Balbec, in the most remote antiquity. Mr. Wood very rationally supposes, that the name of Balbec, which in the Syriac signifies City of Bal, or of the Sun, originated in this worship. We are ignorant of this city in remote antiquity: but it may reasonably be presumed that its situation, on the road from Tyre to Palmyra, afforded it some part of the commerce of those opulent cities. Under the Romans, in the time of Augustus, it is mentioned as a garrison town. One hundred and forty years after, Antoninus built there the present temple, instead of the ancient one, which then was probably falling into ruins; but Christianity having gained the ascendancy under Constantine, the modern temple was neglected, and afterwards became a church, a wall of which at present remains. It continued thus till the invasion of the Arabs; when, being less frequented, it fell into decay: wars succeeded, and it was converted into a place of defence; and from that time, the temple was rapidly reduced to ruin.

The state of the city is equally deplorable: the iniquitous government of the emirs of the house of Harfouche, had considerably impaired it, and the earthquake of 1759, completed its destruction. The wars of Emir Yousef, and Djezzar has occasioned it to be still more deserted and ruinous; for out of five thousand inhabitants, at which number they were estimated in 1751, little more than one thousand are now remaining; and all these are wretchedly poor, without industry or commerce, and cultivating nothing but maize, cotton, and water-melons. The soil of this part of the country is poor, and does not improve as we proceed to the north, or to the south-east towards Damascus.

THE PACHALIC OF DAMASCUS.

This Pachalic comprehends nearly the whole eastern part of Syria. It extents to the north, from Marra to Habroun in the south-east of Palestine. It is bounded to the west by the mountains of the Ausarians, those of Anti-Lebanon, and the upper part of the Jordan; then crossing that river in the country of Bisan, it includes Nablons, Jerusalem, and Habroun, and enters the desert to the east *.

The Pacha enjoys all the privileges of his post, which are superior to those of any other Pachalic; he has not only the farm of all the customs and imposts, but he has an absolute authority, and is also conductor of the sacred caravan of Mecca, under the very respectable title of *Emir Hadj*. The Mahometans deem this office so important, and entitled to such reverence, that the person of the Pacha who acquits himself in it with propriety, becomes inviolable even by the Sultan: it is no longer permitted to *shed his blood*. But the Divan can pursue its vengeance, without departing from the literal expression of the law, by being empowered to have the offenders pounded in a mortar, or smothered in a sack, of which there have been several instances.

The tribute of the Pacha to the Sultan is but forty-five purses (two thousand three hundred and forty-three pounds; but he is charged with all the expences of the Hadj, which are estimated at three hundred and twelve thousand five hundred pounds: they consist of provisions of corn, &c. and in the hire of camels for the escort, and a great number of pilgrims. Besides this, eighteen hundred purses must be paid to the Arab tribes, near the road, to secure a free passage †.

His military establishment consists of about eight hundred Janisaries, better provided for,

* In this vast extent of country, the soil and its productions are extremely various; but the plains of Hauran, and those on the banks of the Orontes, are the most fertile. The soil of the country of Damascus, and the Upper Bekaa, is gravelly and poor. On the mountains are cultivated olive, mulberry, and fruit trees, and in some places vines.

† Besides his other emoluments, the Pacha is heir of all the Pilgrims who die on the journey, which is not the least of his perquisites; for those are always found to be the richest of the pilgrims. Besides all this, he may lend money, at what interest he pleases, to merchants and farmers.

and more insolent than in any other parts of the country. These troops are not only required by way of escort for the caravan, and to restrain the Arabs, but also to enable him to collect the miri from his own subjects.

The Pachalic of Damascus, from its situation, is more exposed to the incursions of the Bedouin Arabs, than any other; yet it is remarked to be the least ravaged of any in Syria. The reason assigned is, that instead of frequently changing the Pachas, the Porte usually bestows this Pachalic for life: in the present century it was held for fifty years by a father and three brothers, who regularly succeeded each other. Asad, the last of them, held it fifteen years, during which time he performed many meritorious acts; and established such a degree of discipline among the soldiers, as to prevent the peasants from being injured by their robberies and extortions. His passion, like all those in office throughout Turkey, was to amass money, but he was regulated by a moderation unheard of in this country; for he required no more interest than six *per cent* *.

The city of Damascus is considered as one of the most agreeable in Turkey; but it is acknowledged to be deficient in point of salubrity. The inhabitants complain, and apparently with too much reason, of the coldness and hardness of the waters of the Barrada; and assert that the natives are frequently afflicted with obstructions. They add, that the too great use of fruit, particularly of Apricots, occasions there many intermittent fevers and dysenteries in summer and autumn. It is also observed that a paleness is too prevalent in the countenances of the inhabitants, which rather indicates sickness, than exhibits the genuine colour of sanity of body.

M. Niebuhr, who has given us a plan of Damascus, says it is two hundred and fifty toises, or somewhat less than a league and a half in circumference: he adds, that he supposes it to contain about eighty thousand inhabitants. The people of Damascus have an aversion to Christians, and this hatred is maintained and increased by their communication with Mecca. Damascus is the rendezvous for all the pilgrims from the north of Asia, as Cairo is for those from America. Their number annually amounts to from thirty to fifty thousand. Nothing is to be seen but strangers from all parts of Turkey, and even Persia, and every place is crowded with camels, horses, mules, and merchandize. At length this confused multitude set out upon their march, and arrive in forty days at Mecca, for the festival of the Bairam. As the caravan traverses the country of many independent Arab tribes, treaties must necessarily be made with the Bedouins, to establish a free passage, and to take them for their guides. Frequent disputes arise on this subject between the Shaiks; but the preference is usually given to the tribe of Sardia, which he encamps to the south of Damascus along the Hauran. The Pacha transmits to the Shaik a mace, a tent, and a pelisse, to convince him that he takes him as his chief conductor. From this moment the Shaik engages to furnish him with camels at a stated price, which he hires from his tribe and his allies: the Pacha is responsible for no damages, and all losses are on his own account. About two thousand camels perish yearly, which forms an advantageous article of commerce for the Arabs.

It must not, however, be imagined that devotion is the sole motive of these expences and fatigues: pecuniary interest is more particularly consulted in these expeditions. The caravan affords opportunities of engrossing every lucrative branch of commerce: almost every pilgrim converts it into a matter of speculation. On quitting their own country, they collect a quantity of merchandize, which they dispose of upon the road; and, with the ready money it produces, added to what they have brought with them, is conveyed to Mecca, where they exchange it for the goods

* In Syria and Egypt, the usual interest is from twelve to fifteen; but sometimes it is twenty or thirty *per cent*.

Let us now attend to the most remarkable places in this Pachalic. The first that presents itself is the city of Damascus, the capital and residence of the Pachas. This city is situated in a very extensive plain, open to the south and east, and shut in towards the west and north by mountains, which very much circumscribe the view; but a number of rivulets fortunately flow from these mountains, which render Damascus the best watered and most delicious province of all Syria. The Arabs speak of it with enthusiasm, and extol the verdure of its orchards, the abundance and excellence of its fruits, and the clearness of its rivers, rills, and fountains. No city contains so many canals and fountains; every house has one; and all these waters are furnished by three branches of the same river, which, after fertilizing a number of gardens for three leagues, flow into a hollow of the Desert to the south-east, where they form a pleasing spectacle called the Lake of the Meadow.

goods of Bengal, Cashmire, Tonquin, the diamonds of Golcondo, the pearls of Barhain, pepper, and a great quantity of coffee from the Yaman. Sometimes, indeed, the Arabs of the Desert pillage the stragglers, and carry off detached parties of the caravan. But in general the pilgrims arrive safe, in which case their profits are very considerable. At least, however, they are rewarded in the veneration attached to the title of Pilgrim; and by the pleasure of boasting of the wonders of Caaba, and Mount Arasat: and of magnifying the immense crowds of pilgrims, and the number of victims on the day of the Bairam; and repeating the dangers and fatigues they have undergone; the Desert without water, and the tomb of the prophet at Medina; which, however, is neither suspended by a load-stone, nor the principal object of their pilgrimage. The wonderful excite the admiration and enthusiasm of the audience, though, as the sincere pilgrims honestly confess, nothing can be more wretched than this journey. Experience has fully proved, that the greater part of the devotees of Mecca are peculiarly insolent and treacherous, seeming determined to recompense themselves for having been dupes by becoming knaves*

The Pachalic of which I am speaking affords a remarkable instance of its former greatness; I mean the remains of Palmyra, a city celebrated in the third age of Rome, for the part it took in the differences between the Parthians and the Romans. From that time history preserved the name of this great city; but it was merely the name, for till nearly the end of the last century, when some English merchants of Aleppo, tired of hearing the Bedouin Arabs talk of the immense ruins to be found in the Desert, resolved to ascertain the truth of these wonderful relations. This was first attempted in 1678, but without success, the adventurers were robbed of every thing by the Arabs, and compelled to return without accomplishing their design; but, in 1691, they ventured a second time, and obtained a sight of the antiquities in question. Their narrative, published in the Philosophical Transactions, was supposed by persons to have been wholly an imposition: they could not persuade themselves to believe that, in a spot so remote from any habitable place, such a magnificent city, as their drawings represented, could have subsisted. But since Mr. Dawkins published, in 1753, the plans and views he had taken on the spot in 1751, doubts are no longer entertained. It is now universally acknowledged that antiquity has left nothing, either in Greece or Italy, to be compared with the magnificence of the ruins of Palmyra.

Mr. Wood, in his description of the Ruins of Palmyra †, says, He set out from Hassia, the 11th of March, 1751, with an escort of the Aga's best Arab horsemen, armed with guns and long pikes, and travelled to Sudad, through a barren plain, hardly affording a little browzing to antelopes, of which they saw a great number. Sudad is a poor little village, inhabited by Maronite Christians; the houses of which are built of mud dried in the sun: After dinner they continued their journey, and in the evening arrived at Owareen, a Turkish village, where they lay. Owareen exhibits as much poverty in its appearance as Sudad, but, from the ruins they beheld there, they were convinced that it had formerly been a more considerable place. The travellers observed a village near this, which had been entirely abandoned by its inhabitants, a circumstance not unfrequently happening in these countries, where lands have acquired value from cultivation, and are frequently deserted to avoid oppression. They set out from Owareen the 12th, and proceeded to Carietein, a village somewhat larger than the former. Here they judged it prudent to remain one day, as well to afford rest to the escort, as to prepare their people and cattle for the fatigue of the remaining part of the journey.

They left Carietein the 13th, making in all about two hundred persons, with the same number of beasts of carriage, consisting of an odd mixture of asses, mules, and camels. On the 14th, about noon, they arrived at the end of the plain, where the hills appeared to meet. Between these hills, a vale, through which an aqueduct formerly conveyed water to Palmyra, for-

* In consequence of this caravan, Damascus is become the centre of a very extensive commerce. By Aleppo the merchants of this city correspond with Armenia, Anadolia, the Diarbekar, and even with Persia. This commerce has existed in these countries from the earliest antiquity. It has flowed through different channels, according to the change of circumstances, and has every where left apparent traces of the opulence it produced.

† Published in folio, in London, in 1753.

merly

merly existed: but it is now ruined. To the right and left of this vale, several high square towers appeared, which on a nearer approach, were discovered to be sepulchres of the ancient Palmyrenes. They had no sooner passed these venerable monuments, than the hills opening, exhibited to them, all at once, the greatest quantity of ruins they had ever seen *; and, behind them, towards the Euphrates, a flat waste as far as the eye could reach, without any object which shewed either life or motion. It is hardly possible to imagine any thing more striking than this view. Such a multitude of Corinthian pillars, with so little wall or solid building, afforded a most romantic variety of prospect †.

But the reader is referred to the plates of Mr. Wood, for a particular explanation of these various edifices, and to be convinced of the degree of perfection, to which the arts had arrived in those remote ages. Architecture more especially, lavished her ornaments, and displayed her magnificence in the temple of the sun, the tutelary deity of Palmyra. The square court, which enclosed it, was six hundred and seventy nine feet each way, and a double range of columns was continued all round the inside. In the middle of the vacant space, the temple presents another front of forty-seven feet, by one hundred and twenty-four in depth; around it runs a peristyle of one hundred and forty columns; and, what is very remarkable, the gate faces the setting, and not the rising sun ‡.

Palmyra was at all times a natural emporium for the merchandize coming from India by the Persian Gulph, which, from thence by way of the Euphrates, was conveyed into Phœnicia, and Asia Minor, to diffuse its varied luxuries among numerous nations. Such commerce must necessarily, in the most early ages, have caused this spot to be inhabited, and rendered a place of importance, though at first of no great celebrity. Two springs of fresh water it possesses, were a powerful inducement in a parched and barren desert §. These were doubtless the principal motives which drew the attention of Solomon, and induced that prince to carry his arms to a place so remote from the actual limits of Judea—"He built strong walls there," says Josephus ‖, "to secure himself in the possession, and named it Tadmour, which signifies the place of Palm-trees **.

Leaving these venerable ruins, and returning to the inhabited world, we first meet with Homs, the Emesus of the Greeks, situated on the bank of the Orontes: this place, though formerly a

* Though these travellers had visited Greece and Italy.

† The reader must represent to himself that range of erect columns, as occupying an extent of more than twenty-six hundred yards, and concealing a multitude of other edifices behind them. In this space, sometimes a palace is found, of which nothing remains but the courts and walls, sometimes a temple, whose peristyle is half thrown down; and now, a portico, a gallery, or triumphal arch. Here stand groupes of columns, whose symmetry is destroyed by the fall of many of them. If from this striking scene, we cast our eyes upon the ground, another, almost as varied, presents itself. On all sides we see nothing but subverted shafts, some whole, others shattered to pieces, or dislocated in their joints. And, on which side soever we look, the earth is strewed with large stones, half buried, with broken entablatures, damaged capitals, mutilated frizes, disfigured reliefs, effaced sculptures, violated tombs, and altars defiled by dust.

‡ Amid these hallowed ruins of the magnificence of a polished people, are about thirty mud-walled huts, affording a miserable shelter to that number of peasants families, who exhibit every external sign of the most abject poverty. So extremely wretched are the present inhabitants of a place, once so renowned and populous. These Arabs only cultivate a few olive-trees, and barely as much corn as is required for their subsistence. All their riches consist in a few goats and sheep which they feed in the Desert. Incapable of defending themselves from violence, they become tributary to the Bedouins, who alternately harass and protect them.

The complexion of these Arabs is very swarthy, from the excessive heat, but the women have beautiful features. They are veiled, but they are not so unwilling to show their faces as the eastern women generally are: they dye the end of their fingers red, their lips blue, and their eye-brows and eye-lashes black. They also wear very large gold or brass rings in their ears and noses.

§ These waters are warm and sulphureous, but the inhabitants, who have none but what is brackish, except these springs, find them very good, and they are at least wholesome.

‖ *Antiq. Jud. lib.* 8, *c.* 6.

** Hence it has been inferred, that Solomon was its first founder; but it seems probable that it was then a place of known importance. The palm-trees he found there, are not the trees of uninhabited countries. Prior to the days of Moses, the Journies of Abraham and Jacob, from Mesopotamia into Syria, prove a communication between those countries, which must soon have made Palmyra. The cinnamon and pearls mentioned as found there in the time of the Hebrew legislator demonstrate a trade with India and the Persian gulph, which must have been carried on by the Euphrates and Palmyra. The king of Jerusalem would not have carried his attention to so distant and detached a spot, without some powerful motive of interest; and this interest could be no other than that of an extensive commerce, of which this place was the emporium.

strong and populous city, is now but a large ruinous town, containing about two thousand inhabitants, partly Greeks, and partly Mahometans. An Aga resides here, as a sub-renter of the Pacha of Damascas, of the whole country as far as Palmyra. The Pacha himself holds this farm as an appendage derived immediately from the Sultan. Hama and Marra, are held in the same manner: these three farms pay above twenty thousand pounds, and they are supposed to produce about four times that sum.

Two days journey below Homs, is Hama, a place celebrated in Syria for its water-works, The town is situated in a narrow valley, on the banks of the Orontes, and contains about four thousand inhabitants. An Arab Shaik, named Mohammad-el-Korfan, is lately become so powerful as to impose arbitrary contributions on the country. He is reported to be able to bring into the field thirty thousand horsemen *.

As we approach the Jordan, the country becomes more hilly and better watered: the valley through which this river flows, abounds in pasturage, especially in the upper part of it. The river itself is not of that importance which we are apt to assign to it. The Arabs call it *el Sharia*. Its breadth in few places exceeds sixty or eighty feet; but its depth is about ten or twelve. Crossing the Jordan, we enter a hilly country, anciently named the kingdom of Samaria, and a town called Nablous, its capital. This town, situated on the ruins of the Neapoli's of the Greeks, is the residence of a Shaik, who farms the tribute, and is accountable to the Pacha of Damascus.

Two days journey to the south of Nablous, we arrive at a town, which, like many others already mentioned, presents a striking example of the vicissitude of human affairs. When we behold its walls levelled, its ditches filled up, and all its buildings in ruins, we can scarcely believe that we view the celebrated metropolis, which once withstood the efforts of the most powerful empires: and, for a time, resisted the arms of Rome herself. In one word, we with difficulty recognize *Jerusalem*. The renown of its miracles perpetuated in the east, invites many inhabitants within its walls. Mahometans, Christians, Jews, without distinction of sects, all make it a point to see what they denominate the *noble* and *holy city* †.

Yafa is the port where the pilgrims disembark. They arrive in November, and repair to Jerusalem, where they remain till after the festival of Easter. They are lodged promiscuously in the cells of the convents of their respective communions; for which indulgence no gratuity is demanded: but it would neither be civil nor safe to depart without making an offering far beyond the usual price of apartments. Besides, there are also masses, services, exorcisms, &c. to be paid for: the pilgrim must also purchase beads, Agnus Dei's, &c. On Palm-Sunday they purify themselves in the Jordan, an expedition which claims a contribution. One year with another, it produces to the governor four thousand six hundred and eighty-seven pounds.

Particular relations must be consulted to form an idea of the tumultuous march of this fanatic multitude into the plain of Jericho; the indecent

* Still continuing to descend the Orontes, we arrive at a marshy country, where we meet with a place called Farmia, once a celebrated city of Syria, under the name of Apamea. "It was there," says Strabo, "That the Seleucida had established the school and nursery of their cavalry." The soil of the neighbourhood fed thirty thousand mares, three hundred stallions, and five hundred elephants; instead of which the marshes of Farmia now hardly afford a few buffaloes and sheep. T. the veteran soldiers of Alexander, who have reposed after their victories, have succeeded miserable peasants, who perpetually dread the oppressions of the Turks and the inroads of the Arabs. Every town, every village is built of materials furnished by ruins, and founded on the rubbish of ancient edifices. The Pilgrims of Mecca assure us they find, at every step, the vestiges of ancient habitations.

† From the reverence generally expressed and shewn to that celebrated city, it might long be imagined that there could not be a more devout people than its inhabitants; but they have since acquired and well deserved the reputation of the vilest people in Syria, without excepting even those of Damascus. Their number is estimated at fourteen thousand. Jerusalem has had governors of its own, with the title of Pachas; but it is now a dependency of Damascus, from which it receives a deputy Governor.

The *Motsallam*, or governor, collects duties on the exportation of singular commodities from Jerusalem, such as beads, relics, sanctuaries, crosses, passions, scapularies, &c. of which about three hundred chests are sent off annually. This sort of commerce is the more advantageous to the manufacturers, as their goods cost them little besides their labour; and the more lucrative for the sellers, as the price is enhanced by superstition. These commodities exported to Turkey, Italy, Portugal, and especially to Spain, produce a return of considerable sums, in the form of alms, or in payments. To this the convents join another important article of traffic, the *Visits of the Pilgrims*.—At all times the devout curiosity of visiting the *holy places*, has occasioned Christians of every country to resort to Jerusalem.

zeal with which men, women, and children throw themselves naked into the river Jordan; their return and visitation of the holy places: and the ceremony of *the new fire, which descends from heaven on the holy Saturday, brought by an angel.* The Orientals still believe in this miracle, though the Franks acknowledge that the priests retire into the Sacristy, to perform what is done by very natural means *.

Leaving Jerusalem, we only find three places in this part of the Pachalic which merit particular attention. The first is *Raha*, the ancient Jericho, six leagues to the north-east of Jerusalem. Here was formerly cultivated the balm of Mecca. From the description of the Hadjes, this is a shrub similar to the pomegranate-tree, with leaves resembling those of rue: it has a pulpy nut, the kernel of which yields the resinous juice, called *balm*, or balsam. There is not a plant of it now remaining at Raha; but another species is to be found there, called *Zakkoun*, which also produces a sweet oil, celebrated for healing wounds. This Zakkoun resembles a plum-tree, and has thorns four inches long, with leaves like those of the olive-tree; its fruit is a kind of acorn; under the rind of which is a pulp, and then a nut, the kernel of which affords an oil which the Arabs sell very dear: this is the sole commerce of Raha, now a small village in a ruinous state †.

The last place demanding attention is *Habroun*, or Hebron, seven leagues to the south of Bethlehem. It is situated at the foot of an eminence, on which appear some wretched ruins, the misshapen remains of an ancient castle. The adjacent country is not disagreeably varied by rocky hillocks, groves of fir-trees, a few stunted oaks, and plantations of vines and olive-trees. These vineyards are not cultivated for the purpose of making wine, the inhabitants being such zealous Mahometans as not to suffer any Christians to live among them: the produce is intended to be used merely as dried raisins.

The peasants cultivate cotton, which is spun by their women, and sold at Jerusalem and Gaza. They also have some soap manufactories, and a very ancient glass-house, the only one in Syria. They also make a quantity of coloured rings, bracelets for the wrists, legs, arms, and elbows, and many other trinkets, which are sent to Constantinople. From these manufactures, Habroun is become a place of some eminence, and is capable of arming eight or nine hundred men. Proceeding from Hebron towards the west, we arrive at some eminences, which, on this side, form the last branch of the mountains of Judea. There the traveller, wearied with the irregular country he has quitted, beholds the vast plains which extend beneath his feet, to the sea that lies before him. This is the plain which, under the name of Palestine, terminates, on this side, the country of Syria, and forms the last division.

* Easter being over, every one returns to his own country, vain of being able to rival the Mahometan in the title of pilgrim. Many of them, in order to distinguish themselves as such, imprint on their hands, wrists, or arms, figures of the cross, or spear, with the cypher of Jesus and Mary. This painful, and sometimes dangerous operation is performed with needles, and the perforations filled with gun-powder, or powder of antimony, and is not to be effaced. But all this appearance of devotion does not exempt these pilgrims from the proverbial censure thrown upon the Hadjes; since the Christians say, "Beware of the pilgrims of Jerusalem."

† The next place entitled to notice is *Bait-el-lohm*, or Bethlehem, so celebrated in the history of Christianity. This village is seated on an eminence, two leagues south-east of Jerusalem, in a very fertile soil. Fruits, vines, olives, and sesamum succeed here extremely well; but cultivation is very much wanting. They reckon about six hundred men in this village, capable of bearing arms when required. A sort of white wine is made here, which justifies the former celebrity of the wines of Judea, but it has a very great tendency to promote intoxication.

SECTION VI.

Of Palestine—Of the Government of the Turks in Syria, with Remarks on the Influence of Religion.

THIS district, in its present state, comprehends the whole country between the Mediterranean to the west, the chain of mountains to the east, a line drawn to the south, by Ka-Younes, and another to the north, between Kaisaria, and the rivulet of Yafe. This whole tract

in

is nearly a level plain, without either river or rivulet in summer, though watered by several torrents in winter. Notwithstanding the dryness of the soil, it may be pronounced fertile; for when the winter rains occur, every thing springs up in abundance; and the earth retains moisture sufficient for the growth of grain and vegetables during the summer.

Palestine is a district independent of every Pachalic. Sometimes it has Governors of its own, who reside at Gaza, under the title of Pachas: but it is at present divided into three appanages, or *Meïkena*, *viz.* Yafa, Loudd, and Gaza. Yafa is the port at which the rice sent from Damietta to Jerusalem, and the commodities from the various ports to the coast of Syria are landed. Here also the pilgrims from the Morea and Constantinople arrive.

As a sea-port, or place of strength, Yafa is hardly to be mentioned; but it is capable of becoming one of the most important on the coast, on account of two springs of fresh water within its walls. The port, which is formed by a pier, and now choaked up, might be cleared out, and rendered capable of containing twenty vessels of three hundred tons burthen each. Ships are now obliged to cast anchor out at sea, where they are by no means safe, the bottom being a bank of rock and coral. Before the two late sieges, this was one of the most agreeable towns on the coast: its environs were a continued forest of orange and lemon trees, citrons, and palms. The country beyond contained a number of large olive-trees: but the Mamelukes having cut them all down, Yafa has lost its greatest ornament and convenience; but fortunately they have not deprived them of the rivulets that water its gardens, and nourish the young suckers, which now begin to shoot *.

Not half a league to the southward of Loudd, stands Ramla, the ancient Arimathea: a town also in a ruinous state, where hardly any thing but rubbish meets the eye. The Aga of Gaza resides here in a Serai, the floors and walls of which are tumbling down. On his being asked Why he did not repair his own apartment?—He replied, with another question—"Should a more fortunate person obtain this place next year—Who will repay me the expence †?"

The only remarkable antiquity at Romla is the minaret of a ruined mosque on the road to Yafa. By the Arabic inscription it appears to have been built by Saif-el-din, Sultan of Egypt. In this plain, between Ramla and Gaza, we behold a number of villages, miserably composed of dried mud, and which, like their inhabitants, exhibit every mark of extreme wretchedness and poverty. The women have separate apartments. In winter they and their cattle may be said to live together, the part of the dwelling appropriated to themselves, being only raised two feet higher than that which accommodated their beasts. The peasants are thus kept warm without burning wood, which is very commendable œconomy in a country destitute of fuel. The fire required for culinary purposes, is made of dung kneaded into cakes. In summer their lodging is more airy, but their furniture consists wholly of a single mat, and a pitcher for drinking. The environs of the villages are sown, at the proper season, with grain, and water-melons; all the rest is professed Desert, abandoned to the Bedouin Arabs, who feed their flocks on it. Ruined towers and castles are frequently observed; and sometimes a garrison, consisting of the lieutenant of an Aga, and two or three Barbary soldiers, with only a shirt and a musquet; but more frequently they are inhabited by jackalls, owls, and scorpions.

Four leagues from Ramlat, on the road to Gaza, we arrive at the village of Mesmia, where a considerable quantity of cotton is spun. At the distance of a league to the east is El-Tell, the capital of the tribe of Wahidia, where one of the Shaiks, named Bakir, was assassinated a few years ago by the Aga of Gaza, at an entertainment to which he had invited him.

As we approach the sea, on the road to Gaza,

* To the east of Yafa is the village of Loudd, the ancient Lydda. It has the appearance of a place lately ravaged by fire and sword. From the huts of the inhabitants, to the palace of the Aga, it is one vast heap of rubbish and ruins. A weekly market is, however, held there, to which the neighbouring peasants bring their spun cotton for sale. The poor Christians, who reside here, shew, with great veneration, the remains of the church of St. Peter, and request strangers to sit down in a column, which they say, that saint once rested on. They even shew the place where he preached, where he prayed, &c. There is no stirring a step without being shewn the traces of some apostle, some martyr, or some holy virgin.

† He maintains one hundred horsemen, and an equal number of Barbary soldiers, who are lodged in an old Christian church, the nave of which is converted into a stable; and in an ancient kan, which is disputed with them by the scorpions.

is Yabna, the ancient Jamnia. This village has nothing particular, but an eminence and a rivulet. The whole course of this stream does not exceed a league and a half, before its water is poured into the sea. Leaving Yabna, we behold variety of ruins, the most considerable of which are at Ezdoud, the ancient Azotus, now remarkable for its scorpions. This town, so powerful under the Philistines, displays nothing of its ancient importance Three leagues from Ezdoud is Majdal, celebrated for spinning the finest cottons in Palestine; which, however, are extremely coarse. On the right is Azkalan, whose deserted ruins daily recede farther from the sea, by which it was formerly washed.

Gaza is composed of three villages, one of which called the *Castle*, is situated between the two others, on a moderate eminence. This castle, which might have been thought strong at the time it was erected, is now a heap of rubbish. The Serai of the Aga, which constitutes a part of it, is in a ruinous state; but it commands a most extensive prospect. The heats, the drought, the winds, and the dews, are the same as on the banks of the Nile; and the inhabitants have the complexion, figure, and manners of the Egyptians, rather than those of the Syrians *.

An advantageous branch of commerce is furnished to the people of Gaza, by the caravans passing and repassing between Egypt and Syria. The provisions they are required to take for their four days journey in the Desert produce a great demand for their flour, oils, dates, and other necessaries. They also fit out, annually, a great caravan, which goes to meet the pilgrims of Mecca, and conveys to them the convoy of Palestine, and supplies of various kinds, with different refreshments. They also purchase the plunder of the Bedouins. Immense profits were obtained by the plunder of the great caravan in 1757 †.

The desert of Tih, is that into which Moses conducted the Jews, and kept them a long time to initiate them in the art of war, and transform shepherds into conquerors. This desert, which is the boundary of Syria to the south, extends itself in the form of a peninsula between the two gulphs of the Red Sea. Its breadth is generally about thirty leagues, and its length seventy. This great space, principally consists of barren mountains, which join those of Syria, on the north, and, like them also, consist wholly of calcareous stone; but, as we proceed to the southward, they become granitous, and Sinai and Horeb are enormous masses of that stone. On this account the ancients gave this country the name of *Arabia Petrea*. The soil, in general, is a dry gravel, producing thorny accacias, tamarisks, firs, and some scattered shrubs. In some of the vallies, however, it is better, as the earth becomes cultivable after the winter rains, and may almost be deemed fertile. Such is the vale of Djiraddel, in which there are even some groves of trees. Formerly every advantage was made of this country that could be obtained from it, but it is now abandoned, and produces nothing but wild herbs. But, with such scanty provision, this desert maintains three tribes of Bedouins, consisting of about six thousand Arabs, dispersed in various parts. They are called the Arabs of Tor, the most frequented place in the country. It has a pretty good road for shipping,

* The situation of Gaza has, at all times, rendered it a town of importance. The ruins of white marble, found in its environs, prove it to have formerly been the abode of luxury and opulence; nor was it unworthy of this preference. The soil of the surrounding country is remarkably fertile, and the gardens, watered by limpid streams, still produce pomegranates, oranges, dates, &c. in great perfection. It has, however, partook of the general destruction, and though it enjoys the proud title of the capital of Palestine, it is now merely a defenceless village, hardly containing two thousand inhabitants. The manufacture of cottons is their principal support; and, as they have the exclusive supply of the peasants and Bedouins of the neighbourhood, they employ about five hundred looms: they have also two or three soap manufactories.

† Beyond Gaza there are but two deserts, but it must not therefore be taken for granted that the country thence becomes suddenly uninhabitable; we still continue, for a day's journey, along the sea-coast, to behold cultivated spots and villages: Such as Kan-younes, a kind of castle, in which the Mamelukes keep a garrison of twelve men. Such also is El-Arish, the last place where water can be had fit to be drank, till you arrive at Salachia, in Egypt. Returning to the desert by the east, we meet with strips of cultivable land, as far as the road to Mecca. They cultivate palm-trees and doura, under the protection, or rather exposed to the rapine, of the Arabs. These peasants, who may be considered as half savages, are more ignorant and wretched than the Bedouins themselves. Incapable of leaving the soil they cultivate, they are perpetually in dread of losing the fruit of their labours. When they have gathered in their harvest, they hasten to conceal it in private places, and retire among the rocks bordering on the Dead Sea.

and water which may be drank: the Arabs also bring some hither from Sinai, which is really good. Nothing further can be noticed here, except that we here and there find a few palm-trees, the ruins of a wretched fort without a garrison, a small Greek convent, and some huts of poor Arabs. Respecting the subsistence of the three tribes, it is derived from their goats, camels, acacia gums sold in Egypt, and their robberies on the roads of Suez, Gaza, and Mecca.

These Arabs have not many mares, like the other tribes; they rear but very few; but they supply the want of them by a sort of camel, called *Hedjina*, which nearly resembles the common camel, but is slenderer, and moves more expeditiously. This animal can continue his pace thirty or forty hours successively, almost without rest, and without eating or drinking; he is preferred by *couriers*, and for long journies when expedition is required: but the rider must be accustomed to his pace, or his jolting motion will soon gall and disable him, in spite of the cushions with which they stuff the saddle *.

But the most considerable profits of the Bedouins of Tor arise from the pilgrimage of the Greeks to the convent of Mount Sinai. The schismatics have so much faith in the relics of Saint Catherine, which are deposited there, that they doubt of their salvation if they have not visited them at least once in their lives. The rendezvous is at Cairo, where the Monks of Mount Sinai have correspondents who treat with the Arabs for a convoy. On their arrival at the convent, the Greeks perform their devotions, visit the church, kiss the relics and images, mount on their knees upwards of a hundred steps of the hill of Moses, and conclude by making an offering.

The Pacha, as being the image of the Sultan, is the head of the police of his government; under which title must be comprehended criminal justice. He has the absolute power of life and death; a power which he exercises without formality or appeal. When he meets with an offence, he orders the criminal to be seized, and the executioner, who accompanies him, strangles him, or takes off his head upon the spot; and sometimes, indeed, he condescends to perform this office himself. The Pacha often walks about in disguise, and woe to that man whom he detects in the commission of a crime, or an error!—But, as he cannot be every where, he has a deputy, called the Wali, who patroles night and day, keeps a watchful eye on the seditious, apprehends robbers; and, like the Pacha, tries and condemns without appeal. The criminal presents his neck; the executioner strikes; the head falls, and the body is taken away in a leathern sack. This officer has a multitude of spies, who are generally the associates of thieves, and, from their information, is made acquainted with every thing that passes. We cannot therefore be surprised that cities like Cairo, Aleppo, and Damascus, should be safer than Genoa, Rome, and Naples: but how dearly is this safety purchased! and how many innocent persons are sacrificed to the partiality and injustice of the Wali!

In the markets the Wali inspects the weights and measures, in which he exercises the utmost severity. For the smallest deficiency in the weight of bread, meat, or confectionary, he inflicts five hundred strokes of the bastinado, and sometimes even death. But though examples of this kind are common in great cities, there is no country where false weights are so frequently used. The dealer, however, is generally upon his guard: he usually keeps a sharp look-out for the passing of the Wali, or inspector of the market; and, as soon as they appear on horseback, the deficient weights are laid aside, and others produced. The dealers also make an agreement with the servants who precede these two officers; and for a certain sum they can insure impunity †.

All

* Except at the time that these visitations are made, which is only once a year, this convent is a very desert and savage abode, and the surrounding country is only a pile of rugged and naked rock. Mount Sinai, at the foot of which it is seated, is a peak of granite, which seems to overwhelm it. The house has the resemblance of a prison, whose lofty walls have only one window, which, though very high up, answers the purpose of a door; to enter which you must get into a basket, which the Monks have suspended at the window, and occasionally hoist up with ropes. This plan is adopted from the apprehensions of danger from the Arabs.

† The office of Wali does not extend to those various objects of utility, which are under the regulation of our police. No attention is paid to the cleanliness or the salubrity of the cities. They are not watered, swept, or paved, either in Syria, or in Egypt. The streets are narrow, winding, and incommodious; and travellers are disgusted at the sight of a multitude of hideous dogs, which have not any owner. They form a sort of independent body, subsisting

All the magistrates of the empire called *Cadis*, or judges, depend on the principal chief, who resides at Constantinople. The title of his dignity is *Cadi-el ask*, or Judge of the Army. This Grand Cadis names the judges of the capital cities, such as Aleppo, Damascus, Jerusalem, &c. These name other judges, in the places within their jurisdiction. Money is, however, the principal qualification. All these employments, like those of the government, are sold to the best bidder, and farmed from year to year. The tribunal whence these Cadis issue their decisions, is called *Makkama*, or place of judgement. Sometimes it is at their own houses, but never at a place suitable to the dignity of a court of justice. In a paltry mean apartment, the Cadi is seated on a mat, or a sort of carpet, with his clerks and domestics on each side of him: the door of the apartment is left open; the parties appear, and, without advocates or attornies, each pleads his own cause. Squatted on the ground, they state the facts, dispute, and contest the particulars, and debate upon the merits or demerits of the cause before them. Should the debates between the parties become too violent, the cries of the clerks, and the staff of the Cadi, soon restore order and propriety. Gravely smoking his pipe, and fingering his beard, the judge hearkens, interrogates, and concludes by pronouncing a sentence, without appeal. The parties are seldom very well satisfied; but they retire with great respect, paying a fee estimated at one tenth of the litigated property, without murmuring at the judgment, as it is infallibly dictated by the *infallible koran* *.

Such is the state of jurisprudence among the Turks; and they have no public code existing, where individuals may instruct themselves in their respective rights. The judgments given are chiefly founded on unwritten customs, or on the unfrequently contradictory decisions of the doctors. The Roman law, in many particulars, has served as a basis for the determinations of the Mahometan Doctors, but the great and inexhaustible source to which they recur, is the most pure book, the depositary of all knowledge, the code of all legislation, the *Koran of the Prophet*.

Whoever reads the koran, cannot but confess, that it conveys no notion of the relative duties of mankind in society, the formation of the body politic, or the principles of the art of governing. The only laws we find there, consist of four or five ordinances relative to polygamy, divorces, slavery, and the succession of near relations. The rest is merely a chaos of unmeaning phrases, and emphatical declamation on the attributes of God, from which no valuable information can be obtained; a collection of puerile tales, and ridiculous fables; and on the whole so flat and uninteresting a composition, that no man can read it to the end, notwithstanding the elegance of M. Savary's translation. But should any semblance of meaning be visible, through the absurdities of this delirious effusion, it is the inculcation of the most obstinate fanaticism.

We are wearied with the repetition of the words *impious, incredulous enemies of God and the Prophet; devotion towards God and the Prophet*. Heaven is open to whomsoever combats in their cause; *Houris* stretch out their arms to martyrs; the imagination takes fire, and the proselyte exclaims, "Oh! Mahomet; thou art the messenger of God; thy word is his; he is infallible; thou canst neither err nor deceive me: go on, I follow thee." There is no uncertainty in this book; it guides without error, those who believe without doubting, who believe in what they do not see."

sisting on public alms. The Turks, who are so ready to shed the blood of man, are not so forward in killing these dogs, though they avoid touching them as unclean: they even declare that they ensure the safety of the citizens by night; but for this they are more indebted to the Wali, and the gates with which every street is secured. It is also said, that the dogs devour the carrion; but in this they are assisted by a multitude of Jackalls, which are numerous in the gardens, and concealed among the ruins and tombs.

* It must be confessed that this simplicity of justice does not consume the property of the parties in preliminary or subsequent expences, but too many abuses are the consequences of this summary decision. Some writers who censure the proceedings of our legal decisions, have commended the administration of justice among the Turks; but daily experience sufficiently proves, that there is no country wherein justice is more corrupted than in Egypt, Syria, and the rest of the Turkish empire. Venality is no where more flagrant and bare-faced. The parties may bargain for their cause with the Cadi, as they would for any common article of food or raiment. Corruption is habitual and general; and how can it be expected to be otherwise, where integrity may be destructive, and injustice lucrative; where each Cadi, deciding without appeal, fears no revision of his sentence, nor punishment for his partiality.

What

What is the tendency of this, but to establish the most absolute despotism in him who commands, and the blindest devotion to him who obeys? And such was the intention of Mahomet. He did not mean to enlighten men, but to rule over them. It was to lead them more easily that he ascribed all to God. By submitting to acknowledge himself his minister, he removed every suspicion of personal interest. "There is only one God," says the Koran, "and Mahomet is his prophet. Pray five times a-day, turning towards Mecca. Eat not in the day time during the whole month of the Ramasan. Make the pilgrimage of the Caaba, and give alms to the widow and orphan." Here is the source from whence must spring all the sciences, and every branch of political and moral knowledge *.

The people of Syria are, in general Mahometans or Christians; and this difference of opinion is productive of the most disagreeable effects. Treating each other as infidels and impious, they are actuated by a reciprocal aversion, which keeps alive a sort of perpetual war. And the government, instead of interposing as mediator in these dissensions, ferments them by its partiality. Faithful to the spirit of the Koran, it treats the Christians with the most persecuting severity †.

These distinctions create much hatred and divisions, and manifest themselves in every intercourse of life. The Mahometans talk perpetually of their religion, and consider themselves as the only *faithful* to God. The Christians, in their turn, affect great devotion; and hence that ostentation of piety which forms one of the principal characteristics of the orientals.

Commerce, in Syria, is still in that state of infancy which characterizes barbarous ages, and uncivilised countries. Along the whole coast there is not a harbour capable of admitting a vessel of four hundred tons. In the interior parts of the country, there are neither roads nor canals; nor even bridges over the greater part of the rivers and torrents. Between town and town, there are neither posts nor public conveyance. The *Tartar* Courier, who comes from Constantinople to Damascus, by way of Aleppo, is the only convenience of this kind. He leads with him a second horse in hand, and has frequently a companion for fear of accidents.

The communication between one town and another is kept up by carriers, but they have no fixed time of departure. No persons travel alone, from the insecurity of the roads. It is usual to wait for several passengers who wish to go to the same place. It appears remarkable that not a waggon or a cart is to be seen in all Syria: Perhaps their absence may be attributed to the apprehensions of their being seized by the minions of government, and thereby sustaining a very considerable loss at one stroke. Every thing is conveyed on the backs of asses, mules, or camels, all which animals are found here in great perfection: the two former are very capable of employment on the mountains, and of climbing and sliding over the slopes of the craggy rocks. The camel is more used in the plains, because he consumes less, and carries more: his usual load is about seven hundred and fifty pounds: his food is whatever you choose to give him: as straw, beans, barley, brambles, pounded dates, &c. With a pound of food a-day, and as much water, he will travel for weeks together. In going from Cairo to Suez, which is a journey

* The legislators of antiquity have in vain exhausted their genius to explain the relations of mankind in society, and to point out the several duties of every class. Mahomet, more able and profound, resolves the whole into five phrases; and yet it may safely be asserted, that of all the men who have presumed to give laws to nations, none was more ignorant than Mahomet: of all the absurd compositions that have ever been exhibited, not one can be more truly wretched than this book. Of this, the transactions of the last twelve hundred years in Asia are a proof; for the ignorance of the people, in that quarter of the globe, originate in the Koran and its morality.

† All public worship is prohibited to Christians, except in the Kesraouan, where government has not been able to prevent it. They are not permitted to build any new churches; and when the old ones are in a ruinous state, they are not suffered to repair them without paying a very heavy fine. A Christian cannot strike a Mahometan without the risk of losing his life; but if a Mahometan should kill a Christian, he can escape punishment for a stipulated price. A Christian must not appear on horseback in the town, and they are forbid the use of the yellow slippers, white shawls, and every kind of green colour. Red for the feet, and blue for the dress are the colours assigned them. The Porte has just renewed its ordinances to re-establish the ancient form of their turbans: they must consist of a coarse blue muslin, with a single white border. When they travel, they are frequently stopped to pay a toll, from which the Mahometans are exempt: in law proceedings, the oath of two Christians is reckoned but as one; and it is next to an impossibility for a Christian to gain a suit.

of

of about forty-six hours, including the time allowed for resting, they neither eat nor drink; but these fastings, often repeated, exhaust the strength of the animals. It is useless to endeavour to force them beyond their usual pace; but by allowing them their proper rest, they will travel from fifteen to eighteen hours a day *.

Coin is of so fixed a value, that you may travel over the whole empire without experiencing any change in its denomination or its value. The most simple of these coins is the *Para*, called also *Medin*, *a Fadda*, *a Kata*, or *a Mefria*. It resembles in size an English silver three-pence, and is worth about five liards, (a little more than a halfpenny). After the para, there are a succession of pieces of five, ten, and twenty paras. All these coins are silver, but with such a mixture of copper alloy, that the *Gabou-kelb*, is as large as a crown of six livres, though its value be only four livres five sols, (three and six-pence halfpenny.) They have no image, because of the prohibition of the prophet: but only the cypher of the Sultan on one side, and on the other these words: Sultan of the two Continents. The gold coins are the sequin, called *Dahcp*, or piece of gold; and also *Zahr-Mahaboub*, or well-beloved flower. It is worth three piastres, or forty paras. There is likewise a sequin, called *Fondoucli*, worth one hundred and seventy paras. Besides these Turkish coins, some of the European specie has as much currency; such are the silver dollars of Germany, and the gold sequins of Venice. The Venetian sequins are esteemed for the fineness of their standard, and from their being used in making womens' trinkets: the piece of gold is simply pierced, for the convenience of suspending it by a chain, also of gold, which flows upon the breast. The more sequins there are attached to the chain, and the greater number of these chains, the more does the woman conceive herself ornamented. This mode of embellishment creates much emulation among the ladies. Even the female peasants, in imitation of their superiors, wear piastres or smaller pieces; but the women of a certain rank disdain silver, and will accept of nothing but sequins of Venice, or large Spanish pieces and crusadoes. The practice of weighing money is general in Syria, Egypt, and all Turkey. No piece, however defaced, is refused there; the merchant draws out his scales and weighs it.

The religion of Mahomet having proscribed every sort of image and figure, there exists neither painting, nor sculpture, nor engraving: nor any of those numerous professions which depend on them. The christians, indeed, purchase, for the use of their churches, some pictures of the Greeks at Constantinople, who, in point of taste, are real Turks. In the second place, many of our trades are rendered unnecessary, from the small quantity of furniture required by the Orientals. The whole inventory of a wealthy family consists in a carpet for the feet, in mats, cushions, mattresses, small cotton cloths, copper and wooden platters for the table, some stewing-pans, a mortar, a portable mill, some porcelain, and some plates of copper tinned: all our cabinet and upholstery work are luxuries totally unknown to them; nothing can therefore be so simple as a Turkish removal. Pocock is of opinion that these customs originated in the wandering life formerly led by the ancestors of these nations. Their clothing is as little complicated, though much more expensive. They are unaccustomed to the hats, perukes, hair-dressing, buttons, buckles, stocks, and all that superfluity with which we are surrounded. Cotton, or silk shirts, which have neither ruffles nor wristbands, nor plaited collars; an enormous pair of breeches, serving also by way of stockings; a handkerchief for the head; another round the waist, with three large folds of cloth and calico, compose the whole wardrobe of the orientals. The only articles of luxury are goldsmith's work, which is limited to women's trinkets, saucers for coffee, the ornaments of their harness, their pipes, and the silk stuffs of Aleppo and Damascus †.

Cairo is perhaps the only place in Egypt or in Syria

* There are no public inns, but the cities, towns, and even the villages, have a large building called a *Kan*, or *Kervan-serai*, for the use of travellers. These places of reception are built a little way out of the towns, and consist of four wings round a square court, in which the beasts of burden are inclosed. The lodgings are cells, where nothing is found but bare walls, dust, and perhaps scorpions. The keeper of the Kan furnishes the traveller with a key and a mat; and he provides himself the rest. It is therefore necessary that he should take with him a bed, his kitchen utensils, and even his provisions, for it frequently happens that no bread is to be found in the villages.

† In passing through the streets of the towns, you see nothing but a number of beaters of cotton on tenters, retailers

Syria, where there are a few Shaiks who understand the principles of music: they have collections of airs, written in characters, of which the names are all Persian. They have no music but vocal; for they neither know nor esteem instrumental; and they certainly deserve commendation for it; for such instruments as they have, are detestable. They are strangers to any other accompaniment than the unison, and the continued base of the Monochord. Their performance is accompanied with sighs and gestures, which represent the passions in a more lively strain than we should venture to allow. They have the greatest merit in the melancholy strain.

Dancing, which among us is held in equal rank with music, is not equally esteemed by the Arabs; a man cannot practice it without dishonour; and the exercise of it is only permitted to women. This judgment may appear severe, but before we condemn it, let it be considered, that in the eastern world, dancing is not an imitation of war, as among the Greeks, nor a combination of graceful attitudes and movements, as with us; but a licentious imitation of the wantonness of love. This is the species of dance, brought from Carthage to Rome, and which, since revived in Spain by the Arabs, still subsists there under the title of the *Fandango*. It would be difficult, without wounding the ear, accurately to describe it: it will be sufficient to say, that a female, with her arms extended, and an empassioned air, singing and accompanying her songs with castanets, executes, without changing her place, all those motions of the body which passion itself carefully conceals under the veil of night. So extravagant is their licentiousness, that nothing but prostitutes presume to dance in public. Those who excel assume the name of *Alma*, or proficient in the art: the most celebrated are those of Cairo *.

The scarcity of books, and the want of the means of information, are certainly the causes of the ignorance of the orientals; but the radical source is still in the government, which, so far from encouraging the propagation of knowledge, exerts every effort to stifle it in the birth. Under the administration of the Turks, neither rank nor fortune can be obtained through the channel of the Arts and Sciences, or polite literature. If science therefore, which is acquired with much difficulty and labour, can only make us regret its inutility and even expose us to danger, it is better to be without it †.

The situation of the women among the orientals, occasions a great contrast between their manners and ours. Such is the delicacy of the men, that they never speak of them; and it would be extremely indecent to make any enquiries of the men respecting the women of their family. They are astonished that our women go with their faces uncovered, when, in their country, an uplifted veil is the demonstration of a prostitute, or is a signal for a love-adventure. They have no idea that it is possible to talk with them, and touch them without emotion, or to be alone with them without proceeding to the last extremities. This conduct will sufficiently shew what opinion they entertain of their females: hence we may instantly conclude that they are absolutely ignorant of love, in our sense of the

fallers of stuffs and mercery, barbers, tinners, blacksmiths, sadlers, sellers of little loaves, hard-ware, grain, dates, and sweat-meats; but very few butchers, and those very ill supplied. In the villages, the inhabitants have no arts, but those without which they cannot subsist. Every person endeavours to supply his own wants. Each family manufactures the coarse cottons with which they are cloathed: every house has a portable mill for grinding their barley, or their Dourra: the flour from these mills is coarse, and the little loaves made of it, ill-leavened, and badly baked; but they preserve life, which seems to be all that is required.

* The Sciences are still more neglected than the Arts: in vain have some persons denied this assertion: in vain do they talk of colleges, places of education, and books. These words in Turkey convey not the same ideas as with us. The age of the Caliphs is past among the Arabs, and yet to begin among the Turks. These two nations have neither geometricians, astronomers, musicians, nor physicians at present. Scarcely can we find one of the latter who knows how to bleed with a fleam. How, indeed should physicians be so formed, as there are no establishments of the kind, and anatomy is repugnant to the prejudices of their religion? Astronomy might gain more admirers, but by Astronomy they mean only the art of discovering the decrees of fate by the motion of the stars.

† When an European arrives in Syria, or any part of the eastern world, he is astonished at the exterior of the inhabitants: it seems as if some premeditated design had determined to produce an infinity of striking contrasts between the people of Asia and those of Europe. With us, to uncover the head is a mark of respect; with them, a naked head is the emblem of folly. We salute in an inclined posture; they erect. They sit, and eat upon the ground; we upon raised seats. Their manner of writing is also contrary to ours; and most of our masculine nouns are feminine with them.

word. Lovers there are prisoners, ever watching to deceive their keepers, and always anxious to seize the first opportunity, because they know not when another may happen. Should they happen to succeed in an amour, they are as secret as the grave, knowing the fatal consequences of a discovery: in these cases it is hardly possible to avoid the poignard, pistol, or poison. Its destructive consequences to the women render them inplacable in punishing; and, to revenge themselves, they are often more cruel than their husbands or their brothers.

This severity tends to preserve chastity and decorum in the country; but in the great towns, as much debauchery prevails as among us; but it is more concealed. Aleppo, Damascus, and Cairo, are not, in this respect, behind our provincial capitals. Young girls are reserved there, because the discovery of a love adventure would cost them their lives; but married women freely devote themselves to pleasure, to indemnify them for the long restraint they have endured, and because they have frequently just reasons for revenging themselves on their masters.

The Turks are much censured for hastening their marriages so much as they do: it is not uncommon to see girls of nine or ten years of age, married to boys of twelve or thirteen: but it must be confessed that the apprehensions of libertinism, and the severity with which that is punished by the Turkish police, greatly promote these premature unions, which is certainly one of the causes of their early impotence. The ignorance of the Turks is so extreme, that they uniformly endeavour to force nature, at the very time that their health is impaired by excess. This also is to be ascribed to the Koran, in which the amorous prophet has inserted a precept inculcating this species of duty *.

From what we can learn of the domestic life of those husbands who have several wives, their lot is not to be envied, nor does it convey a very exalted idea of this part of Mahomet's legislation. Their house is a perpetual scene of riot, tumult, and contention. Nothing occurs but bickerings and quarrels between the different wives, and complaints and appeals to the husbands. The wives, having been legally married, complain that their slaves are preferred to them, and that they are persecuted from the jealousy of their mistresses. If one wife is complimented with a trinket, a token of favour, or permission to visit the bath, all the others require the same tokens of attention, or suppose themselves extremely slighted. To restore peace, the polygamist finds it necessary to assume the tone of a despot, and from that moment he meets with nothing but the sentiments of slaves, the appearance of fondness and real hatred. In vain does each of these women protest she loves him more than the rest; in vain does she fly on his entering his apartments, to present him his pipe and his slippers, to prepare his dinner, and to serve his coffee: in vain, while he is indulgently stretched out upon his carpet, does she assiduously chase away the flies which incommode him; all these attentions and caresses serve only to procure an addition to their trinkets and movables, that, if he should divorce them, they may have it in their power to tempt another husband, or find a resource in what becomes their own property. Like mere courtezans, they think only of stripping their lover before he quits them; and this lover, experiencing indifference or disgust, teazed by pretended fondness, and debilitated by satiety, must be far from enjoying an enviable situation.

The contempt entertained by the Turks for their women, arises from this concurrence of circumstances, and is evidently produced by their own customs: for how should the women retain that exclusive love, which renders them most estimable, when so many share in the affections of their husband? How should they have the manners requisite to make them amiable, when no care whatever has been taken of their education? The Greeks, who are permitted to have but one wife at a time, enjoy domestic peace, though perhaps they approach no nearer to real happiness.

* Montesquieu has justly assigned polygamy as one of the causes of depopulation in Turkey; but it is one of the least considerable, as there are few but the rich who indulge themselves with a plurality of women; the common people, and especially those of the country, are satisfied with one. Even among the higher ranks, persons are sometimes to be met with, who are wise enough to imitate their example, and acknowledge that one wife is quite sufficient.

THE END OF VOLNEY'S TRAVELS.

TRAVELS THROUGH SPAIN.

BY

JOHN TALBOT DILLON,

KNIGHT AND BARON OF THE SACRED ROMAN EMPIRE:

ILLUSTRATED WITH

NOTES AND OBSERVATIONS.

FROM

A TOUR THROUGH SPAIN AND PORTUGAL, in 1803.

BY

CHRISTIAN AUGUSTUS FISCHER.

CHAPTER I.

General Division of Spain—Itinerary from Bayonne to Pampeluna, and from thence to Madrid.—A Mine of Sal Gem at Valtierra described.

THE dominions of Spain are generally classed by their writers in the following order: the kingdom of Spain, consisting of Old and New Castile; the kingdoms of Leon, Arragon, Navarre, Granada, Valencia, Galicia, Seville, Cordova, Murcia, Jaen, and Majorca; the principalities of Asturias and Catalonia, the provinces of Estremadura, Guipuscoa, and Alava, and the lordships of Biscay and Molina: they are bounded by the Bay of Biscay on the north, by the Pyrenees and the Mediterranean on the east, by the streights of Gibraltar and the Mediterranean on the south, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the west: lying between 36 and 43 degrees of north latitude; and between 8 and 22 degrees of east longitude from Ferrol.

The Pyrenean mountains are the highest in Spain, extending from the ocean to the Mediterranean, several others branching out, as from their root, such as Mount Idubeda, (now called Montes de Oca) the Orbion, Moncayo, the Puerto de Pajares, or pass from Castile to Asturias, the Puerto de Guadarrama, which separates the two Castiles, that of Molina, of Cuenca, of Confuegra, Alacaraz, Segura, Cazorla, and the Montes Marianos, (now called Sierra Morena;) the Puerto del Rey, which commands the communication between Castile and Andalusia, and the Puerto del Muradal, where lies that famous pass called the Navas de Tolosa, celebrated for the victory obtained there in 1212, over the king of Morocco, and other passes of less note.

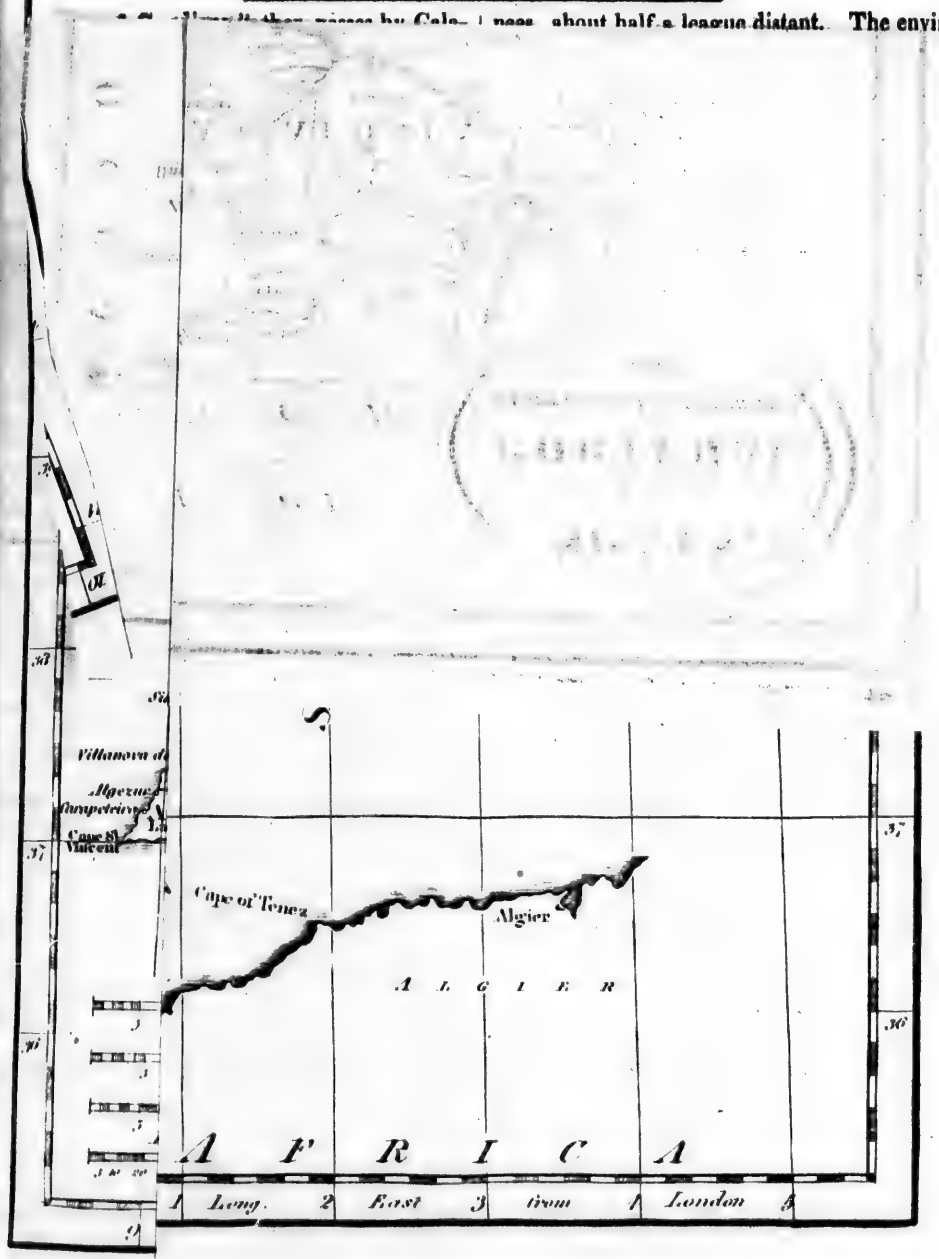
Amongst the rivers, the Ebro has its source near Fontibre, six leagues from Aguillar del Campo, passes by Logeens, Viana, Calahorra, Tudela, Saragossa, Mequinezza, and Tortosa, and a little lower falls into the Mediterranean at the Alfaque Islands.

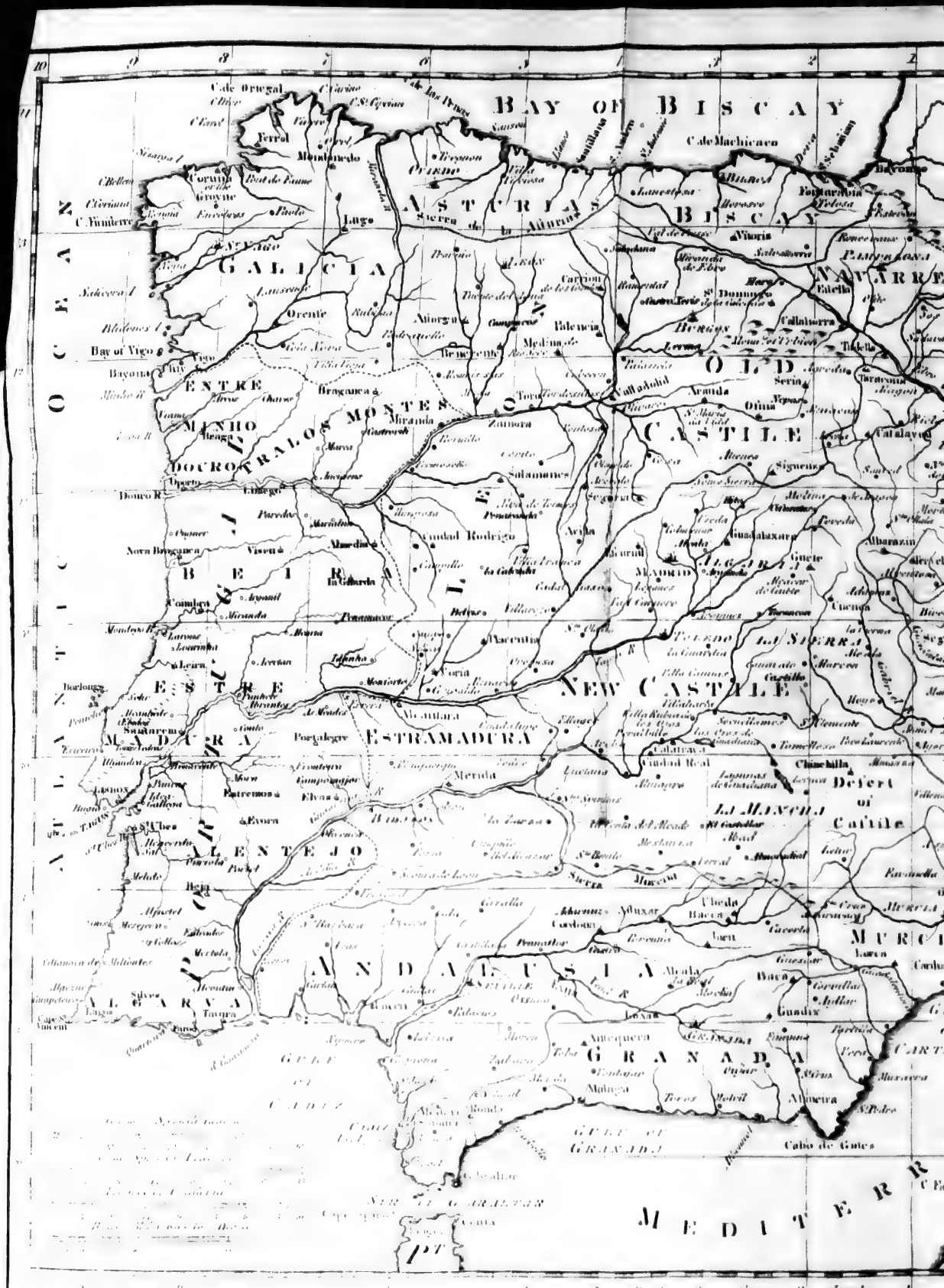
The Guadalquiver has its source in the Sierra de Segura, passes by Beas, Baeza, Andujar, Cordova, Loxa, and Seville, and enters the ocean at San Lucar de Barrameda, receiving in its course the waters of the Guadalbullon and Genil.

The Tagus rises in the Sierras near Albarracin, passes by Zurita, Aranjuez, Toledo, Almaraz, Alcantara, Abrantes, Santarem, and Lisbon, where it is three miles broad, and enters the ocean, having the tide as high as Santarem, and receiving in its course the waters of the Jarama, Manzanares, Guadarrama, Alberche, and others.

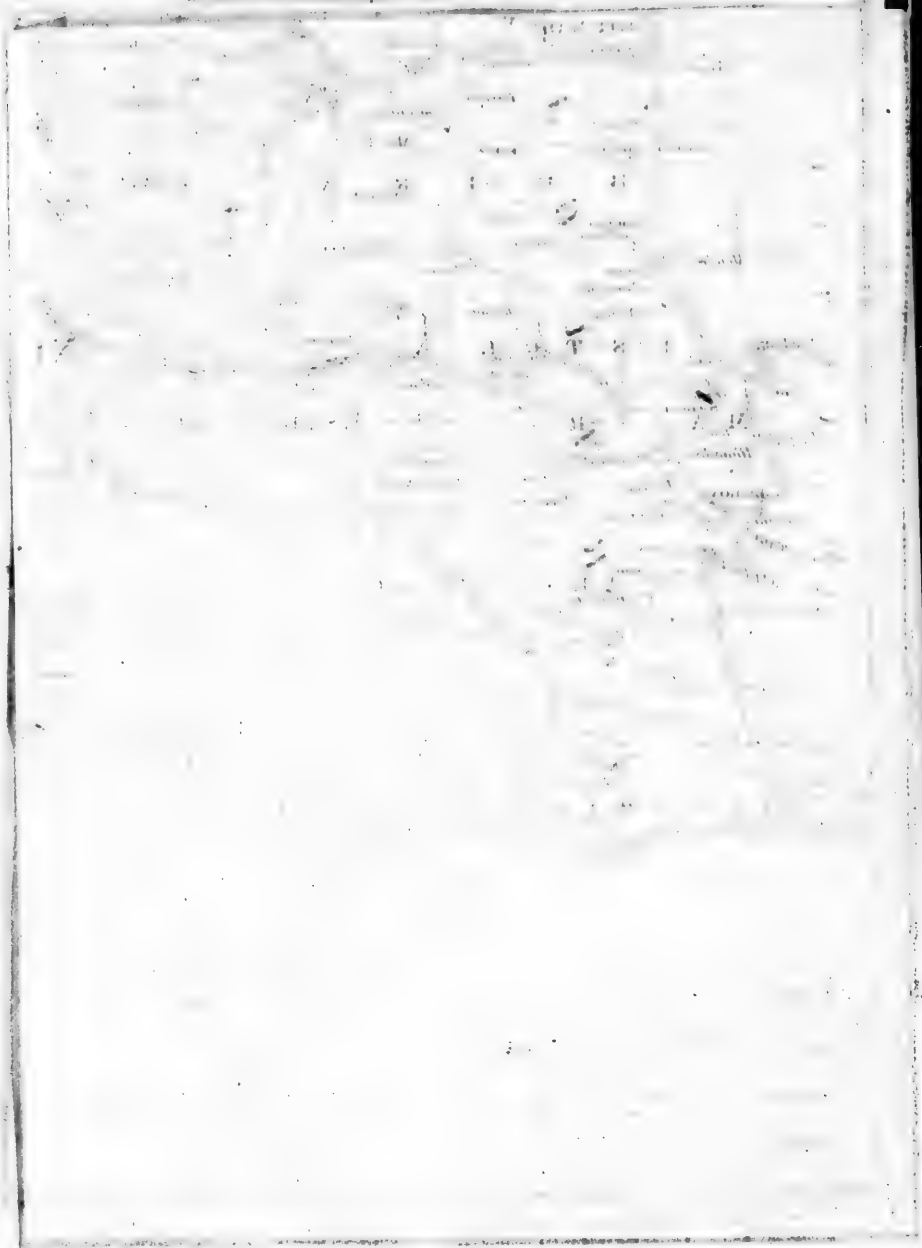
The Guadiana rises about four leagues from Montiel, in the Laguna Ruydera, and after running under ground appears again near Damiel at the lakes or lacques called *Ojos de Guadiana*, " the

...thence passes by Cala- ...nees, about half a league distant. The environs




BAY OF BISCAY
Cabo Ortegal
Ferrol
Coruña
Cabo Finisterre
Bay of Vigo
Bayona
Lugo
Oviedo
Cabo Machichaco
Bilbao
Vitoria
Pamplona
Tudela
Burgos
Palencia
Valladolid
Aranda
Segovia
Medina
Zamora
Miranda
Braganca
Bragança
Chaves
Viana
Braga
Porto
Douro R.
Lamego
Salamanca
Ciudad Rodrigo
Viseu
Nova Braganca
Coimbra
Aveiro
Thomar
Abrantes
Santarem
Portalegre
Lisboa
Setuval
Evora
Merida
Badajoz
Elvas
Olivenza
Campomayor
Alcantara
Toro
Arevalo
Avila
Madrid
Escurial
Aranjuez
Toledo
Talavera
Guadalaxara
Cuenca
Albarazin
Giudad Real
Almagro
Chinchilla
Murcia
Lorca
Cartagena
Almeria
Baeza
Ubeda
Cazorla
Andujar
Cordova
Sevilla
Xeres
Cadiz
Gibraltar
Tarifa
Algeziras
Ronda
Malaga
Granada
Guadix
Velez Malaga
Cabo de Gatos
Cabo de Palos
Cabo de Gata
Cabo de Trafalgar
Cabo de Santa Maria
Cabo de S. Vincent
Sagres
Lagos
Faro
Tavira
Castro Marim
Ayamonte
Huelva
Moguer
Palos
Niebla
Portimao
Lagoa
Silves
Albufeira
Setuval
Sines
Cabo de Espichel
Cabo da Roca
Cabo Mondego
Figueira
Aveiro
Oporto
Viana
Valença
Monzon
Huesca
Jaca
Sangüesa
Estella
Logroño
Calahorra
Tarazona
Soria
Almazan
Sigüenza
Molina
Teruel
Albarracin
Cuenca
Requena
Utiel
Chelva
Segorbe
Castellon de la Plana
Morella
Tortosa
Tarragona
Reus
Lerida
Balaguer
Cervera
Solsona
Berga
Vich
Manresa
Barcelona
Mataro
Gerona
Figueras
Rosas
Cabo de Creus
Puycerda
Urgel
Seo de Urgel
Andorra
Tremp
Benabarre
Fraga
Barbastro
Ayerbe
Jaca
Canfranc
Somport
Pau
Oleron
Mauleon
Bayonne
Biarritz
St. Jean de Luz
Cabo Machichaco
Bilbao
Durango
Vitoria
Salvatierra
Estella
Tudela
Tafalla
Olite
Puente la Reyna
Pamplona
Roncesvalles
Irun
St. Sebastian
Fuenterabia
Tolosa
Rentaria
Deva
Motrico
Bermeo
Portugalete
Santander
Laredo
Castro Urdiales
Santoña
Santillana
Torrelavega
Reynosa
Cabezon
Valladolid
Palencia
Carrion
Saldaña
Cervera
Aguilar
Reynosa
Cabuerniga
Potes
Liebana
Cangas de Onis
Infiesto
Villaviciosa
Gijon
Aviles
Cabo de Penas
Cabo de Peñas
Cabo Ortegal
Cedeira
Ferrol
Betanzos
Coruña
Cabo Finisterre
Corcubion
Muros
Noya
Padron
Santiago
Pontevedra
Redondela
Vigo
Bay of Vigo
Tuy
Orense
Monterey
Verin
Chaves
Villa Real
Lamego
Viseu
Aveiro
Coimbra
Figueira
Leiria
Thomar
Santarem
Abrantes
Castello Branco
Idanha
Penamacor
Sabugal
Almeida
Celorico
Guarda
Pinhel
Trancoso
Lamego
Peso da Regoa
Miranda do Douro
Mogadouro
Braganca
Vinhais
Monforte
Chaves
Montalegre
Barca d'Alva
Freixo
Torre de Moncorvo
Alfandega da Fe
Villa Flor
Mirandella
Macedo
Vimioso
Bragança
Miranda
Zamora
Toro
Tordesillas
Valladolid
Medina del Campo
Olmedo
Arevalo
Madrigal
Avila
Piedrahita
Barco de Avila
Bejar
Ciudad Rodrigo
Salamanca
Alba de Tormes
Ledesma
Vitigudino
Fuente Guinaldo
Sepulveda
Segovia
Riaza
Aranda
Roa
Peñaranda
Escurial
Madrid
Aranjuez
Ocaña
Illescas
Toledo
Talavera
Oropesa
Escalona
Navalcarnero
Valdemoro
Arganda
Guadalaxara
Brihuega
Sacedon
Cuenca
Huete
Belmonte
Villanueva de los Infantes
Alcaraz
Albacete
Chinchilla
Almansa
Villena
Sax
Elda
Elche
Alicante
Orihuela
Murcia
Lorca
Caravaca
Cehegin
Moratalla
Hellin
Tobarra
Almansa
Requena
Utiel
Chelva
Segorbe
Castellon de la Plana
Morella
Vinaroz
Peñiscola
Alcala de Chivert
Benicarlo
Tortosa
Amposta
Tarragona
Reus
Falset
Cervera
Lerida
Balaguer
Tremp
Benabarre
Fraga
Barbastro
Monzon
Huesca
Ayerbe
Jaca
Canfranc
Somport
Pau
Oleron
Mauleon
Bayonne
Biarritz
St. Jean de Luz
Irun

SPAIN,
AND
PORTUGAL.
DRAWN from the best AUTHORITIES.
1808
PART OF FRANCE
PYRENEES MOUNTAINS
NAVARRE
ARRAYGON
CATALONIA
MAJORCA I.
MINORCA I.
YVICA I.
FORMENTERA I.
Desert of Cartile
MURCIA
GULF OF VALENTIA
GULF OF CARTHAGENA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
ALGIER
PART OF AFRICA
Bayonne
Pamplona
Jaca
Huesca
Lerida
Tarragona
Barcelona
Vich
Girona
Tortosa
Morella
Alberazin
Cuenca
Segorbe
Valentia
Xativa
Alicant
Orihuela
Murcia
Lorca
Carthagena
Cabo de Palos
Cabo de Gata
Algier
C. Falcon
Oran
Port Mahon
Palma
Iviça
Formentera
London 1 0 1 Long. 2 East 3 from 4 London 5



the eyes of Guadiana," then passes by Cala-va, Cuidad Real, Medellin, Merida, Badajoz and Ayamonte, where it falls into the ocean, after running for some time in Alentejo, in Portugal, and separating that kingdom from Spain, having Castro Marin of Portugal on the west, and Ayamonte on the east.

The Duero rises in the Sierra of Orbion, and passes by Soria, Almazan, Osma, San Estevan de Gormaz, Aranda de Duero, Roa, Simancas, Valdesillas, Toro, Zamora, Miranda de Duero, Almego, and enters the ocean at Oporto, receiving the rivers Eresma, Adaja, Pisuerga, Ezla, Orueda, and others.

The Minho has its source in Galicia, near Castro del Rey. It runs south west, and passes by Lugo, Orrense, and Tuy, after which it divides Galicia from Portugal, and falls into the Atlantic at Caminha.

Other smaller rivers are also worthy of notice, such as the Segura, Guadalaviar, Lobregat, Xucar, Vidaso, Tinto, Guadalate, &c.

Spain may be said to enjoy a temperate and healthy air, neither so cold as the northern regions, nor so burning as the scorching heats of Africa, and abounds in cattle, game, fowl, corn, wool, silk, wax, honey, excellent wine, brandy, oil, and sugar, all kind of fruit and pulse, aromatic herbs and plants, the finest of oaks, quarries of marble, alabaster, jasper, and other precious stones; mines of silver, lead, copper, iron, mercury, antimony, and cobalt: in short, every natural advantage tending to the pleasure and happiness of mankind.

The territories of Spain are said to contain 225,000 square leagues *. According to returns made to the Count de Aranda, in 1768, the general population of the whole, including the Canaries and Mediterranean islands, amounted to about nine millions: in 1778, it was further calculated to be between ten and eleven millions, and supposed to be increasing.

Quitting Bayonne, I proceeded on my journey towards Spain, and travelling through an uneven country, began to perceive a species of slaty stone which announced the vicinity of the Pyrenees, about half a league distant. The environs of Anoa are mountainous. The farmers manure the ground with lime to sow maize or Indian corn, laying on a greater quantity for wheat, without which it yields nothing, which proves the necessity of this method to cherish and expand the tough and cold soil in mountainous countries.

Half a league from Anoa, a rivulet forms a boundary between France and Spain. The country is covered with fern, which they cut and heap in piles, till it rots and serves for manure. You next pass a Carthusian convent at the foot of a high mountain, chiefly of quartz †, whose summit is a rock of purplish sand, and from thence descend to the first village in Spain called Maya, seated in a valley where they have good crops of maize and turnips, and whose soil, though not calcareous, produces equally the same kind of plants; such as the alder, henbane, nightshade, swallow wort, figwort, thornapple, hawthorn, and bullace tree. After passing the village of Elizondo, and traversing the vale, I ascended a mountain of blueish lime rock, with fine beech towards the top, its sides lined with many other trees, such as alder, hawthorn, and helm. This mountain is one of the highest in this country, upon which is an inn, called Venta de Belate, not far from the top of the mountain.

From the mountain de Belate, it is an easy descent into another vale well cultivated with vines and corn, which extends as far as the city of Pampeluna, capital of the kingdom of Navarre. In this vale there is a wood of stately oaks, with plenty of box, thorn-tree, wild roses, and other common plants of cultivated countries. You keep constantly on the borders of a rivulet, running amongst round sand stones of a purple colour, similar to those on the other side towards France.

In this plain it is clearly seen how the limy rock decays, for in an almost perpendicular fissure above an hundred feet high, the earth which, at first sight, and even to the touch, appears to be clay, is nothing more than limy earth, mixed

* The Spanish league is 7680 varas. 17 Spanish leagues make one degree, equal to 20 French leagues.
Three Castilian feet make one vara of Castile, whose length is about 33 inches English.

† Quartz is a hard vitrifiable stone something intermediate between rock crystals and flints, or opake vitrifiable stones, well known to metallurgists, mineralogists, and miners. According to Cronstedt, it is easier to be known than described.

with a small portion of clay, the result of rotten plants as I experienced with the acid I always carry with me whenever I travel *.

Leaving Pampeluna, I traversed a champaign country for two leagues and a half to the mountain opposite, which having passed, a variety of cultivation takes place. Some limy rocks are so barren, that nothing is to be seen but butchers broom, a few oaks, juniper, and lavender, for two leagues and a half further, when I arrived at the city of Tafalla; then passing an extensive plain full of aromatic plants, had five leagues to Caparroso †.

From Caparroso I crossed a high hill where any miner might mistake the strata of gypseous stone, which is only one or two inches thick, for spar, but you may dig as deep as you please, and never find any thing but gypsum, which is very seldom seen where there is mineral. The country is every where barren and miserable, a perfect desert without water, and nothing but rosemary, lavender, and a few starved oaks. After quitting this wretched district, a fertile plain opens to the eye, supplied by wheels with water from the Ebro.

From Caparraso it is four leagues to the Ebro, in a plain bordered by a chain of hills from east to west, composed of limy earth mixed with gypseous stone, sometimes in strata, granulated, or in masses, white as snow. This chain extends about two leagues, and towards the middle, where it is the highest, stands the village of Valtierra: about half way up, there is a mine of fossil common salt, which being transparent and resembling chrystal, goes by the name of sal gem, and is seen above ground where the shaft is made at the entrance of the mine. About twenty paces within, one observes that the salt, which is white and abundant, has penetrated into the very beds of gypseous stone. This mine may be about four hundred paces in length, with several lateral shafts, upwards of eighty paces, supported by pillars of salt and gypsum, which the miners have very judiciously left at proper distances, so that it has all the appearance of a gothic cathedral. The salt follows the direction of the hill, inclining a little to the north, like the strata of gypsum, being comprised in a space about five feet in height without variation, and seems to have corroded several beds of gypsum and marl, and insinuated itself into their place, though much of those substances still remain.

At the end of the principal shaft, the miners have carried out a branch to the right, where the saline bed appears to have followed exactly the inclination of the hill, which in that part is very perpendicular: this stratum of salt descends to the valley, and goes on to the opposite hill; which regularity destroys the system of those who pretend that sal gem is formed by the evaporation occasioned by subterraneous fire ‡.

The strata of saline earth are of a dark blue, but those of salt are white. This mine is of a great elevation with respect to the sea, for you always go up hill to it from Bayonne, excepting those casual descents which are inseparable from mountainous countries.

It is a continual ascent from Valtierra to Agreda, the first town in Castile, on the top of one of the highest mountains in Spain, called Moreays, whose rocks so decompose into earth, as to be covered with plants, deserving the attention of a botanist, from the great variety thence afforded to the vegetable kingdom. From Agre-

* The same sort of earth, of a blueish colour, is found near Pampeluna, but harder, and so very hard in a hill opposite to the city, as to deserve the name of stone, disposed in strata with the same obliquity as the fissure above-mentioned, all which proves the decomposition of the rocks.

† This plain may be thrown into four divisions, the first from Tafalla being olive trees, the second vineyards, the third corn fields, and the fourth barren, except a few olive trees, and some corn fields near Caparroso, where a hill divides the plain, and now and then, the rounded purple stone shews itself again the same as in France.

‡ If this were the case, the beds would not be undulated in this manner, resembling those of coal at Chamond, near Lyons, in France, or those of Asphaltos, in Alsace, that follow the elevation and declivity of the hills or vallies, the bitumen often floating on the water when it meets with it. I am of opinion that salt grows in the mine like minerals, that coal is the product of fossil wood, as appears from such remnants as are found in the mines, and that the asphaltos is produced by the water of some spring. I examined attentively these strata of salt; comparing them with the matter in which they are embedded. I observed the roof to be of gypsum, with aromatic plants, then two inches of white salt, separated from the gypsum by a few threads of saline earth, then, three fingers breadth of pure salt, with two of stone salt, and a coat of earth next another blueish bed, followed by two inches of salt; and lastly, other beds alternately of earth, and chrystaline salt to the bed of the mine, which is gypseous stone undulated like the rest, descending to the valley, and rising on the opposite hills.

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the country is well cultivated to Hinojoss, without any trees or plants, as far as Abmeriz, and forwards to Abmazan, on the banks of the Dicero: examining this district, which produces wheat and barley, I discovered lime rock at a few feet from the surface, which for a great extent has an outward coat of sandy soil with quartz and sand stone totally different from the bottom, which gives it the appearance of a foreign matter brought from a distance. The phænomenon is singular, and those who are fond of hypotheses have here an ample field to employ their imagination,

Leaving Almazan you rise upon an eminence which affords an extensive prospect, the country at a distance having the appearance of a plain, the eye not being able to catch the many irregularities of ground. After some leagues of uncultivated land, the country improves; three leagues and a half further, I came to Paredes, and crossing a barren plain arrived at Baraona, then passing over the steep hill of Atienza, the confines of the two Castiles, I came in five hours to Xadraque, and four leagues further, to Flores; about half way, there is a place where there are hills with great clefts; one evidently sees they were caused by the rains which carry away the limy earth, and that all that country had been a plain, for the parts that remain without gullies, have a bottom of hard rock, and in proportion as the water makes its way through, they form gullies *.

In passing this road, you go through a wood of scarlet oak, whose leaves are covered with the gall insect, and on coming out of the wood, find a well cultivated country with vineyards, cornfields, and plenty of lavender, thyme, lavender cotton, and sage; then passing by the village of Hita at the foot of a pyramidal hill, rearing its lofty crest above the others, like a great rock in the sea, with an old Moorish castle on its summit.

Having crossed the river Henares you enter a fertile plain with a great deal of small grained sandy pebbles. It is remarkable that on entering New Castile, stone of this kind is always found, even in hills of limy earth: after passing a range of cultivated hills I arrived at the famous city of Alcala de Henares, with an university founded in 1449, by that great statesman Cardinal Ximenez de Cisneros, who also endowed it with a good library, and printed here, at his own expence, the first polyglot bible, known by the name of Complutensian. The university is a handsome structure, Ximenez is buried in the church with an elegant monument, by Dominico of Florence. The medallion of the Cardinal has been removed from the tomb into the library.

Alcala is only six leagues from Madrid, and belongs to the Archbishop of Toledo; it gave birth to Miguel Cervantes de Saveedra, the celebrated author of the much admired romance of Don Quixote. The country around is bleak, owing to the singular aversion which the Castilians have in general to the planting of trees. Nothing further occurred between this place and Madrid, the environs of which will be described on another occasion.

* I saw some just beginning, with a likelihood of rising into hills in the course of twenty years; from whence I conjecture, that if some hills give way, and crumble into plains, others, in the course of time by the motion of waters, gradually form themselves into mountains.

CHAPTER II.

Of the Merino Sheep—Miscellaneous Observations made at Madrid, with some Account of the Royal Cabinet of Natural History.

THE wool of Spain forms a considerable branch of our commerce with that country. It has even been said that its fine quality was originally owing to a few English sheep sent into Spain, as a present by our Henry the Second, or according to others, by Edward the Fourth, in 1465; but without entering into fruitless investigations of an event so remote, and of so little consequence, I shall confine myself to speak of those remarkable sheep known in Spain by the name of *Ganado Merino*, "The Merino flocks," and describe the constant method of conducting

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those numerous tribes from the northern to the southern provinces, to which they attribute that peculiar fine quality of the wool, which has rendered it so famous all over Europe.

There are two sorts of sheep in Spain, some that have coarse wool, and are never removed out of the province to which they belong, and others, that after spending the summer in the northern mountains, descend in the winter to the milder provinces of Estramadura, and Andalusia, and are distributed into districts, which go by the name of *Merindales*. These are the Merino sheep, of which it is computed there are between four or five millions in the kingdom*. The word Merino, signifies a governor of a province. The Merino mayor is always a person of rank appointed by the king. They have a separate jurisdiction over the flocks in Estremadura, which is called the *Mezla*, and there the king in person is Merino mayor †.

Each flock consists generally of ten thousand sheep, with a *Mayoral*, or head shepherd, who must be an active man well versed in the nature of pasture, as well as the diseases incident to his flock. This person has under him fifty inferior shepherds, and as many dogs, five of each to a tribe. The principal shepherd has a hundred pistoles (about £75) and a horse every year. The other servants have 150 rials for the first class (1£ 13*s.* 9*d.*) 100 rials for the second class, (£1 2*s.* 6*d.*) 60 rials for the third class (13*s.* 6*d.*) and 40 rials, or nine shillings for the other attendants. Each of these has an allowance of two pounds of bread a day, with the same quantity of an inferior sort for the dogs. They are likewise permitted to keep goats, and a few sheep, of which they have the meat, and the lambs, provided the wool remains, for their master. They may do what they please with the milk, of which they seldom make any advantage. In the months of April and October, each shepherd has twelve rials given him (about 2*s.* 9*d.*) as a perquisite previous to his journey.

Though these flocks divide and separate themselves over several provinces of Spain, it will be unnecessary to relate what passes in each, their government being similar and uniform. The places where they are to be seen in the greatest numbers are in the Montana and Molina de Aragon in the summer, and in the province of Estremadura, the Montana is to the north, and the most elevated part of Spain; Estremadura abounds with aromatic plants, but the Montana is entirely without them.

The first care of the shepherd in coming to the spot where they are to spend the summer, is to give to the ewes as much salt as they will eat; for this purpose they are provided with twenty-five quintals of salt for every thousand head, which is consumed in less than five months; but they eat none on their journey, or in winter. The method of giving it to them is as follows: The shepherd places fifty or sixty flat stones about five steps distant from each other; he strews salt upon each stone, then leads his flock slowly through the stones, and every sheep eats at pleasure. This is frequently repeated, observing not to let them feed on those days in any spot where there is lime-stone. When they have eaten the salt, they are led to some argillaceous spots, where from the craving they have acquired they devour every thing they meet with, and return again to the salt with redoubled ardour ‡.

At the end of July each shepherd distributes the

	Sheep.
* The Duke of Infantado's flock about -	40,000
Countess Campo de Alense Negretti - -	30,000
Paular, and Escurial convents, 30,000 each -	60,000
Convent of Guadalope - - - -	30,000
Marquis Perales - - - - -	30,000
Duke of Bejar - - - - -	30,000
Several flocks of about 20,000 each - -	200,000
All the other flocks in the kingdom together, on an average about - - - -	3,800,000
	4,220,000

In 1778, the wool of Infantado was 9285 arrobees in the grease, and Negretti nearly the same. Washed wool, coarse and fine together, worth at an average, eight and a half rials vellon per lb. (about 2*s.*) exclusive of duties, which are 20 per cent. on exportation.

There is a curious discourse on the wools of Spain in the second volume of the Spanish correspondence of Lord Sandwich, Lord Sunderland, and Sir William Godolphin, in a book entitled, Hispania Illustrata. London, 1772.

† There is a supreme council at Madrid called *Consejo de Mesta*, which takes cognizance of all matters relating to sheep, wool, shepherds, pastures, woods, and all concerns that belong to royal seats and parks.

‡ Mr. Bowles observes, that if the district is limy or marshy, the sheep eat less salt in proportion to the lime they find, and asking the reason of one of the shepherds, was told it proceeded from their grazing in corn fields, on which occasion the illiterate shepherd seemed to relate the fact

the rams amongst the ewes, five or six rams being sufficient for an hundred ewes. These are taken out of flocks where they are kept apart, and after a proper time are again separated from the ewes.

The rams give a greater quantity of wool, though not so fine as the ewes, for the fleeces of the ram will weigh twenty-five pounds, and it requires five fleeces of the ewes to give the like weight. The disproportion in their age is known by their teeth; those of the ram not falling before the eighth year, while the ewes, from their delicacy of frame, or other causes, lose their's after five years.

About the middle of September they are marked, which is done by rubbing their loins with ocre diluted in water; some say this earth incorporates with the grease of the wool, and forms a kind of varnish, which protects them from the inclemencies of the weather; others pretend that the pressure of the ocre keeps the wool short, and prevents it from becoming of an ordinary quality; others again imagine, that the ocre acts in the nature of an absorbent, and sucks up the excess of transpiration, which would render the wool ordinary and coarse.

Towards the end of September these Merino flocks begin their march to a warmer climate; the whole of their route has been regulated by the laws and customs, time immemorial. They have a free passage through pastures and commons belonging to villages, but as they must go over such cultivated lands as lie in their way, the inhabitants are obliged to leave them an opening ninety paces wide, through which these flocks are obliged to pass rapidly, going sometimes six or seven leagues a day in order to reach open spots, less inconvenient, where they may find good pasture, and enjoy some repose. In such open places they seldom exceed two leagues a day, following the shepherd and grazing as they move on. Their whole journey from the Montana, to the interior parts of Estremadura, may be about one hundred and fifty leagues, which they perform in about forty days.

The first care of the shepherd is to lead them to the same pasture where they have been the winter before, and where the greatest part of them were reared. The next business is to order the folds, which are made by fixing stakes, fastened with ropes one to the other, to prevent their escape, and being devoured by the wolves, for which purpose the dogs are stationed without. The shepherds build themselves huts with stakes and boughs, for the raising of which, as well as for fuel, they are allowed to lop off a branch from every tree. This law is the cause of so many trees being rotten and hollow, in places frequented by these flocks.

In April the time comes for their return to the Montana, which the flock expresses with great eagerness, by various movements and restlessness, for which reason the shepherds must be very watchful, lest they make their escape, which often happens when proper care is not taken, and whole flocks have sometimes strayed two or three leagues, while the shepherd was asleep, as on these occasions they generally take the straitest road to the place which they came from.

The first of May they begin to shear, unless the weather is unfavourable; for the fleeces being piled one above the other, would ferment in case of dampness, and rot; to avoid which, the sheep are kept in covered places to shear them more conveniently; for this purpose they have buildings that will hold twenty thousand at a time, which is the more necessary, as the ewes are so delicate, that if immediately after shearing they were exposed to the chilling air of the night, they would certainly perish.

Between fifty and sixty thousand bags of washed wool are annually exported out of Spain. A bag generally weighs eight arrobes, or 194 pounds English. About twenty thousand bags of this wool are sent annually to London and Bristol, worth from £30 to 35£ each, so that we have one-third of the produce, and of the best sort. The wool of Paular, which is the largest, though not the best, is reserved for the king of Spain's manufactories. The common and shooting dresses of the royal family of Spain and their attendants, are made of the cloth of Segovia, from whence our English nobility, in Henry the VIIth's time were supplied with fine cloth *.

fact though ignorant of the cause, which was, according to Mr. Bowles, "from the salt all limy matter abounds with, and partaken of by cattle, either in licking the stones, or communicated by vegetation to grass; for which reason their appetite is not so keen for any salt that is offered them:" however, we cannot admit this to be the true cause, as chemists are now well assured that lime does not contain any salt whatever.

* Breadth of Spanish cloth made at Segovia 1¼ths *vara*, or 57¼ths inches English.

The crown of Spain receives annually, by all duties together on exported wool, nearly sixty millions of reals vellon per annum (£675,000.)

The town of Madrid is now become the capital of the monarchs of Spain, situated in the center of their dominions, and from one of the filthiest places imaginable, is at present on a par for cleanliness with several principal cities of Europe, being likewise well paved and lighted, but in respect to population, it is far inferior to London, Paris, or Naples. Madrid is in a high situation; all the rivers and brooks in its neighbourhood fall into the Tagus, whose waters roll down to the ocean. The Guadarama mountains, to the north west of the town, are covered with snow several months in the year, which added to the piercing north winds, that reign in the winter, renders it excessively cold, while in summer the southern and westerly blasts are generally attended with dampness and rain. Travellers have told us, that the air is so subtle, that if a dead dog was thrown into the streets over night, he would not have a bit of flesh on his bones in the morning, but this is a fable, as it is a known fact, that dead dogs and cats lie in the streets continually, as well as dead mules, close to the road side, for days together, without any such effect.

The principal streets of Madrid are paved with cut flint, the others with pebbles, found in the neighbourhood, the cut flint on account of its sharpness is very inconvenient to foot passengers, and the flat pavement near the houses is too narrow. The town is well supplied with water, and there are conduits in the principal streets; that called Del Barro, in the neighbourhood of the town, is constantly drank by the royal family wherever they are. The bread is white and good, and the *Plaza Mayor*, or principal square, where the market is kept, is extremely well supplied with all manner of provisions *.

In the environs of Madrid there are about two hundred villages, but few can be seen on account of the inequality of the ground, the country being broken up by continual gullies, and various changes of aspect, occasioned by torrents, and other casual accidents, in a country little cultivated, and abandoned to every vicissitude of season. Near the town they chiefly sow barley, and here and there have some trifling vineyards. Their tillage is much the same as in Old Castile, that is, just to scratch up the earth, and scatter the seed at random, then to cover it over with a similar indifference, and wait for the coming of the poor labourers from Galicia, to get in their harvest. The farmers pretend that if they were to make use of a stronger plough, they should have less corn †.

The royal cabinet of Natural History, at Madrid, was opened to the public by his Majesty's orders in 1775; a handsome house having been purchased, of which the first floor was appropriated for the Royal Academy of San Fernanda, and the second for the purpose of receiving an ample collection of natural curiosities, which had been collected in Paris by Don Pedro Davila, a native of Peru, which his Majesty has accepted of, and appointed him director thereof; and was also at the charge of

* Mr. Bowles has observed, that if that celebrated professor, Mr. Henckel, had come to Madrid, he would soon have been convinced of his error, in saying that flint was not to be found in strata, and only in detached lumps, or in masses; for here he would find all the environs replete with strata of flint; and moreover not a house or a building, but what has been constructed with lime made of flint, which serves for fire arms, as well as for the pavement. In some places pieces are found of it full of a species of agate, streaked with red, blue, white, green, and black, that take a very good polish, but these colours are accidental, and disappear by calcination. No acid will dissolve it, or cause any effervescence; when calcined, it burns in the water with more violence than true lime-stone, and mixed with the pebble or coarse sand near Madrid, makes an excellent material for building, though it does not answer so well with the fine sand of the river.

† Nothing can be more bleak and dismal than the general aspects of the country round the seat of its monarch, with a great want of trees, to which the Castilians have such a dislike, from a false notion that they increase the number of birds to eat up their corn; as if this reason would not hold good in other countries, where shade is not so necessary, as it is in Castile, to support the moisture of the soil; or that it was ever an objection in Valencia, a kingdom so fertile and wooded: the Castilians not reflecting, that the seeds of plants, and leaves of trees, afford nutrition for insects, and birds, and prevent them from destroying the grain as they do in Castile, for want of other food; besides the advantage of screening the earth in hot weather, and preserving a due moisture after dews and rain; for without their aid, the scorching beams of the sun parch up the earth, and renders it unfruitful; so that what little comes up is devoured by birds, in a climate where nature seems to have designed it should be otherwise; for the climate of Madrid is not in itself averse to the propagation of trees, as may be seen by the public walks, and modern improvements and plantations.

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bringing them from Paris. Every thing is ranged with neatness and elegance, and the apartments are opened twice a week for the public, besides being shewn privately to strangers of rank.

The collection of beasts and birds is not large. They have, among other curiosities, the great Ant Bear from Buenos Ayres, the Myrmecophaga Jubacta of Linnæus, called by the Spaniards *Osa Palmera*, which was alive at Madrid in 1776, and is now stuffed and preserved in this cabinet. The people who brought it from Buenos Ayres, say, it differs from the ant-eater, which only feeds on emmets and other insects; whereas this would eat flesh, when cut in small pieces, to the amount of four or five pounds. From the snout to the extremity of the tail this animal is two yards in length, and his height is about two feet. The head very narrow, the nose long and slender. The tongue is so singular, that it looks more like a worm, and extends above sixteen inches. His body is covered with long hair, of a dark brown, with white stripes on the shoulders; and when he sleeps he covers his body with his tail.

The mineral part of the cabinet, containing precious stones, marbles, ores, &c. is very perfect. Amongst other curiosities they have a mass of gold 22 carats, which weighed sixteen marks, four ounces, four ochavos, Spanish weight, found in California, and sent by the viceroy of Mexico as a present worthy of his Majesty's acceptance; also several curious specimens of silver ore, from the Guadalcanal mine in Estremadura, of that sort called *Rosicler*.

Specimens of Mexican and Peruvian utensils, vases, &c. in earthenware of that kind, which the Spaniards call *Barra*, wretched both in taste and execution. Some productions likewise of Otaheite, which the Spaniards call *amath*.

A curious collection of vases, basons, ewers, cups, plates, and ornamental pieces of the finest agates, amethysts, rock crystals, &c. mounted in gold, and enamel, set with cameos, intaglios, &c. in an elegant taste, and the most delicate workmanship, said to have been brought from France by Philip *.

That beautiful equestrian statue of Philip the IVth, by Tacca of Florence, which stands in a little flower garden of the Retiro, is worthy of the highest admiration. The attitude of the horse is surprisingly bold, with both his fore feet in the air; and was imitated from a picture of Velasquez, sent to Italy for that purpose. When seen by the Florentine artists, they all agreed it was impossible to execute it; however Tacca with the assistance of Galileo happily applied the principles of equilibrium, and succeeded beyond expectation. This unfortunate artist died soon after of grief from the treatment he received from the grand duke's minister, concerning this statue, but his eldest son Ferdinand came to Madrid, and fixed the parts together, which were three in number, and placed the statue properly. Six hundred and fifty-six quintals of 128lb. of metal each, were employed in the casting. Its height, including the pedestal, is 84 palmos (19 feet 9 inches English †) In an inventory of the effects of the Retiro, it was valued at forty thousand pistoles (£28,000) an enormous sum, and much more than it could ever have cost. It was proposed a few years ago to remove this statue to some more conspicuous place, but it was said to have been objected to by the then prime minister, Marquis de Grimaldi, alledging that they must not pay any attention to the house of Austria, but he would have no objection if the head of Philip could be changed for that of Charles the IIIrd.

Tacca also finished the equestrian statue of Philip the IIIrd, in the Casa del Campo, left imperfect by John de Bologna at his death, and

* Were painting and sculpture my objects, this would be the place to describe the many fine pictures in the royal palace, and in the noblemen's houses at Madrid; but I pass them over the more readily, as modern travellers have described the most beautiful of these pictures. I shall just observe that a late writer who spent some time at Madrid, speaking of the church of the Visitation, called *Las Salesas*, where the late king Ferdinand and his queen are interred, tells us, that at the principal altar, there is a fine copy of Raphael's Transfiguration; whereas it happens to be a good picture of the Visitation, in allusion to the name of the church, and done by Francisco de Murota Naples. It is true a most excellent copy of Raphael's transfiguration may be seen at another church belonging to the convent of St. Teresa, placed there by the founder, the Prince de Astillana, who considered it as an original of Raphael, and valued it at ten thousand pistoles (about £700.) It is supposed to have been done by Julio Romano, the ablest and favourite scholar of Raphael. The same writer speaking of the pictures in the palace of Buen Retiro in the saloon, named *De los Reynos*, calls one picture "Santa Cruz succouring Geneva;" whereas it is the surrender of Genoa to that officer, being placed amongst other historical pieces of the times, which are termed by him, "Scripture subjects of the Old Testament."

† A Spanish palmo is eight inches and a quarter.

was brought to Madrid in 1616, by Antonio Guidi, brother-in-law to Tacca, attended by Andrew Tacca, another brother of the sculptor, who brought with him the gilt crucifix fixed on the altar of the Pantheon at the Escurial. The mention of the Retiro has naturally led me into the agreeable gardens of that palace, and to the menagerie, where, among other curiosities, they have a crested falcon from the Carraccas. This curious bird, which is about the size of a turke raises the feathers on his head in the form of crest, and has a hooked bill; the lower mandib rather straight; his back, wings, and throat black, the belly white, the tail distinguished four cinereous, and parallel stripes, and is an descript bird not taken notice of by Linnæus.

CHAPTER III.

Description of the Palace and Gardens of Aranjuez—The Royal Seat and Gardens of St. Ildefonso, with some Account of the City of Segovia.

THE royal seat of Aranjuez, seven leagues distant from Madrid, and to which a most noble road has been made, is delightfully situated at the conflux of the rivers Tagus and Jarama; which run through the gardens, and add new beauty to this charming spot, where art and nature seem to go hand in hand with the most pleasing and rural simplicity. On one side, five avenues of stately oaks and lofty elms convey the truest ideas of magnificence, while they afford the most reviving shade; on the other, the sudden transitions to lawns and wilderness, the cascades of water breaking through the thickets, the tuneful songs of numberless birds, sheltered in these cool recesses, the occasional appearance and passage of the monarch, attended by the grandees of his kingdom; all these objects united, and concentered in one point, fill the imagination with pleasing ideas, and impress the mind of a traveller with a thousand agreeable sensations, particularly in the spring, when every thing is in high bloom and perfection, and engage him to look at Aranjuez as one of the most beautiful places in Europe.

The whole of these gardens may be thrown into three grand divisions, distinguished by the names of *La Huerta Valenciana, Los Deleites,* and *El Cortijo.* In the Huerta Valenciana agriculture and gardening are carried on in the same manner as in that fruitful province, and they plough with horses. In the Cortijo they use oxen, as in Andalusia; and in other places they scratch up the ground with mules, as is still practised in some parts of Spain. Whichever way one looks round, a constant variety pleases the eye and enraptures the mind. At one mome the sturdy buffalo moves before you, drawing heavy burthen; soon after the slow camel wi his ponderous load; while the swift zebra wi his striped garment frisks over the plain. you approach the farm, every object of conv nience is consulted, and in the dairy every degr of neatness. The Dutch cow enjoys a luxuria pasture, the brood mares greatly enliven the lan scape, and the stables are filled with the most e cellent horses. An immense nursery furnishes manner of trees and plants, a cedar of Liban which about twenty years ago was only a tw is now thirty feet high: the garden called t *Isla* is particularly beautiful and rural. The Jud tree, which the Spaniards call *Arbol de Amor,* ing happily dispersed there, has a very good effe early in the spring, when covered with flow without a single leaf; the banks of the Isla a further enlivened by elegant yachts, for th amusement of the royal family. The fine aven which also serves for a public walk, called *Cal de la Reyna,* has nothing equal to it at Versail The extensive flower garden on one side, render the walk extremely pleasant in an evening; a were I to mention the quantities of flowers a fruit, it would require many details.

At the noon-tide hour, when the freshness the morning is past, the shady walks near th palace then become an object of singular luxur as well as the elegant fountains, whose sporti waters give such a coolness to the air. Whoeve has enjoyed the agreeable moments that pass pleasing converse under these shady bowers, w surely be charmed with their admirable effec

The nightingale and cuckoo are heard here the latter end of April. That elegant bird, the bee-eater, called by the Spaniards *abejaruxo*, the merops apiaster of Linnæus, which our travellers tell us comes no further south than Andalusia, is known not only to breed at Aranjuez and live there all the year round, but is also found at St. Ildefonso, which is twenty leagues more to the northward. The golden thrush is also seen here, as well as the icterus of Edwards, called *oropendulo* by the Spaniards, and *l'auriot* by the French, the oriolus of Catesby and Linnæus. Amidst the great variety of birds in these woods, there is one about the size of a cuckow, called *Pito*, of a beautiful purple.

The palace being an old building with several additions is more in the style of a hunting seat, as Philip the IId. designed it, than of a royal mansion, nor is there any thing very particular in the apartments, to take off from the enjoyment of so many fine objects abroad. The new wings to the palace are finished; in one is a playhouse, and in the other a chapel. Part of the cieling of the former was painted by Mengs.

There are seven fine pictures of Lucca Jordano in the apartment called *El Cabinete Antiquo*, and six others in that *de los Mayordomos*; particularly one, universally admired, in which a number of beasts are represented listening to Orpheus, and seeming to be struck with the melody of his lyre. In the chapel, over the great altar, there is a fine picture of the annunciation by Titian, presented to him by Charles the Vth, and brought from the convent of St. Juste after the death of that emperor. The Porcelain Cabinet, where there are several large pieces of the king's own manufactory, is also an object of curiosity to a traveller. In a word, this charming place is highly indebted to Charles the IIIrd, for bringing the whole to its present state of beauty, and making the new road from Madrid, and the noble stone bridge over the Jarama.

Whoever has seen the gardens of Aranjuez will not think it extraordinary that the sovereign of Spain should have another agreeable seat in the fertile dominions of his crown, but when a traveller has crossed the craggy and bleak mountains of Guadarrama, it will be a matter of singular surprise to behold one of the most dreary rocks embellished with an agreeable villa, where the mines of Mexico have been lavished to effect the alteration; such is the royal seat of St. Ildefonso; for in few parts of the world, the powers of art have been more strenuously exerted to correct the rugged state of nature, and convert a horrid rock into a sumptuous garden, decorated with beautiful fountains, throwing up water to a great height, like those of Versailles; while a variety of trees, brought from different parts of the world, furnish shady walks, in a spot unfavourable by nature to all kinds of vegetation; shewing to what the art of man can attain, and fully evincing the efforts of Philip the Vth, who at the expence of millions of dollars changed a barren and solitary mountain, into one of the most desirable spots in his kingdom; yet not without those inconveniences which all the power of art cannot conquer; for, on account of its lofty situation, the night air, even after the hottest summer's day, is so piercing, that it makes precaution necessary, to guard against its sudden and pernicious effects. In other respects nothing can be more reviving during the summer heats, than the shade of these gardens, invigorating the languid courtier, whose spirits are further revived by the coolness of the groves, added to the most limpid water that eyes can behold, in some places flying up into the air, to an immense height, in others rolling down in torrents, which, when catched by the rays of the sun, seem like so many sheets of liquid silver, of a most amazing brightness. As the cold air of this place keeps every thing back, the king finds a new spring after he has left Aranjuez, while his subjects are dying with heat at Madrid. The earliest fruits are but just ripe in August at St. Ildefonso, carnations and roses then adorn the parterres; September is the season for strawberries, raspberries, currants, and barberries; and snow lies on the mountains till the beginning of June. Many springs run down from the summit, and sides of the mountains, and are collected into a considerable bason at the upper end of the garden, to which they have given the name of *El Mar*, "the sea;" whence they are distributed to all the different fountains and water-works, the whole garden being on a slope, about two miles in circumference. Other springs with two brooks, form the little river Eresma, abounding in salmon trout, where the king often diverts himself with fishing, under the shade of thickets, beautifully variegated by the pencil of nature.

The dreary mountain at the top of these gardens *, is a kind of rock composed of clay and fine sand, which by degrees crumbling and mixing with rotten leaves and roots, forms that light coat of earth, which just covers the rock, and gives nurture to the firs and other trees and shrubs. The foot of the mountain is of granite, and serves for building, sometimes for mill-stones, though rather too soft for this purpose, standing in need of frequent repairs. They get vegetative earth on the north side, about a hundred paces from the green rails of the flower garden, which being further cherished by manure, is laid a foot high on the rock, and by dint of cultivation and care, they are enabled to raise flowers and fruits, whose roots hardly touch the barren soil of the place †.

The palace of St. Ildefonso has a noble collection of excellent pictures. In the gallery there are many fine statues bought at Rome, out of the collection of queen Christina of Sweden; amongst which the groupe of Castor and Pollux sacrificing, and a fawn, are undoubtedly the most beautiful. The statues in the garden are chiefly of marble of Granada, some few of marble of Carrara: there is nothing else remarkable except the fine looking glasses made in the king's glass house at St. Ildefonso, which supplies all the palaces: they have here the largest tables perhaps in the world for running plate glass. The greatest being 145 inches by 85, and its weight 405 arrobes. The smaller is 120 inches by 75, and weighs 380. This curious art was first invented by the Sieur Abraham Thevart, who proposed it to the court of Versailles in 1668, and is performed much like the casting of sheet lead by the plumbers, by which means they are enabled to make glasses of double the dimensions of those by the Venetian method of blowing, besides other improvements ‡.

At a small distance from the palace, at a place called the *Mata*, near the powder magazine, there is a vein of quartz, which appears above ground, running from south to north for about half a league, till it enters and loses itself in the opposite mountain. A piece of this quartz, of about six pounds, being cut, seemed very curious, being half transparent, and almost as fine as rock crystal of a milk colour, forming those veins called by miners, "noble veins."

The environs of St. Ildefonso, and particularly the foot of the mountain, are covered with a remarkably fine sort of grass, to which they give the name of *cosquilla*, from its effect of tickling the hand when touched. The root is about eight inches long, cylindrical, and about the size of a pin, diminishing towards the point; in the middle of this root, which is smooth, the stem springs up, bearing small capsules at their points, inclosing the seed; in many places, and particularly at Segovia, they make use of it at Christmas for ornaments in the churches, to imitate verdure; it likewise grows in abundance in the plain of Olmedo, and is seldom to be seen elsewhere.

It is only a few hours ride from St. Ildefonso, to the city of Segovia. The naturalist will meet with many objects of curiosity in the environs of this city, observing its different species of marble, granite, limestone, clays, and three sorts of sand. Its famous Roman aqueduct remaining so perfect to this day, will prove the solidity of its mate-

* Speaking of the gardens of St Ildefonso, Mr. Fischer observes, that they have a number of fountains, and a staircase for a cascade; but the only pleasing part of it is where you get out of the sight of these, and see "while the dog star rages, through the overhanging trees, the side of the mountain patched with snow. The fountains are situated in centres, whither the straight walks tend: they are all inferior in size to the largest at Versailles; but one of them, a figure of Fame, is said to raise water higher than any in Europe. *Fischer.*

† Mr. Bowles informs us, That when the late queen mother lived at St. Ildefonso, the Infant, Don Lewis, her son, had an aviary in the gardens, filled with a great variety of beautiful birds; one place was allotted for woodcocks, where they lived for several years. In the middle of their cage a channel of spring water was introduced, which kept up a constant freshness of verdure; a fir tree stood in the centre, surrounded with shrubs, and they were daily supplied with fresh clods of turf, full of worms, which, though they hid themselves ever so much therein, the bird would instantly discover by the smell, and driving in his long bill bring them immediately out, then raising his head towards the sky, and extending the worm gently the length of his bill, would let it slide down softly without any appearance of deglutition; all which was performed with the utmost facility, as if totally unemployed, without ever missing its aim, and should the woodcock be killed at that moment, these nauseous worms would immediately contribute towards the forming a delicious repast at the most elegant tables.

‡ Although the glass manufactory of St. Ildefonso has produced much larger glasses than any other in Europe, they are nevertheless complained of as being of a dead and black colour. *Fischer.*

…le, more effectually than long dissertations. …. Seguier's method of discovering the inscrip… on the *Maison Quarrée* at Nimes, the in…ention of which is originally due to that cele…rated antiquary, Mons. Peyresc, might likewise …rve to discover that, which was formerly on the …queduct of Segovia, for the place of the inscrip…on, marks, and holes of the letters, are yet very …ible. This place is much dwindled at present …om what it was formerly. The cathedral is handsome and has been lately repaired*; the mint in this city only serves for copper: gold and silver are coined at Madrid and Seville. The alcazar or castle is curious, and in a fine bold situation †. The unfortunate Duke de Ripperdo was confined here; they shew you the dark room, from whence he made his escape, and the broken lock on the door is still in the same situation.

CHAPTER IV.

…eparture from Madrid for the City of Burgos—Remarkable Objects on the Road from Burgos to the Provinces of Alaba and Guipuscoa, as far as Irum, the last Town on the Frontiers of Spain towards France—Environs of Reinosa—Source of the River Ebro.

ON leaving Madrid, to go into Old Castile, the first grand objects which strike the eye of a naturalist, are the mountains of Guadarrama, that divide the Two Castiles: you leave the famous Escurial on the left, and following the new road, ascend these lofty mountains, whose tops, and particularly where the marble lion stands, are chiefly covered with fern, which is common here, though scarce in other parts of this country. From the highest part of the road, there is an extensive prospect of Old Castile, which is more elevated than New Castile, and forms a spacious plain not unlike a great sea. An easy descent leads to the *Hermita del Christo del Caloco*, where grey and blue marble is dug out of the adjacent mountain, and is found almost close to the road. The mountain terminates at Villacastin, but the grand plain only commences at Labajos, where they sow the peas called *Garbanzos* in a fine blackish soil, but they are not equally tender and large every year, no more than at Salamanca or Zamora; for though the land is good for this sort of pulse, its success depends much upon the weather.

A new bridge has been lately built over the river Almarza, whose banks are lined with poplar and elm; half a league further there is another plain, without a single tree, but water is found at two or three feet depth; so that a very slight plough answers the purpose, it being sufficient to tear away the weeds, to secure a good crop of wheat; this is generally the case in Castile, where they have fine harvests without being obliged to wait for rain to sow their corn, the vicinity of water and strong dews being sufficient to fertilize the soil, the reverse of what happens in the southern parts, where the water is deep under ground, the soil dry and tough, and strong ploughs must be used; besides waiting for rain or an appearance of its falling, otherwise the grain hardens, and is in danger of being devoured by birds, insects, or rats. In these plains, the villages are numerous, as well as the vineyards; the soil is sandy, and yet, by means of the nearness of water, produces plenty of shumach: every house has its garden, and the sides of the road are chequered with the lychynis, and oak of Jerusalem. Though the plain I have just mentioned is of about eight leagues extent, without the appearance of a spring, or a brook,

* The cathedral is a building which would puzzle any connoisseur in Gothic architecture extremely, being a piece of the sixteenth century; it is large and lofty, with a high tower and little domes, retaining in its outline much of the Gothic character, but very plain, and unlike any particular style of that species of building, and perfectly dissimilar to the florid manner which obtained in England during the fifteenth century. *Fischer.*

† This is the most picturesque object in the world. The great tower has been lately cleaned, which rather modernizes its appearance; but the effect of the whole mass of turrets, chambers, and spires, as viewed from behind, beyond the foss, is as romantic as possible. The front of the castle is covered by rings worked in the plaister with which it is covered, an ornament of Moorish origin. *Fischer.*

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the inhabitants drink the waters of wells and cisterns, without any bad consequences, or being troubled with agues, as the water does not stagnate, but has a current near the surface, and regains from a higher region, what it loses by evaporation. This accounts for their having such fine grass and pasture in Castile, and so many herds of cattle, with such a variety of game, birds, and wild and domestic animals.

Near Valladolid there are groves of fir trees terminated by an extensive plain, covered with green wormwood, oak of Jerusalem, and thyme, of that beautiful sort called thymus legitimus Hispanicus. The city of Simancas * appears on the left, about two leagues distance, as you enter the once famous city of Valladolid, situated on the banks of Pisuerga. This large city exclusive of colleges and some churches that have good remains of Gothic architecture, now only exhibits the dismal remains of its former grandeur; and the palace where Philip the Second was born, has nothing but bare walls, where bats and spiders quietly inhabit the mansions of the great Emperor Charles, and the Philips, his progeny.

Every thing is barren, with dreary aspects of flat topped, barren sand hills, as far as Caveron, where they have vineyards, and make a tolerable light red wine. Leadwort is common on the side of the road, whose leaves pounded, are said to be good against the gangrene. The vineyards are numerous, near the town of Duenas, which belongs to the Duke of Medina Celi. The plain extends to Rodrigo, whose environs produce a little lavender, two sorts of shrubby Jerusalem sage, with a sage leaf, and meadow ragwort, which are the only plants the country affords. All the territory of Campos is so bare and destitute of trees, that the inhabitants are obliged for fuel, to burn vinestocks, straw, dung, and the few aromatic shrubs they can find; their kitchens are like stoves, and they sit round them on benches, giving to these wretched hovels the emphatic name of *Glorias*. A solitary elm or a walnut tree now and then appears near a church, a sure sign that water is not far from the surface, and that its roots have partaken of it †.

On approaching the hills, the pebbles which had almost disappeared, shew themselves again, increased both in number and bulk, and although from Labajos they were scarcely larger than oranges, they are now double that size, and rounded, which the others are not, covering the tops of the hills: it is somewhat singular, that these stones, which are of a fine sandy grain, and are found every where in this province, should be of the very identical sort and colour, as those of La Mancha, Molina de Arragon, and other parts of Spain.

The country from hence to Burgos, produces plenty of wheat, and some flax; the road is a continual though gentle ascent, with much conglutinated sandstone, of which there is a sort near Burgos, so firmly conglutinated with small pebble, that it forms a marble like the *Breccia* ‡, and takes a good polish, specimens of which may be seen in the choir of the cathedral of Burgos. The environs of this ancient city are remarkably pleasant and shady, with many

* The records of the kingdom having been found to be in great confusion, and a large collection of valuable papers discovered at Valladolid, Philip II. ordered his chief architect, Juan de Herrera to construct proper apartments at Simancas for their preservation, and they were disposed of in nine grand divisions, or apartmentss accordingly. In the strongest, called the *Cubo*, were those relating to Granada, Indies, right to Naples, Navarre, Portugal, Vicariate of Siena, monarchy of Sicily, establishment of the inquisition, wills of kings, capitulations of peace with France, with Moorish kings, with the House of Austria, marriages of catholic kings, grants of military orders, and state papers from the time of Ferdinand V. all which are preserved in wooden cases fixed in the wall. In the year 1592 the king visited them. All the proceedings relating to the imprisonment and death of Don Carlos his son, were deposited here in a trunk, carefully locked. Another apartment was built for accounts, and other office papers; in another were papers relating to royal palaces; law suits, grants, knights of military orders, and Indies; another for records of corporations; and in another the memorials and letters of kings, princes, and states, concerning Flanders since the rebellion. Vida de Philipe II. Por Luis Cabriera de Cordova, Madrid, 1619. The American papers alone fill the largest apartment of this *Archivo*, and are said to compose 873 large bundles. The prospect of such a treasure had excited the most ardent curiosity of the most elegant historian of America, but the prospect of it was all that he enjoyed. *Preface to Dr. Robertson's History of America.*

† When this happens, independent of every vicissitude of weather and climate, other trees would thrive in like manner, and the country might be rendered shady and pleasant, instead of being the most desolate in Europe.

‡ The breccia silicia is the plumb pudding stone. This stone is of a very elegant appearance, when cut and polished; it is found in England. See Essay towards a System of Mineralogy, by Axel Fred. Cronstedt; second edition. London, 1772. Sec. CCLXXIII.

autiful avenues: the hills are no longer flat-pped, but have a cheerful appearance; the aters are pure and salubrious; the rivers abound ith trout, eel, and cray-fish. Though the air sharp and rather piercing, it is esteemed very ealthy, and Castile may justly be reckoned the ountry of partridges, hares, rabbits, and lambs.

The city of Burgos is situated on the side of hill, at the bottom of which the river Arlanzon ashes its walls, and has three stone bridges er it. The cathedral is a magnificent Gothic ructure, and one of the finest in Spain. The ity is well inhabited by ancient nobility, and as formerly the residence of their kings. It ave birth to that illustrious hero Fernan Gon-ales, and near the place where the house stood, triumphal arch has been erected to his memory the expence of the city, with the following scription:

FERNANDO GONSALVI CASTELLÆ ASSERTORI SVÆ ETATIS PRÆTTANTISSIMO DVCI MAGNORVM REGVM GENITORI SVO CIVI INTVS DOMVS ARAE SVMPTV PVBLICO AD ILLIVS. NOMINIS ET VRBIS GLORIÆ MEMORIAM SEMPITERNAM."

The parish church of Santa Gadea, (St. Agatha), more ancient than the cathedral, is remarkable for being the place, where that renowned champion Ruy Diaz de Bibar, also a native of Burgos, commonly called the *Cid Campeador*, obliged king Alfonso the Sixth, before he was proclaimed, to swear three times publicly, that he had no concern in the murder of the late king Sancho his brother, at the siege of Zamora, where he was treacherously slain by a Spanish knight, whose name was Heliel Alfonso, though he is usually called Velido Dalfos. The words of this extraordinary oath were as follow: "You come to swear, that you had no hand in the death of my lord the king, that you neither killed him, nor gave counsel therein."

The king and his nobles answered, "*Amen.*"

"If otherwise, may you suffer the same death as that of my lord; may a villain kill you, let him not be a gentleman, nor born at Castile, but come from foreign parts, nor be of the kingdom of Leon." The king and his nobles answered, "Amen *."

After this ceremony, Alfonso was solemnly proclaimed king of Castile, Leon, Galicia, and Portugal, in the presence of the infanta his sister, and the prelates, and nobles of his kingdom.

Quitting Burgos, new objects appear worthy of attention; in crossing an extensive plain, the gum-bearing cistus is seen in great plenty; it is an ever-green, with long, narrow, leaves, gummy and glossy; the flower is inodorous, and composed of fine white petals, of the size of a common rose; each petal having a little purple spot on the tip of it. The old branches distil a liquid matter, which the heat of the sun condenses into a white sugary substance, like a piece of gum, of the size of one's finger, and yields a true manna; it is gathered and eat greedily by shepherds and boys. The Spaniards were little apprised of the advantages to be drawn from this plant, till of late years, when, on the representation of the royal college of physicians at Madrid, in 1752, orders were given to two of its members, to make a further investigation of this production; it was found that Spain alone could procure manna sufficient to supply all Europe, equal in goodness to that of Calabria, in Naples; for not only an incredible quantity of it was gathered in the parts abovementioned, where it is formed about the dog days, but likewise in the mountains of Asturias, Galicia, Cuenca, Arragon, and Catalonia, though no use had hitherto been made of it.

The descent to Monasterio leads to a valley fertile in corn, soon after the district of Bureba begins, which is a champaign country, and populous, with numerous gardens, well stocked with fruit trees. Near Bribiesca they manure their land with a sort of blueish white marl; marl, being in its nature, a compound of different properties of argillaceous, and calcareous earths, is of great use in agriculture: it is some-

* At the second time of tendering the oath the king changed colour, and at the third he was greatly displeased, saying, "Rodrigo Diaz, why do you press me so hard, and make me swear to-day, when you will come to kiss my hand to-morrow?" to which that warrior replied, "Yes, Sir, if my services are properly considered, for in other kingdoms, knights are also rewarded, and you must do the same, if you mean to retain me in your service;" which speech the king never forgave, and soon after ordered him to retire out of the kingdom, allowing him only nine days for that purpose. The Spanish chronicles are full of the achievements and feats of the *Cid*. He died in 1099, and is buried in the church of St. Pedro de Cardena, near Burgos, where his memory is held in the highest veneration.

times soft, at other times hard, like stone, or slate, but generally crumbles by exposure to the air.

The road to Pancorvo traverses calcareous mountains, forming part of those called "Los Montes de Oca," by which the Pyrenees are joined to the northern mountains of Spain. The town of Pancorvo lies in the narrowest part of a valley closed in by these hills.

The boundaries of Old Castile are at Miranda de Ebro, three leagues beyond Pancorvo, where there is a bridge over the Ebro *; on the other side of which, the province of Alaba begins, whose inhabitants have likewise made a fine road, at their own expence, to the confines of Guipuscoa. The road continues almost to Vitoria, bordering on the river Zadorra, in which the water lily grows plentifully. The hills are of small, and various co'oured calcareous stone, conglutinated together. The first village in the province of Guispuscoa, is Salinas, so called from its briny springs, which they evaporate with a boiling heat, and make salt. It is remarkable, that such springs in France, and Lorraine, are always in valleys, but in Spain are constantly found on the tops of mountains, or in elevated places. This just mentioned, is on a very high hill, with numerous petrifactions of shells, in a kind of blueish marble, veined with spar, which has been used in making the road. The hill of Salinas is the highest part of Guipuscoa.

From hence, it is four leagues to Mondragon, so famous for its iron mine in this neighbourhood. From Mondragon it is a journey of six leagues to Legaspia, passing by a forge on the banks of the river *Ona*, where they mix the ore of two mines, *viz.* that of Somorrostro in Biscay, noted for the flexibility of its metal, with the ore of this neighbourhood, which being more abundant and hard, takes forty hours in roasting, and is then fused once without any castina †, getting at each fusion a quintal of iron, following the same method observed with the iron of Somorrostro.

Onate is a populous and affluent town; the church, the colonade, and statues of the college are of sand-stone, full of mica ‡.

It is five hours and a half from Legaspia to Villafranca, passing by Villareal, where the houses are of sand-stone. They prune the oaks every where in this country, in the same manner as the mulberry trees in Valencia, that they may throw out more branches, to make charcoal for the forges, and they cut them every eight or ten years, as in Biscay. There are few springs in all these hills, though it so frequently rains, owing to the tenacity of the soil, which impedes the filtration of the water, so that they are obliged to drink melted snow from the mountains, yet without being troubled with the full-throat, so often attributed to this cause, though more probably arising from obstructions in the glands for want of perspiration. Two-thirds of the inhabitants of this province, pass the days and nights in their smoaky cabins, without chimnies, affirming, that the closeness and smoak are conducive to health, as they dissipate dampness, and promote perspiration. The inhabitants are certainly not only robust, but are even seldom troubled with rheums: they are moreover cheerful and sociable, having none of that shyness observed in the meridianal provinces.

From Villafranca, it is three leagues to Tolosa, one of the three principal cities of Guipuscoa, and from hence the road continues in sight of St. Sebastian's, and Pasage, to Irum, the last town in Spain. Near this place the river Bidasoa enters the ocean, dividing Spain from France, and at a small distance from its mouth, the island of Pheasants is remarkable for having been the place where the Pyrenean treaty was concluded in 1660.

That part of Spain called Montana de Burgos," may be thrown into two grand divisions. The first takes in all that space from the highest

* This bridge, which had been so much damaged, and part of it carried away by inundations, when Mr. Swinburne passed this way, and was obliged to go over in a ferry, was entirely repaired when I went over it in July, 1778.

† Castina is a hard calcareous stone, of a whitish grey, used in forges, where iron is fused, in order to absorb the sulphureous acid, that mineralizes the iron, and renders it brittle.

‡ Mica, the glimmer, daze, or gift. See Cronstedt's Mineralogy, sect. xciii. London, 1772. Mica, or talk, is an earthy or strong substance, consisting of thin, flexible shining plates; micas have a soft touch, resembling that of unctuous substances. They are not soluble by acids. They are incapable of eliciting sparks when struck by steel, as flints do, for which reason they are called *Apyri*, that is, without fire; nor do they form a tenacious paste with water, as gypsum does. Mica is therefore neither a calcareous, siliceous, argillaceous, nor gypseous earth.

part of the mountains, to the Bay of Biscay, and the other, the space extending the same height towards Castile. The highest part of these mountains, is that intermediate situation between Santander, and Burgos, it being a continual ascent of fourteen leagues from Santander to Reinosa, descending afterwards from thence, as far as Burgos. The source of the Ebro is within half a mile of Reinosa, and runs easterly, till it falls into the Mediterranean, while the Pisuerga runs into the Duero, whose course is westerly, and empties itself into the ocean; from whence it may be inferred, that Reinosa divides the waters between the two seas, and is therefore one of the most elevated districts in Spain, as well as the coldest, its lofty mountains raising their heads as high as the line of congelation, being constantly covered with snow *.

Two leagues to the southward of Reinosa, there is another high mountain, with an hermitage at the top, where there is a great plenty of bilberry whortle, the vaccinium of Linnæus; and to the westward, there is a height where great numbers of Roman coins have been dug out, which indicates its having been formerly a Roman colony: near this place several large lumps of emery are seen above ground, fixed in the sand-stone.

The famous river Ebro, which once served as a boundary between the Carthaginians and Romans, has its source in a little valley at a small distance to the eastward of Reinosa, and proceeds from a copious spring at the foot of an ancient tower, called Fontibre; in passing by Reinosa, it is increased by the waters of several other brooks, and springs; two leagues lower, it runs by the narrow pass of Montesclaros, receives different supplies in the course of its passage through the vallies, is considerable when it comes to the confines of Alava, and after traversing many open and fertile districts, passes by the city of Tortosa, where there is a bridge of boats over it, and then falls into the Mediterranean at the Alfaque Islands, but on account of its many rocks, and shoals, is not navigable higher than Tortosa, and even so far only for small craft.

CHAPTER V.

Description of the Lordship of Biscay, and its Products—Reflections on the Genius and Character of the Biscayners—Description of the Town of Bilboa, and the Manners of its Inhabitants—Account of the Iron Mine and Forges at Somorrostro.

THE lordship of Biscay is a mountainous country, about twelve leagues in length, from east to west, and eight from north to south, consisting entirely of hills, and mountains, of various dimensions, most of which are cultivated to the very summit, the vallies being checquered as well as the hills, with villages, farms, arable land, and pasture; the whole with such infinite variety and beauty, as to form a delightful landscape, with the most pleasing and romantic aspects the mind can conceive.

Many of these mountains consist of hills piled up upon each other, like that of Gorveya, which takes five hours to ascend; its summit affords a beautiful plain, with abundance of pasture, where the herds of Biscay, and Alaba remain for some months. Amongst other plants, it produces the *Ribes*, or black currant, whose leaves have a flavour of pepper, and are reckoned useful in gouty complaints. Near Durango the hills are bare, and from their steepness, very difficult to ascend. *Serantes*, near Portugalete, is another

* The soil of Reinosa produces the best of oaks in the kingdom, equal to any in Europe, and some thousands of them are occasionally felled for the service of the navy. The soil is in general, composed of sandy rock, mixed with quarts, as large as chesnuts, cemented in the rock in the same manner as in the warm climate of Granada. About a league to the north of Reinosa there is a very high mountain called Arandillo, whose summit is at present so much decomposed, as to form an extensive plain where there is very good grass. The people of the country say there was formerly a town here, and the quantities of loose stones still remaining, seem to confirm the report. The nature of this mountain is singular, its basis being of gypseous stone, its summit of sand-stone, and its centre of lime-stone, with large impressions of cornu ammonis, and several scallop-shells fixed in the rock. On the road to Reinosa, black marble veined with white is seen in great quantities, the same may be observed at the *Puerto* between Aspeitia, and Vidana, where there is a mountain of similar marble, from top to bottom.

high

high hill, in the form of a pyramid, and being seen at a great distance, is a good land-mark for mariners, sailing into the river of Bilboa: from its shape it seems as if it had been a volcano; many have erroneously taken it for the mine of Somorrostro, but this is at a league distance. There are other mountains at half a league or a league in length, with craggy peaks, whose sides nevertheless admit of cultivation, and dwellings, such as that of *Villaroy*; others are low and flat-topped, covered with earth, having farms and habitations, besides wood for charcoal, and even meadows for pasture extending to their summit, but none yield products in proportion to their surface: for the vegetative system rising in a perpendicular line, an oblique superficies cannot support more trees or plants than a plain of equal basis; as on a triangle one cannot raise more perpendiculars than such as fall on its immediate basis.

Small rivers and brooks issue from the crevices and clefts of these mountains; from Gorveya there runs four, which uniting with that from the great mountain of Ordunn, added to other torrents bursting through gullies where there is no water in summer, serve to form the river of Bilboa: these are so tremendous in winter, when swelled by heavy rains, as even to threaten the town with destruction, if they unfortunately meet the tide at high-water; the inhabitants are often alarmed in this manner, and it is common with them to go about the streets in boats at this season of the year*.

Most of the mountains of Biscay, and Guipuscoa, are of an argillaceous substance; the stone decomposes very little, or resolves into earth, though calcareous stone is abundant, and in many parts they have manured for ages past with lime, yet it has caused very little alteration†.

The Biscayners give the name of republics to their different jurisdictions in their provinces, all which, except Orduna, their only city, and a few towns, are composed of hamlets, and lonely houses, dispersed up and down, according to the convenience of situation, in so close and intersected a country. However their houses have every advantage of distribution, consisting of

* If we except the ploughed fields, and the bare tops of some jagged mountains, all the rest are covered with woods, either for timber, or charcoal; some are natural, such as the holm, and arbutus, others are sowed, or planted, particularly oaks, which grow very fast. Where there are no woods, and a good depth of soil, it produces impenetrable thickets of the shrub called *Argoma*, as well as Cantabrian heath, and fine gorze. Higher up, where there is less earth, the sides of the hills, and the vallies, have plenty of grafted chesnuts, which the Hamburgh ships carry away in great quantities from Bilboa. The apple tree seems here to be in its natural soil, and thrives admirably without cultivation; the whole country produces varieties of this fruit, but those of Durango are the best. Reuets are common of two or three sorts; cherry trees grow as high as elms, at *Gordejuela*. They have excellent peaches, which they call *pavias*, with this remarkable circumstance, that they are never grafted, or improved by any particular culture. Those of Aranjuez are of this kind, but have not their flavour nor mellowness. Of pears they have great variety, and also those choice sorts, as the benerre, fondante, doyenne, and bergamotte; besides abundance of figs, nuts, and currants; and though the country does not produce raspberries naturally, it abounds with excellent strawberries, as well as all manner of garden plants, and pulse in perfection. Their onions are remarkably sweet; Galicia furnishes them with turnips for cattle, as well as for the kitchen; their cows and oxen are small, but stout and robust: goats they had better be without, as great care must be taken to prevent them from destroying the trees: sheep they have none, and indeed it would be a difficult matter to hinder them from continually entangling themselves amongst the thickets. They have six or seven sorts of grapes, of which they make the *Chacoli* wine; all spots are not equally favourable; however the vineyards are numerous about Orduna and Bilboa, and form the principal revenues of the country gentlemen; but as the prices are fixed, and no foreign wine can be introduced nor sold by the publicans, while their own vintage is selling, they are more eager to increase the quantity than meliorate its quality, so that it is in general bad; besides they make their vintage too early, which gives a sharpness to the wine, and deprives it of body; and being unskilful as well as careless, mixing the rotten and sour grape with the rest, Chacoli is in general a very poor wine. Their whole vintage will not suffice for four months consumption, and the deficiency must be made up from the province of Rioja, which occasioned the saying, "That all the iron of Biscay is swallowed down in foreign wine by the natives." Even Englishmen and Germans, are people of great sobriety, compared with the Biscayners, yet drunken men are seldom seen in the streets because they are accustomed to eat heartily in these drinking entertainments; both men and women breakfast, dine, and in the evening, and sup very plentifully; and yet enjoy excellent health.

† Game would be plentiful if there were not so many sportsmen, though they do not want for partridges, and their quails are the best in all Spain. In marshy places they are well stocked with wild ducks, woodcocks, and snipes. In the plains they have hares, but no rabbits, nor any deer, nor roebucks, which last the Spaniards call corzos as coming originally from Corsica; so they give the name of *galgo* to a greyhound, having first had them from Gaul.

principal story, besides the ground floor, for offices, with an appendage of stables, granaries, outhouses, courts, cellars, and gardens; besides orchards, meadows, and often cornfields, contiguous to the building, with chesnut groves, and other improvements to the very foot of the mountains. Nothing can be more pleasant to the traveller, than to see houses and gardens during the whole course of his progress, particularly from Orduna to Bilboa, an extent of six leagues, which seems like one continued village. The upper part of the houses were formerly of wood, but the new ones are of stone. Scarcely an empty house is to be seen or any fallen into ruins.

Not only Biscay, Guipuscoa, and Alaba, but also the mountain of Burgos, are full of gentlemen's seats, known by the name of *Solares*, or *Casas Solariegas* worthy of much veneration from their antiquity; the owners of these are distinguished by the title of *Hildagos de Casa Solar*, or *de Solar Conocido*—"Gentlemen of known property;" the most honourable appellation in Spain.

The head of the family is called *Pariente Mayor*, and is greatly respected by all the collateral branches; some of these are of such antiquity, as to be thought to have dwelled there before the establishment of Christianity, in that country, since their ancestors were the founders of the churches, had the patronage of them, and were known so far back as four centuries ago, to have, even then, been time immemorial, in receipt of the tythes; others, without any patronage, are deemed equally ancient; many are so far reduced as to be obliged to cultivate their estates, with their own hands, yet will not yield to the others, in nobility and descent, alledging that, though some branches have been more enriched by fortunate events, yet they are all equally sprung from one common ancestor. Their names have undoubtedly passed in a lineal succession, from a more ancient date than the ages of chivalry, the establishment of coat armour, or of archives, and records; to which they pay little attention, as of no importance to illustrate their quality; the possession of one of these houses, or the constant tradition of being descended from a former possessor, being more than sufficient to ennoble their blood; many such having shined in the annals of Spain, by the noblest deeds, which have immortalized their names more than their ancient descent. They have settled in different parts of the kingdom, while the head of the family has continued at home, in a state of simplicity, ploughing his fields, and inspiring his children with sentiments suitable to the heroical ages: the daughters are brought up in a different manner from most other parts of the world; here the most opulent do not disdain the management of household affairs, and every branch of domestic œconomy, with a noble simplicity, that seems to recal those glorious ages of which Homer has sung. Whoever looks for innocence, health, and content, will find it amongst the inhabitants of Biscay; and if they are not the richest, they may be well deemed the happiest of mankind*.

The country people wear brogues, not unlike those of the highlands of Scotland, tied up with great neatness, being the most useful for a slippery and mountainous country. When they are not busy in the fields, they walk with a staff taller than themselves, which serves them to vault over gullies, and is an excellent weapon in case of assault, with which they will baffle the most dexterous swordsmen; they wear cloaks in the winter, the pipe is constantly in the mouth, as well from pleasure as from a notion that tobacco preserves them against the dampness of the air; all this, joined to their natural activity, sprightliness, and vigour, gives them an appearance seeming to border on ferocity, were it not the reverse of their manners, which are gentle and easy, when no motive is given to choler, which the least spark kindles into violence.

It has been observed, that the inhabitants of mountains are strongly attached to their country, which probably arises from the division of lands, in which, generally speaking, all have an interest.

* It is pleasing to behold with what affability the rich deign themselves towards those who are less so than themselves, being obliged to this condescension from the natural spirit, and pride of the people, added to their education and notions of freedom. Unaccustomed to brook the least scorn, or to comply with that submissive behaviour so usual from the poor to the rich, in more refined and opulent kingdoms; yet the common proverb of Castile, *Pobreza no es vileza*, "Poverty is not a blemish," has no sway here, for such are their notions of labour and industry, that their spirit makes them consider it an indignity to beg; and though the women are generally charitable, which cannot fail to attract mendicants, yet such are most commonly strangers.

In this, the Biscayners exceed all other states, looking with fondness on their hills, as the most delightful scenes in the world, and their people as the most respectable, descended from the *aborigines* of Spain. This prepossession excites them to the most extraordinary labour, and to execute things far beyond what could be expected, in so small and rugged a country, where they have few branches of commerce: a greater proof of their industry cannot be given than those fine roads made from Bilboa to Castile, as well as in Guipuscoa and Alaba. The passage over the tremendous mountain of Orduna, cannot be viewed without the utmost surprize and admiration.

The manners of the Biscayners, and the ancient Irish, are so similar on many occasions, as to encourage the notion of the Irish being descended from them. Both men and women are extremely fond of pilgrimages, repairing from great distances to the churches of their patrons, or tutelary saints, singing and dancing, till they almost drop down with fatigue. The Irish do the same at their *patrons*. The *Guizones* of Biscay, and the *Boulamkeighs* of Ireland are nearly alike: at all these assemblies, they knock out one another's brains, on the most trivial provocation, without malice or rancour, and without using a knife or a dagger. In both countries the common people are passionate, easily provoked if their family is slighted, or their descent called in question. The *Chacoli* of Biscay, or the *Sheheen* of Ireland, makes them equally frantic. In Ireland the poor eat out of one dish with their fingers, and sit in their smoaky cabbins without chimnies, as well as the Biscayners. The brogue is also the shoe of Biscay; the women tie a kercher round their heads, wear red petticoats, go barefoot, in all which they resemble the Biscayners, and with them have an equal good opinion of their ancient descent: the poor Biscayner, though haughty, is laborious and active, an example worthy to be imitated by the Irish.

So many concurring circumstances support the idea of their having been originally one people. It cannot be denied, but that the old Irish, whether from similitude of customs, religion, and traditional notions, or whatever else may be the cause, have always been attached to the Spaniards, who on their side, perhaps from political views, have treated them with reciprocal affection, granting them many privileges and stiling them even *Oriundos* in their laws, as a colony descended from Spain; yet, with all these advantages, if we except those gallant soldiers who have distinguished themselves in the field wherever they have served, few Irish have made a conspicuous figure in Spain, or have left great wealth to their families*.

The king of Spain has no other title over these free people, than that of Lord of Biscay, as the kings of England formerly held over Ireland; they admit of no bishops, nor of custom houses in their provinces, they content themselves with that renown which they have acquired for themselves and their issue, insomuch that upon only proving to be originally belonging to that lordship, or descended from such in the male line, lawfully begotten, they are entitled to claim public certificates, or executory letters, termed *Cartas executorias*, expressive of their being *Hidalgos de Sangre*, or "Gentlemen of blood;" their nobility having been confirmed to them, by the kings of Castile and Leon, lords of Biscay, in the plenitude of their power. The most lofty Castilians have constant rivals for antiquity and descent in the inhabitants of Biscay, Asturias, and the mountains of Leon. Impressed with these flattering ideas, the high-minded Biscayner leaves his native soil, and repairs to Madrid. Conscious that his blood is pure, uncontaminated with mixtures of Jewish or Mohammedan race, he raises his hopes on honest industry, and sobriety, fulfilling his duties with zeal, and submission; he often meets with relations in affluence, and sometimes rises to the highest employments.

The town of Bilboa, on the banks of the river Ybaizabal, is about two leagues from the sea, and contains about eight hundred houses, with a

* Another instance in which the Irish seem to have closely imitated the Spanish customs, is in the taking of snuff, of which Mr. Howel, who was in Spain in 1620, and went soon after to Ireland, gives us the following account, at an early period, after the first introduction of snuff into Europe: "The Spaniards and Irish take it most in powder, or Smutchin, and it mightily refreshes the brain, and I believe there is as much taken this way in Ireland, as there is in pipes in England. One shall commonly see the serving maid upon the washing block, and the swain upon the ploughshare, when they are tired with labour, take out their boxes of smutchin, and draw it into their nostrils with a quill, and it will beget new spirits in them, with a fresh vigour to fall to their work again."—*Epistolæ Hoelianæ, London*, 1726.

large

large square by the water-side, well shaded with pleasant walks, which extend to the outlets, on the banks of the river, with numbers of houses and gardens, which form a most pleasing prospect, particularly sailing up the river; for, besides the beautiful verdure, numerous objects open gradually to the eye, and the town appearing as an amphitheatre, enlivens the landscape, and completes the scenery

The houses are solid and lofty, the streets well paved and level; water is conveyed into the streets, and they may be washed at pleasure, which renders Bilboa one of the neatest towns in Europe. Coaches are not in use, by which means, inequality of wealth is not so perceptible, exterior ostentation is avoided, and the poor man walks by the side of the rich, with equal ease and content.

The air is generally damp, covers iron with rust, destroys furniture in the upper apartments, extracts the salt out of dried fish, and multiplies flies beyond measure, yet the town is remarkably healthy, and its inhabitants enjoy, to a great degree, the three blessings of life, perfect health, strength of body, and a chearful disposition, attended with longevity; in the proof of which, though the town is very populous, the hospital is frequently empty, and in the nine months, that Mr. Bowles resided there, only nine persons were buried, four of which were above eighty. Every day men above that age may be seen walking upright, in chearful converse with youth. Burning fevers, which the Spaniards dread so much and call *tabardillos*, are not known here, and they are seldom troubled with agues. That Bilboa standing on the side of a river, in so damp a situation, and chiefly built on piles, like the cities in Holland, should be so remarkably healthy, with every indication against it, arises from the following circumstances:

The adjacent mountains stop the clouds that arise from the saline vapours of the ocean, rains are frequent, but they are seldom without a sea breeze, or a land wind; the current of the air being thus continually ventilated, never leaves the moist vapours at rest, and prevents their forming those putrid combinations, which heat generally occasions, on stagnated waters; thus the vicinity of the sea, the rains, and more than all, the strong currents of air, are the physical causes of its salubrity at Bilboa, as on the contrary, the continued heat which rarifies the exhalations of such rivers as have a slow motion, as well as the stagnated waters in ponds or lakes, where there is great heat in the air, and little wind, will be the causes of putrifying the vapours, and bring on fevers and other distempers. For this reason, the inhabitants of La Mancha are so subject to agues, and use as much bark as in Holland, because the air has little motion in summer, notwithstanding the country is open, and the surface is dry. In the same manner, a new house is dangerous to dwell in, where the damp vapours are confined, though one may sleep very safely in the deepest gallery of a mine, if the air has a free circulation.

To these favourable circumstances, the Biscayners, owe their good spirits, and freshness of complexion, and chearful disposition. In other countries, women are oppressed with the slightest fatigue; here they work as much as the strongest men, unload the ships, carry burdens, and do all the business of porters. The very felons, confined to hard labour in the mines of Almaden, do nothing in comparison with these females; they go barefooted, and are remarkably active, carrying burthens on their heads which require two men to lift up. The wife yields not in strength to the husband, nor the sister to the brother, and after a chearful glass, though heavily loaded, they move on with alacrity, returning home in the evening without the appearance of lassitude often arm in arm, dancing and singing to the tabor and pipe.

Their music is defrayed at the expence of the town, after the manner of the ancient Greeks. On holydays they play under the trees in the great square; the moment they begin the concourse is great; men, women, and children, of all ages, are engaged at the same time, down to the very infants. The dances, are active, suitable to their strength, but divested of indecent attitudes or gestures*.

* These surprising women, though constantly exposed to the air, have good complexions, with lively eyes, and fine black hair, in which they pride themselves greatly, and braid to uncommon advantage. Married women wrap a white handkerchief round their heads, so knotted, as to fall down in three plaits behind, and over this the Montera cap. They have a haughty look, and work in the fields like the men; their language is the *Bascuense*, which, without doubt, is original, and as ancient as the peopling of the country, being totally distinct, and without any connexion with any Spanish dialect; those who understand it, assure us it is very soft and harmonious, as well as energetic.

A general

A general neatness prevails in Bilboa. The shambles is a Tuscan building, in the centre of the town, with an open court and a fountain in the middle; nothing can be more cleanly or better contrived, free from all bad scents, or any thing disgusting, as it is copiously supplied with water to carry away every thing offensive. The meat is delivered so fresh and clean, as not to require being washed, as practised in other parts of Spain, which deprives it of its substance and flavours; the veal is white and delicate, and the poultry excellent: the woods afford plenty of wild fowl, besides five sorts of birds of passage, called *Chimbos*, which fatten soon after their arrival, and are greatly esteemed.

Amongst the different sorts of fish common at Bilboa, there are two peculiar to that river, which the inhabitants are remarkably fond of; these are a sort of eels in winter, and the cuttle fish in summer; the former are small like the quill of a pigeon, of a pale colour, about three inches long, and without a back bone, and are caught at low tides in prodigious quantities. In a word, every thing is in plenty at Bilboa, for besides a well supplied market, their gardens abound in pulse, and fruit of all kinds; and a stranger cannot but admire the hospitable disposition of the inhabitants, which soon falls off, if you slight their cordiality, or attribute it to motives of adulation or interest. Such is the happy life of the people of Bilboa, free from the luxurious as well as the ambitious passions, which agitate the minds of their neighbours, they pass their lives in tranquillity, governed by wholesome laws; amongst which they are said, even to have one against ingratitude, with a punishment affixed to it.

The famous iron mine at Somorrostro, in Biscay, has all the appearance of being alluvial, and originally composed by the congelation of some fluid matter, increasing by insensible degrees, and reduced into a lamellated state, successively, forming plates, or scales one over the other, thinner than paper; as is evident from the many concavities and crevices, covered by these plates; which supposing to be the case, we need not be surprized at what has been advanced by some of the workmen, who assert that they have often found broken pieces of pickaxes, mattocks, and other instruments, in places that had been worked centuries ago, and are now replete with new ore; if this is a fact, we may further believe them, when they assert, that the mine increases, though the slow progress of nature, in this operation, does not permit us to calculate its gradation, or determine the number of ages sufficient to fill up a cavity of any given size*.

It is generally allowed, that no iron in Europe is so easy to fuse, or so soft as that of Somorrostro. When the ore is first taken out of this mine, it has the colour of bull's blood, and when wetted becomes purple; great quantities are carried away by water, to the neighbouring provinces, where they fuse it by itself, or mix it with ore of their own, which generally yields a harder iron. The following is their process with the ore which is fused without any mixture.

The first operation is to roast it† in the open air, by piling strata alternately of ore, and wood, in order to divide the ore, repel the moisture, and diminish its weight, that it may be more easily fused, and the ferruginous parts separated from the slag: when it is sufficiently roasted, they put it in the forge, with the due proportion

* From the above, it results, that a solution, evaporation, alluvion, and deposition, all exist in this mine; its situation is an undulated hill; which viewed from the neighbouring mountains, seems almost a plain; its form is regular, and may be passed round in about four or five hours. The ore forms an uninterrupted stratum, whose thickness varies from three feet to ten, and is covered with a coat of whitish calcareous rock, from two to six feet thick. Every one is at liberty to dig the mine at pleasure, and transport it by land or water, without being subject to duties or any formalities. The people being generally ignorant, and carrying away whatever comes uppermost, often take ore, which has its matrix of quartz, and is of a brittle kind, full of cracks; but the iron masters, who are the purchasers, are more versed, and know what to buy, and what to reject.

† No general rule can be given, concerning the duration, or degree of fire, for this purpose, these being various, according to the difference of the ores; a few days, or even hours, is sufficient for some ores, while others, such as the ore of Rammelsburg, require that it should be continued for several months. Shlutter enumerates five methods of roasting ores; viz.

First, By constructing a pile of ore and fuel, placed alternately in strata, in the open air.

Secondly, By confining such a pile within walls, but without a roof.

Thirdly, By placing the pile under a roof, without lateral walls.

Fourthly, By placing the pile in a furnace, consisting of walls and roof.

Fifthly, By roasting the ore in a reverbatory furnace, in which it must be continually stirred, with an iron rod.

of charcoal, and when it appears to have fused, by leaving on the hearth, a mass of four or five arrobes, they lay hold of it with tongs, and place it on an anvil under an immense hammer, of about seven hundred to a thousand pounds weight, and there by force of blows, and moving it about, they square it, and reduce it into bars. The numerous sparks which fly off from the blows of the hammer, are no more than the scoriæ of the metal. The bar thus shaped, may be doubled or lengthened in a less forge, if they please, and even beat cold as if it was silver. In this manner the ore is fused in a few hours, and the bars formed, and sold to the blacksmiths. Formerly the iron was beat by mere strength of arm, a proof of which may be gathered from the names of many places in Biscay, situated where there is neither river nor brook, and begin, or end, with the termination *ola* or *olea*, either of which in the Biscay language, signifies iron works, such as *Mendiola*, that is, "iron works of the mountain."

According to appearance, a quintal of ore will produce about thirty-five pounds of good iron, and the residue about thirty pounds of slag, and dead earth. As this mine neither contains sulphur, nor acids, it is not necessary to mix any calcareous substance to fuse it, in order to absorb those matters, so troublesome in mines, that have the misfortune to be loaded with them, as is often the case in France. However, it would not be amiss to use a little of it, were it only to assist the fusion of the ferruginous earth, accelerate the process, and lessen the slag, as well as the quantity of fuel. These workmen, by constant experience, have acquired the proper method of managing the ore, as well as to know the quantity of coal for the forge, which is seldom larger than that of a considerable blacksmith; so that little improvement can be made on their labours; though by several experiments, made in 1773, by the *Sociedad Bascongada*, or Biscay society, it appears that it would answer better to roast the iron, in a close chamber than in the open air. A good forge well conducted, will yield to the owner above five hundred ducats a year*; some indeed, hardly produce three hundred, after paying all charges. It is necessary for them to be good œconomists, with respect to fuel, and to use small forges; for if they were to have such large ones, as are common in most parts of Europe, with all the apparatus of hammers and other implements, they would soon strip their mountains of wood, and the forges would be at a stand for want of materials.

Besides the mine of Somorrostro, there are several others, some of which are worked, and others not. In one near Bilboa, the ore is seen above ground. About a mile from the town, there is a mine in a hill, of a quite different nature from that of Somorrostro, being loaded with vitriol; it is an enormous mass of iron ore, that attracts the vitriolic acid, which penetrating through the ferruginous rock, dissolves the metal, and exhibits on the surface, small laminæ of green, blue, and white vitriol. Opposite to this hill on the other side of the river, another similar rock produces a quantity of vitriol solely of a pale yellow, and though the colours green, blue, and yellow, may exist without any vitriolic acid, chemists are very well apprized from experience, that the common iron dissolved in this acid, crystallizes into green vitriol, called copperas, forms blue crystals, with copper, and white crystals, or allum, when united with argillaceous earth, and of the same colour when it dissolves zinc, and produces yellow, when it coagulates with the phlogiston of common sulphur, which abounds so frequently in the three kingdoms of nature. The most remarkable circumstance, is to meet these colours in the Biscay mines, which neither contain copper, alum, zinc, nor sulphur; nor is it an easy matter to account for it, without supposing that the pure elementary water, has a part in composing these crystals, and that its evaporation, either by heat, or air, alters the consistency, and destroys the green colour of the vitriol of the iron, taking away that proportion of water, which constituted it, and that as soon as it loses it, it begins to change colour, and passing through the various tints of green, and yellow, terminates in white, when all the water is gone: when it is come to that state, and has resemblance to flour, it is called sympathetic powder, on account of its styptical quality, so readily staunching the blood, in hemorrhages, and curing of wounds. Whoever chooses to verify this theory, need only to pour water on this pow-

* A Spanish ducat, worth about four shillings and eight pence, English money.

der, and he will find that it crystalizes anew into green. If it be asked, why these matters do not unite, and form sulphur, when there is so much acid, and iron in these mountains, and the iron contains so much phlogiston? the answer is, that for this event to take place, the vitriolic acid, and the phlogiston, should be perfectly concentred, and dry; whereas the reverse happens in these mountains, where they are so overwhelmed with moisture, that the abundance of this acid, has perhaps been the cause, of many of the mines above Bilboa, being neglected, as of course they would yield so brittle an iron. This then would be the time to use a calcareous substance, to correct this defect. It is for this reason, the Swedish iron is preferred to the Spanish, as the latter is so apt to redsear; that is, to crack, between hot and cold. At a small distance from this great ferruginous rock, an engineer lately cut away a considerable part of the hill, to improve the public walks, near the town of Bilboa, and as he made a perpendicular cut of about eighty feet depth, he discovered a vein of iron ore, lying in perfect strata, which, at times, dipped in a direct line, and at others, obliquely, bearing some similitude to the roots of a tree, occasionally of an inch diameter, or the size of one's arm, with infinite variety of ramification, according to the more or less resistance of the earth, to the passage of water; there being no doubt of this mine being alluvial. Here the very circumstance has happened, which Don Antonio de Ulloa judiciously imagined, would follow in the great hill of Potosi, were it possible to lay it open and examine its contents.

It appears therefore, that the mines of Biscay are in veins, strata, and masses. The *Hematites**, so frequently seen in the hollow parts of the veins, are remarkable for their different sizes and forms; when broken, every grain was found to have the shape of a star, which proves solution, deposition, and a slow crystallization. These hematites are exceedingly heavy, and if calcined give proofs of containing two or three times more iron, than the ore of Somorrostro, but of a brittle and intractable nature. Besides these hematites, there are in this mine, many cavities of different sizes, from two inches to two feet, lined with a great deal of ferruginous matter, from one to three fingers thickness; this coating appears to be a true emery, and from hence, issue cylinders of striped hematites, as large as the feathers of a pigeon, two or three inches long, not unlike a hedgehog; others have various and fanciful appearances, that would make objects of singular curiosity in the collection of a mineralogist, or in a cabinet of natural history.

CHAPTER VI.

The Source of the Tagus and its Environs described—Of the barren and wretched District of Batuccao, in Estramadura.

IN going from Molina de Aragon, to the westward, you cross over mountains filled with petrifactions, which appearance lasts for two or three leagues. At the third league there is a salt spring which serves the people of Molina. The ascent is continual, through a wood of fir, and over mountains, till you reach the village of Paralejos on the banks of the golden Tagus, so often sung by the poets, so frequently extolled by historians.

At Peralejos, the Tagus is only fifteen paces wide, and one foot deep. The petrifactions are observed again in the village, and the river runs through a narrow channel it has made for itself,

* Hematites, or blood-stone, is a hard mineral substance, red, black, or purple, the powder of which is always red, sometimes of an intermediate figure, and sometimes spherical, semispherical, pyramidal, or cellular, that is, like a honeycomb, consisting of pyramids generally small, the apices of which, appear in a transverse section in the centre. It contains a large portion of iron; forty pounds of this metal have been extracted from a quintal of the stone, but the iron is obtained with such difficulty, and is of so bad quality, that this ore is not commonly smelted. The great hardness of hematites, renders it fit for burnishing and polishing metals.—*Dictionary of Chemistry, translated from the French. London*, 1777.

between two lofty mountains of marble, perpendicularly divided near a hundred feet high. Each mountain is a solid block, without either horizontal, or perpendicular fissure, if we except those casual crevices, occasioned by the enormous pieces which now and then detach themselves, and roll down to the banks of the river. Such as have tumbled down on the south side, have crumbled into good earth, and as the water filters through them, the soil is fertile, covered with grass, and different sorts of plants. The opposite mountain is bare, without moisture, earth, plant, or moss, being a stupendous rock resting on a bed of marble, mixed with white gypsum, veined with red, and prismatical stellated spots. About three quarters of a league to the southward of Peralejos, you meet the highest hill in those parts called Sierra Blanco; its top is capped with calcareous rock, its body of white stone, not calcareous, decomposed in the same manner as the former, with veins of imperfect jet, of the thickness of one's finger, with soft grainy pyrites* of the colour and odour of those found in the clays of Paris. Veins of bituminous wood extend from a finger to a foot in thickness, and contain pieces of jet, as large as one's head, others less, but always with vitriolic pyrites, dispersed in the very substance, and interstices of the jet. It seems clearly to be wood, as some pieces have still the bark on, exhibiting the knots, fibres, and other parts, with little alteration, still preserving their ligneous origin, mixed with that, which composes the true and solid jet. What is still more extraordinary, veins of a lead mine are likewise found in it, following the oblique, or direct crevices of the wood, while other veins of lead traverse its fibres, in a perpendicular line, as well as horizontally, and some small lumps are mixed in the very substance of the wood. In a word, the four principal orders in mines, may be observed here in a small compass, as it were in miniature, viz. perpendicular veins, cross veins, strata, and masses. These veins are the more extraordinary, if we consider the manner in which the metal must have introduced itself into the timber, for it cannot be said to have made its way through the pores, when the lead was in a fluid state, because pieces of wood are found, whose exterior parts do not shew the least particle of lead, yet on breaking them, some portion of this mineral is discovered within, which could only introduce itself there, when the sap first formed the wood, and make shot of the lead, that runs from it; which serves to kill hares, partridges, and other kinds of game, with which the country abounds. The source of the Tagus is about a league from the hill of Sierra Blanca, in the highest situation of Spain, for the waters of this river run down to the ocean, and those of the Guadalaviar, whose source is contiguous, fall into the Mediterranean. The waters called *Vegas del Tago*, are at a league and a half from hence, in a valley, formed by a river, which has its source in a copious spring, called *Fuente de la Abrega*. This brook, for here it deserves no better appellation, meanders so often, that it must be crossed four times in the space of half a league. Many have thought the source of the Tagus was at *Fuente Garcia*, which is five leagues higher up, but Mr. Bowles assures us to the contrary, adding, that *Fuente Garcia* is a trifling spring, which he covered with his hat, being no more than a small quantity of water, collected in the trunk of a hollow tree, placed there to hold what issues from a puddle of standing water, which three paces further, loses itself in the adjacent valley, without a drop of it reaching the Tagus.

Half a league from *Fuente Garcia*, there is a salt spring which supplies the town of Albarracin, and eighteen villages in its jurisdiction, with salt. The country from hence to the true source of the Tagus, is an elevated plain, rather uneven, with a good carpet of grass, and a great many brambles, whose berries afford an ample repast for the black birds. It is also well stocked with that tree called in Spain *Cedro Hispanico*, the juniper thurifera of Linnæus, a tall stout tree, with ber-

* Pyrites is a mineral resembling the true ores of metals in the substance of which it is composed, in its colour or lustre, in its great weight, and lastly, in the parts of the earth in which it is found, since it almost always accompanies ores. From the property of striking sparks from steel, they have been called Pyrites, which is a Greek word signifying fire stone; they were formerly used for fire-arms as we now use flints, hence it was called carabine stone, still by some marcasite. Perhaps no other kind of natural body has had so many appellations. Persons curious to know the other names less used, may find them in Henckell's Pyritologia; we think with that celebrated chemist, that the subject has been perplexed by this multiplicity of names, for before his great and excellent work, the notions concerning Pyrites were very confused and inaccurate.—*Dictionary of Chemistry.*

ries.

ries like the juniper tree of the large sort. The snow remains on the ground in these cold regions, until June, and the country is a continued chain of hills, known by the name of *Sierra*, replete with various singularities. From Peralejos hither, different petrifactions are found, sometimes in the rock, and at others in the earth. If the sea deposited them there, it will be difficult to explain how this should have happened in the highest situation in Spain.

To return to the Tagus: this noble river passes by the royal palace of Aranjuez, the city of Toledo, Almaraz, and Alcantara in Estramadura; then enters Portugal, at Abrantes, and rolls its waters with dignity into the ocean at Lisbon. Philip II. opened the navigation of the river; the first boat dispatched by his majesty arrived at Aranjuez, from Lisbon, January 19, 1582, and then returned to Toledo, to proceed down the river again; but successive events, and an alteration of dominion under Philip IV. put a final period to these improvements.

The territory of Batuecas, situated on the confines of Castile and Estramadura, near Portugal, has given ample scope to the fanciful conceits of different writers, relating to its imaginary discovery, and whether or not, as supposed, it was an unknown land, inhabited by Pagans, blinded by ignorance, without the least knowledge of the Christian religion. This district, which we are now going to explore, is fourteen leagues to the southwest of Salamanca, about eight leagues eastward of Ciudad Rodrigo, and twelve to the northwest of Placencia, forming a plain, or more properly, a most dismal and horrid gully at the foot of that famous mountain, where stands the noted convent called *La Pena de Francia*. The situation of this place inspires every idea of gloom and melancholy, closed in by jagged mountains, where hardly a tree is to be seen, or the least appearance of vegetation: on the contrary, numberless precipices, occasionally choaked up by broken masses of stone, detached insensibly from the rocks, form the most frightful scene the mind can conceive. Such is the true state of Batuecas, horrid by nature; rendered still more so, by ignorance and folly. The itinerary from Placencia to Aigal four leagues; Mohedas one; Casa de Palomero one; Cambroncio two; Vegao de Coria two; Las Mestas one; and to the convent of Batuecas half a league.

Between Placencia and Aigal, the hamlets of Oliva and Gijo de Granadilla, appear on the right, and Santibanez el Baxo, on the left, with woods of oak and cork trees. You cross the river Ambroz, or de Caparra, and pass by the Puerto del Gamo, before you reach Casar de Palomero. Then enter the melancholy district of the Jurdes, being a division of what is generally called Batuecas; but in any part of this wretched country, if you ask whereabouts is the Jurdes, some will tell you, a little further on, and when you proceed, another informs you, it is at a small distance behind; nobody being willing to acknowledge himself an inhabitant of the unhappy country of the Jurdes.

The town of Alberca is the principal place in the territory of Batuecas, and not above a league distant from this valley: the whole of this district may properly be reduced to an intersected valley of about a league in length, sometimes so confined as just to leave room for the passage of the river that gives name to the valley. This then was that unknown country so surprizingly dreaded, where it is certain no other dwelled but a few wretched shepherds, and some miserable peasants, in forlorn huts, surrounded by precipices, divested of all intercourse with their neighbours, in a wild romantic situation, which the most fanciful pencil would find difficult to delineate, or even the language of Shakespeare to describe.

The other valley called, "of the Jurdes," which may be about four leagues long, and three in breadth, yields not to the former in wretchedness and misery. During the whole journey from Alberca to Batuecas, nothing is to be seen but a repetition of jagged and ill-shapen rocks, with their rugged peaks, like so many turrets and battlements, towering one over the other, as far as the eye can extend, forming dreadful gullies where the river forces its way, whose waters is clear, abounding with trout, and having grains of gold in its sands, which the peasants know well how to look after, and sell at Placencia, Ciudad, Rodrigo and Salamanca, which is a great resource to them in this sorrowful vale; where, during winter, the sun's rays can hardly penetrate for above four hours in the day. To increase still further its horror, the hills are perforated with dismal caves one above the other, and some so extensive, that three or four hundred sheep may easily take shelter there: to complete this picture of distress

let it suffice to add, that this country is the resort of numerous birds of prey, and affords shelter to bears, wolves, wild cats, and weazles, which destroy all the hares and rabbits, with the addition of snakes, serpents, and many noxious reptiles, particularly one sort of serpent, which darts at its prey with great violence, and perhaps may be of that species called *Jacula*, or *Jacula serpens*, described in the acts of the Leopoldine academy, which mentions one of these to have darted from a ditch, to a considerable distance, and fixed itself upon the arm of a peasant. But why need I enlarge any further on so dreary a spot, or describe so barren a country, where even grass is not to be seen! here and there a solitary cistus, and nothing but furze, the only resource of goats and some bees, who are of service merely on account of their wax, as their honey is neither valuable for its colour nor flavour, having all the bitter taste of their food.

In this wretched country the Carmelite Friars pitched upon a little plain on the banks of the river, and built their convent in 1599, but their house has nothing worthy of description; and though the very sight of a distressed traveller at their gates, should be sufficient to engage the benevolent minds of these holy fathers, they are seldom in a hurry to open their doors, and none are admitted or entitled to hospitality, but such as are provided with letters of recommendation and positive orders from the provincial or general of their order,

CHAPTER VII.

The Convent of Juste, in the Vera of Placencia, famous for the Retreat of the Emperor Charles the Fifth—Remarkable Objects in the Course of a Tour from Guadalcanal to the City of Seville—Journey from Merida to Malaga.

AFTER quitting the city of Placencia, and crossing the river Xerte, you pass over the hill of Calcones, opposite the city, then descend into the territory of the Vega, leaving on your left the villages of Garguem, Barrado, and Arroya Molinos; you next go through the village of Pasaron, five leagues from Placencia, and come to a pleasant situation called La Magdalena, where there is a good farm house, which formerly belonged to the Jesuits: you are now a league distance from Juste, and to go there you traverse a woody country with a few chesnut trees, and pass several brooks, where they catch excellent trout. The convent of Juste is situated nearly in the centre of the Vera, on the brow of a steep hill, which protects it from the north wind, and with other mountains forms that chain which is called the Puerto de Tornavacas, joining with the hills of Arenas, Puerto del Pico, and others. Neither the convent nor church have any thing remarkable, and would have passed on to future ages in oblivion, had it not been for the distinction shewn them by the great emperor who ended his life in this solitary place. Over the largest altar in the church, they have a copy of that famous picture called the glory of Titian, which stood formerly here, and was removed to the Escurial by express command of the emperor, who ordered that the original should be fixed in the same church with his remains. The following inscription is seen on the wall, in a corner of the garden, under the arms of the emperor.

"EN ESTA SANTA CASA DE S. HIERONIMO DE JUSTE SE RETIRO A ACABAR SU VIDA, EL QUE TODA LA GASTO EN DEFENSA DE LA FE Y CONSERVACION DE LA JUSTICIA, CARLOS V. EMPERADOR REY DE LAS ESPENAS, CHRISTIANISIMO, INVICTISSIMO. MURIO A 21 DE SETIEMBRE DE 1558."

That is, "*In this holy house of St Jerom of Juste, ended his days, he who spent the whole of them in defence of the faith, and in support of justice, Charles V. Emperor, King of Spain, Most Christian, invincible. He died on the 21st of Sept.* 1558."

These are the only traces left here of that great emperor, who once filled the world with the glory of his deeds. The ruined decorations of the garden and ponds seem to intimate their pristine state in happier days, and the several plan-

tations in the Vera, watered by numberless brooks, might once have exhibited a more pleasing appearance.

A distinction must be made between the *Vera of Placentia*, and the *Valle de Placentia*. The valley extends from the city to the Puerto de Tornavacas, upon a straight line from east to north, the length of nine leagues, and so level, that the whole extent lies open to your view, as far as the *Puerto*, closed by high mountains, dividing on the right the *Vera* from the *Valle*, and on the left the hills between the valley and the road to Banos, and finally those of Tornavacas, whose high tops are always covered with snow.

The villages belonging to the valley are Asperilla, Casas del Gastanar, El Torno, Valde Astilla, Cabrero el Rebollar, Navaconcejo, Cabezuela, Badillo, and Xerte, which gives name to the river, as Tornavacas does to the *Puerto*, but at present every branch of cultivation is at the lowest state, without even the appearance of an orange or a lemon tree, if we except two or three blighted ones at the convent of Santa Cruz de Tabilla, where the country is a desert: and what is still worse, the mountains and passes are filled with assassins and robbers, to the great terror of the inhabitants and travellers. The *Vera* is no better, and affords the most melancholy aspect imaginable *.

In travelling to the eastward from Guadalcanal you come in two hours to the town of Alanis, which gives its name to a lead mine about half a league from it to the south east, which at present is abandoned.

Going forward from this place brings you to Cazella, where there is a mine about half a league from the town, at Puerto Blanco. The vein does not appear above ground, but a few feet from the surface there is a stratum of extraneous earth, different from the other earth seen hereabouts. In this mine they find virgin silver, copper pyrites in the quartz, and a little iron.

Two leagues and a half from Cazalla, there is a high mountain called *Fuente de la Reyna*, where the Constantina mine is to be seen, so called from a village of that name, about two leagues distant, and not derived from the emperor Constantine, who never was in Spain, nor was the founder of it, according to the popular errors which prevail on that subject. In former times this mine was worked with great judgment, as appears from the remains of their shafts and galleries. The vein runs from north to south across the direction of the slate, and as the miners term it, has its hat of iron, with pyrites and blend of silver and lead in the spar. Lower down they found silver, called by the Spanish miners *Plata helada*, "frosted silver," and a mine of lead in a small tessallated form †.

Two leagues west of Cazalla, there is a copper mine, at a place called *Canada de los Conejos*, which from its appearance should be rich, the vein running from north to south in a pyritous quartz. Half a league from Cazalla there is a mine of vitriol, at *Castanares*. The stone is pyritous and ferruginous, with deep efflorescencies, or spots of a greenish yellow, and a kind of white powder, which is vitriol divested of the water that crystallizes it.

After crossing a mountain, two leagues in length, to the westward of Cazalla, you come to *El Real de Monasterio*. Half a league from this place, there is a mine of black lead proper for pencils, a species of the *molybdena*, but not of the true sort of *molybdena nigricia fabrilis*, like that from Cumberland, so famous abroad, that in France it goes by the name of *crayon d'Angleterre;* they give the name of *lapis* in Spain, to those black lead pencils, a term they likewise apply very improperly to black chalk used for drawings, which is a soft stone called *ampelitis*.

The country about Monasterio abounds with good oak, of which there is a wood of about a league square, with a great many cork trees, from which they strip off the bark every four years, as far as a white sap which they leave on

* Amongst the various experiments to destroy the worms that ruin the chesnut trees, fire was the last expedient, insomuch that the trees, scorched and half burned, now resemble the oaks struck by the thunder of Jove, instead of the golden age of the poets, and their whole agriculture is reduced to the sowing a few peas, with some miserable scraps of a vineyard.

† Some years ago an inhabitant of Constantina undertook the working of this mine, sunk two shafts, and made galleries on the top of the hill, but abandoned it soon after, perhaps for want of skill, or sufficient capital to go on with the works, though it was thought to deserve more attention, as the ore was good, and they had fuel at hand, with a brook at the foot of the mountain, in a fruitful country, with plenty of vineyards.

the

the tree. A liquid humour afterwards issues out again, which thickens with the sun and air, and forms a new bark in about four years more *.

From Real de Monasterio it is a journey of three hours to Callero, about a mile from whence there is a round insulated hill, capped with a vein of calcareous stone running from north to south, where there are both white and grey load-stones. There is also an iron mine divested of any magnetic quality. The whole country is covered with oak and cork trees, some of which are so bulky as to be 50 feet in diameter, but most of them, as well as the oaks, are hollow within, from having been improperly lopped.

Leaving Cazalla and crossing several bleak mountains, it requires nine hours to reach Cantillana, on the banks of the Guadalquivir, the Sierra Morena terminating three leagues before at the narrow pass of Montegil. After crossing the river at Cantillana, the face of the country is totally changed; the terebinthus, cintus and lentiscus are seen no more, nor the mountainous plants observed before between Almaden and this place, from whence one may conclude that hitherto the soil was much of the same nature, for in coming from the Pyrenees to the southward, these sierras are common, but going northward towards France, it is just the reverse, and no real mountains are to be seen in the interior parts of that kingdom, the country consisting chiefly of strata of earth one over the other.

An extensive plain reaches from Cantillana to the city of Seville, which requires five hours to pass over, consisting of poor land, without any stones, but producing a great deal of dwarf palm, or palmetto, which covers the ground like fern: the leaves being tied together serve to make besoms sufficient to supply the whole kingdom; two sorts of wild asparagus also grow here with a very thin skin, one green and the other white, which before they bud their leaves have a multitude of flowers as white as snow †.

The ancient and famous city of Seville has been fully described by modern travellers; its streets are paved with pebbles brought from a great distance, for there are none hereabouts. The old Roman walls which are of earth are now so well cemented, that they are become as hard as stone. In the Alcazar, a palace built by king Peter in the fourteenth century, there are baths which were designed for his favourite Dona Maria de Padilla, in a retired situation shaded with orange trees, which still continue to give fruit ‡.

In the winter season storks are very numerous in Seville, almost every tower in the city is inhabited by them, and they return annually to the same nests §. The cathedral of Seville is a fine gothic building, with a curious steeple, or tower, having a moveable figure of a woman at top, called *La Giralda*, which turns round with the wind. This steeple is reckoned one of the greatest curiosities in Spain, and is higher than St. Paul's in London ‖. The first clock made in the kingdom was set up there in 1400, in presence of king Henry the IIId, when the oldest clock we have in England that is supposed to go tolerably well, is in the palace of Hampton Court, and of the year 1540. Nothing can be more delightful than the prospect of the country round Seville, beheld from the steeple abovementioned, its beautiful and fertile plains, with its delightful gardens and orange groves, convey every idea of fertility and pleasure, with the addition of the river Guadalquivir, which brings ships up to the walls of the city.

It is a journey of seven hours from Merida to

* When the bark is taken off, it is piled up in a pond or ditch, and loaded with heavy stones to flatten it, and reduce it into tables, from whence it is taken to be dried and tied up in bundles for exportation, being then in a proper state for the different purposes for which cork is applied.

† In this plain there is a great number of olive trees, whose trunks are scarcely any thing better than bark, from their bad method of planting these trees, they doing no more than taking a stake of an olive tree, of the size of one's arm, slit at the bottom six inches into four parts; they put a stone between the slits, and then set it about two feet under ground, making a trench round it to keep in the water; the top of the stake being uncovered, the rain penetrates that way, and by degrees with the warm air rots the inside.

‡ The *solano* wind or south-east, is very troublesome here and all over Andalusia, turning the head and heating the blood in such a manner as to cause various excesses, and were not precautions taken to prevent its effects, they would still be more sensible in youth of both sexes.

§ They destroy all the vermin on the tops of the houses, and pick up a great number of snakes, so that they are welcome guests to the inhabitants, and looked upon with peculiar veneration. It is said in some parts of Spain, that if they do not appear by St. Agatha's Day, (the fifth of February,) the people fling stones at them when they come and drive them away.

‖ This beautiful tower is 350 feet high. St. Paul's in London, 344. St. Mark's, at Venice, 337 feet. Salisbury steeple, 400 feet; and St. Peter's, at Rome, 432 feet.

Talavera

Talavera* through a sandy plain, traversed by the Guadiana, which has a great many islands covered with flocks of sheep, and numerous herds of cattle, that are often carried away as well as the shepherds by the sudden increase of the river: the plain from Talavera to Badajoz produces nothing but broom. At this last city the soil changes again, and the calcareous earth, stone, and rocks make their appearance once more. Estremadura is the only part of Spain where they have neither salt springs nor rock salt, which obliges the inhabitants to procure those articles from their neighbours. This large and fertile province, reputed about fifty leagues in length, and forty in breadth, so happily situated for every branch of culture, and where the Romans seem to have taken such delight, is now thought not to contain above a hundred thousand inhabitants, a number comprised in many capital cities; but if their numbers are small, they value themselves on the quality of their heroes, having furnished a Cortez, a Pizarro, and the unfortunate though great Velasco Nunez de Balbao.

The ancient city of Badajoz, the *Pax Augusta* of the Romans, called *Badaugos* by the Moors, and now Badajoz, is the frontier town next to Portugal. The bridge over the Guadiana has twenty-six arches, and was built by Philip the Second. Numerous families of negroes and mulatoes are settled in this country between Badajoz and Zafra.

Proceeding from Zafra to Sta. Marta, the country improves for about five leagues to Zarza del Angel; then you pass by Monasterio to Fuente de Cantos, where the Sierra Morena begins: Sta. Olalla is the first village in the kingdom of Seville, it being a dismal and melancholy journey of ten hours over these dreary hills to Castel Blanco, with the same plants as at Almaden, to which may be added the wild germander. Considerable efforts have been made to improve the waste lands of this horrid Sierra, and give a new face to the country, for which purpose foreigners have been invited to settle there, and great exertions have taken place for some years past. In 1767, eleven towns and five villages were already formed in the Sierra Morena, as well as four towns and fifteen villages in that part which divides the kingdom of Cordova and Seville, making all together 2440 families, consisting of 10490 persons, of which 8179 were labourers, and 2217 mechanics, exclusive of journeymen and servants. They have built twenty-four parish churches and chapels, 2200 houses, and fifteen inns, planted 200,000 olive trees, above half a million of mulberry trees, and as much more of various kinds of fruit trees, elm, vine, &c. their harvests consist chiefly of wheat, barley, peas, and beans, producing one year with another five hundred thousand *fanegas;* the vines begin to prosper, and are expected to become a considerable object, and they have moreover established many branches of silk and woollen manufacture.

After traversing the Sierra Morena it is no small relief to enter the extensive and fertile plain of Seville, which leads to that capital city, and makes some amends to the traveller for the scene of desolation he has passed. Going through a beautiful country for three days, you come to Antequera, situated on a hill at a league distance

* Different from *Talavera de la Reyna* on the Tagus in New Castile, famous for its fine earthenware and silk manufacture: these belonged to the crown till sold in 1762, to a merchant of the name of Ulstariz, for 7,410,000 reals, value £83,362 10s. sterling. Their annual consumption is 21,000 lb. of silk, 4000 marcs of silver, and 60 of gold, having 336 looms, and about 1438 workmen, chiefly Spaniards. They make annually 55,000 varrs of gold and silver lace, 660,000 varrs of ribbands, 5000 pairs of silk stockings, 32,000 varrs of taffety, 8200 varrs of velvets and velverets, 2300 varrs of gold and silver stuffs, 2000 varrs of velverets mixed with silk, 10,500 varrs of damask, tabbies, &c. exclusive of gold and silver twist buttons, handkerchiefs, and other less articles. The greatest encouragement is giving to the raising of mulberry trees for the silk worms; many plants of which have been distributed by the proprietor, at his own expence, to all the villages round him.

They have remarkable processions here at Easter, which go by the name of *mondas de Talavera*, when all the country people assemble and form a procession with garlands of flowers, each division guided by a person carrying a staff covered with flowers at top, and making an offering of these to the Blessed Virgin, according to the custom of the Pagans, who used to do the same to their gods; perhaps the difficulty of abolishing these ceremonies, says Don Antonio Ponz, has engaged the clergy to convert them into obsequious rites to the Blessed Virgin, as the church has wisely done with other heathenish customs equally difficult to eradicate. *Viaje de Espena, tom. 7. Madrid*, 1779.

Two leagues from *Talavera de la Reyna* you find *Talavera la Vieja*, famous for the remains of a temple as well as several Roman inscriptions and other antiquities, which have been described and published with copper plates, at Madrid, in 1762, by Don Ignacio de Hermosilla at the secretary of state's office for the West India department.

om a high mountain, consisting of an entire lock of flesh-coloured marble, which must be rossed on horseback, to go to Malaga; several rings which issue from it form themselves into rivulet.

The hills are covered with vineyards, and as ou descend into the low lands, the eye is enptured with the most beautiful objects; the eary month of January in a northern climate here a scene of delight; which continues to alaga, an ancient and celebrated city, taken from the Moors, in 1487, by Ferdinand and Isabel, after a most vigorous defence, and having been 772 years in their possession. A city not less remarkable for its opulence and extensive commerce, than for the luxuriance of its soil, yielding in great abundance the most delicious fruits; whilst its rugged mountains afford those luscious grapes which give such reputation to the Malaga wines, known in England by the emphatical name of *Mountain*.*

CHAPTER VIII.

escribing the Country between Malaga and Cape de Gat—Excursion from the City of Granada to Cordova and Anduxar, in Andalusia—Observations made in a progress from Cadiz to Carthagena —The face of the Country between Carthagena and Alicant.

HE first remarkable place eastward of Malaga is Velez Malaga. A few leagues fur- r is the little port of Herradura†.

Further on Motril is another little sea-port. different parts of this coast, almost as far to westward as Gibraltar, there are above twelve gar-mills, called Ingenios. In Motril only ere are four of them, which cost at least eighty ousand pistoles each, sugar having been made ere time immemorial, as perfect, according to opinion of good judges, as any imported m the West-Indies, which is not so extraorary when we consider that the first slips of the ne were sent from thence to the Canary Islands, m whence Nicholas de Ovando, governor of paniola, introduced them, in 1506, into his vernment, where they thrived surprisingly: in Spain their cultivation is disregarded. With respect to sugar, it has been neglected through political motives, and the canes have been rooted up to make way for the vine; even the pine-apple, which was first introduced from the Spanish settlements, was unknown in the royal gardens of their monarchs till within these few years, that Boutelou, the king's under gardener raised them at Aranjuez.

From Motril to Almeria you range along the mountains, many of which are of marble to the very summit, the strand is level and sandy, with very little earth, except near Almeria. They make salt-petre at the first boiling at Almeria, which is sent to Granada to undergo a second process, without the assistance of fixed alkali, nor does the earth from whence it is collected contain any gypsum.

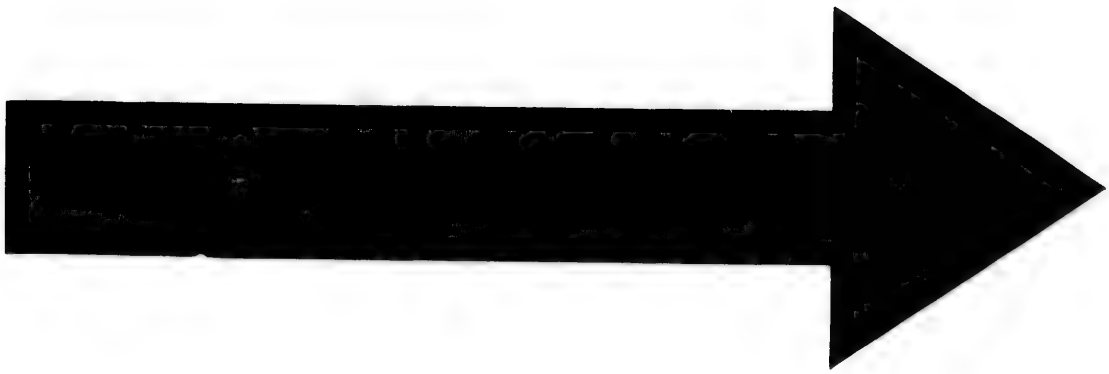
About half way towards Cape de Gat there is

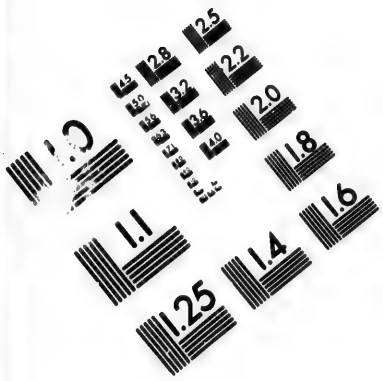
* These valuable mountains have moreover a peculiar advage, that the drought which is so prejudicial to corn, ributes principally to the goodness and flavour of the pe, as the surrounding mists afford every necessary reshment, and are more serviceable than rain, which would er injure the roots, by washing away that light coat of with which they are so sparingly provided.

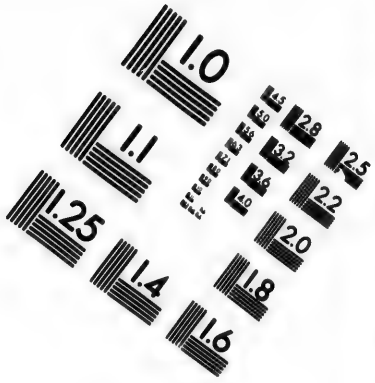
ere are produced those excellent and remarkable potapeculiar to this district, and in so great esteem in other s of Spain: they are equally an American production, gh different from the common potatoe, which is only n of late years at Madrid, and not in any other part e kingdom, except Galicia, where they are common, as g been first brought there by the Spaniards.

bout three miles to the westward of Malaga, there are gardens about a hundred paces from the sea, and on a level with it, inclosed with the Indian fig or prickly pear, and with the aloe, whose sharp pointed leaves serve as an excellent fence against cattle. Further on to the westward, about two leagues from Malaga, there is a cavern where the water forms enormous pieces of calcareous spar, which takes a beautiful polish, and much of it has been used in the royal palace of Madrid.

† This town is not laid down on Lopez's map of Spain, but may be seen on the French chart of the Mediterranean, dedicated to the duke of Choiseul in 1764, by Joseph Roux at Marseilles, hydrographer to the king, and is an exact copy from Michelot, who was pilot of the gallies to Lewis the XIVth.







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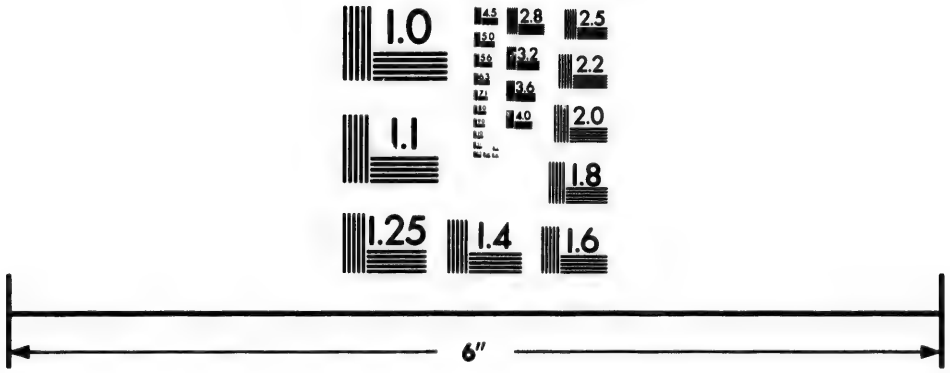

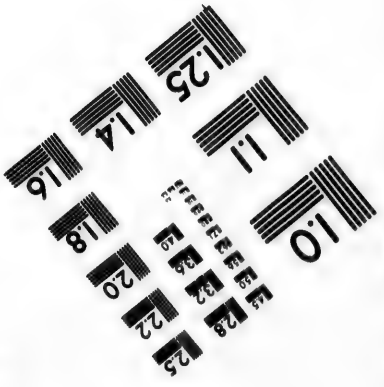

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a large plain so full of garnets that a ship might be loaded with them; they are likewise to be found in a gulley formed by the waves at the foot of a hill in that neighbourhood. The sea sometimes throws up worms hereabouts four or five inches long, and one broad near the belly, with circular loins and the body divided into ringlets, which emit a purple liquor flowing from every part when cut in pieces.

The famous mountain of Filabres is about three leagues from Almeria, but it takes ten hours in going to it, the road is so turned by the many hills to be passed before one reaches it*.

On the side towards the village of Machael, lying at the foot of this mountain, a great part of the kingdom of Granada is discovered, which is mountainous, and resembles the waves of the sea in a storm. On the other side the mountain is cut almost perpendicularly, and from its prodigious elevation affords a most awful prospect with the city of Gandia, which, though at a distance, if considered with a bird's-eye view, seems only half a league off. The Sierra de Gador is another immense mass of marble, of which they make excellent lime. It dissolves entirely with acids, without leaving the least residue of clay or other matter, whereas the stone in other parts of Spain, particularly in Valencia, has a mixture of clay or sand.

Cape de Gat is a huge promontory consisting of an enormous rock, of a singular nature, different from any other appearance in Spain, eight leagues in circuit and five broad; the first object that strikes the eye is a rock two hundred feet high, and about fifty paces from the sea, all crystallized in large stones of the size of a man's leg, with four or five plates chased one within another of a rincreous colour, from eight to fourteen inches long, with a large grain that will take a good polish. Precious stones are said to be found in the mountain of Bujo, in a cavern with an entrance about fifteen paces wide and twenty feet high, where the agitation of the waves is very great in bad weather: Mr. Bowles went in there but could discover nothing of consequence. On the outside a large white patch serves as a land mark to mariners, and from thence called *Vela Blanca*. This is what is properly called Cape de Gat. Near the *Torre de las Guardas* there is a bed of jasper of a white ground veined with red, and further on, near the *Torre de Neste*, a low rock is seen almost covered with a stratum of white cornelian. In the centre of this promontory there are four hills near to each other, called the Sacristan, the Two Friers, the Captain, and the White Mountain, but nothing remarkable to be observed from their outward appearance. The other side of the promontory, after passing these four hills, is called *El Puerto de la Plata*, where the Moorish Corsairs lie lurking for Spanish vessels to intercept them, and carry their crews into dire captivity. There is a rock near this *Puerto*, which extends towards the sea, and called *El Monte de las Guardos*, where they find amethysts, but still more abundantly in a stratum of quartz of very difficult access, being in a precipice twenty feet high. The true amethyst resembles a pyramid reversed, while the rock crystal has six faces, and is larger at bottom than at top.

In going from Granada to Andalusia, the first stage is at Loxa, a journey of ten hours, through that beautiful plain called *La Vega de Granada*, and then ascending a mountain, through another cultivated vale. Loxa is a middling town pleasantly situated on a high hill of conglutinated stone, which forms a kind of *brechia* or pudding-stone, in the centre of olive ground having plenty of fruit, notwithstanding its elevated, cold, and dry situation.

From Loxa to the westward, the country is fertile, producing wheat and barley, in a light soil well furnished with oak. The soil of these hills seems to proceed from the decomposition of former rocks, many of which appear in broken lumps, intermixed with the arable land. Alameda is the first town in the kingdom of Seville; a few corn fields are seen in the low lands but in general the western boundaries of Granada are made up of steep rocks and craggy mountains. The *Solano* winds prevail much here, and do a great deal of mischief, destroying the harvest if they blow early in the season†.

The country is extremely pleasant to Herr

* This amazing and stupendous mountain is a solid block of white marble about a league in circuit, and two thousand feet high, without the least mixture of any other stone or earth, the marble appearing in many places where neither the wind, rain, nor any of those causes which destroy the hardest rocks, have yet made the least impression.

† The country people are fond of tobacco, and those they have near them those excellent wines of Mala

ith a white and red earth which is remarkably rtile, divested of any loose stone, pebble, or int, so common in other parts of the kingdom. stepa, about a league from Herrera, stands in picturesque manner, on the top of a hill surunded with olive trees. The olive of Estepa small, but delicious, and gives an oil as clear d delicate as that of Valencia*.

The olives are gathered from the middle of ctober to the middle of November. If a good ar they sell from 20 to 24 reals the arroba bout 5*s.* 4*d.* sterling) but in years of scarcity ill rise to 36 or 40 reals. A *fanega* of olives ill yield an arroba of oil. In the South of rance they are not gathered till they are perctly ripe, and have acquired a reddish hue inlining to black; if this period passes, they rinkle, moulder, and rot. Those that are reen, give a bitter taste to the oil, and they arefully separate such as are worm-eaten, hich would vitiate the flavour of the sound ones. hey grind them as in Spain, then the substance laid under the press; the first juice that runs ut is called virgin oil, and is the most delicate for he table, its goodness arising from the freshness f the fruit. The second sort is obtained by ouring boiling water on the substance remainng in the press; but this oil is like that of Spain, crimonious, and subject to corruption.

It is five hours journey from Herrera to Ecija, greeably situated, but one of the hottest towns n Spain. The horses of Ecija are reckoned the best in Andalusia; and remarkable for the goodness of their hoofs, owing to the dryness of the ground, while at Seville, and in the flat country on the banks of the Guadalquivir, they are spungy, and liable to crack in hot weather; but in point of shape, the beautiful horse of Cordova is the most perfect, though of late their studs are greatly neglected.

Nothing can be more delightful than the face of the country from Ecija to Cordova, a space of nine leagues, yet without a single village, or even a spring; for which reason they must have a great deal of rain to have any crop: but when they are blessed with plentiful showers their harvest is very great. The city of Cordova is seated on the banks of the Guadalquivir, about a league from the Sierra Morena, and has ever been famous for the magnificence and splendour of its nobles. Even the Jews in former times are said to have vied with the others in pomp and parade. Its cathedral is famous for its antiquity and structure, with numerous pillars of different marble, which seems to have been taken from old Roman structures. The country from Cordova to Anduxar is extremely well cultivated, and beautifully varied with corn, olive, and vines.

The city of Cadiz is built on a peninsula upon rocks, stretching out into the sea composed of a great variety of matter, such as marble, spar, pebble, and shells incorporated in the sand, and combined together by a glutinous substance in the sea, which seems powerful in this place, as may be observed by the rubbish thrown into it, insomuch that bricks, stone, sand, shells, &c. after a certain time become consolidated and form one single mass. In old Spanish chronicles is called *Calis*, from whence our English mariners generally call it Cales.

The *Solano* wind is still more troublesome here than in Seville, and when it has blown for eight or ten days, introduces such an acrimony into the blood, and causes such a tension of the fibres, as to have the most alarming effects on the fair sex, with very unpleasing symptoms, like the Sirocco in Italy.

In the capuchin's garden there is a dragon tree, supposed to be the only one in the kingdom, though it grows naturally in the Cape de Verde

Xerez, they seldom or ever drink them, preferring distilled liquors, without any visible prejudice; for the men are robust, and the women have good features, with lively sparkling eyes, full of expression and fire.

* The Seville olive, though often as large as a dove's egg, does not yield near so good oil, for which reason they are more frequently pickled. Even so far back as the days of Cicero they were in high estimation, for in writing to his friend in Andalusia, he compliments him on being intendant of so fertile a province, and reminds him to send him some Seville olives to Rome. They are very careless notwithstanding in making their oil, leaving the fruit a long time collected in heaps, so that it rots before it is ground, part of the oil turns into mucilage, and acquires a rank and disagreeable flavour, and as there are few mills in proportion to the quantity of fruit, each person is obliged to wait for his turn, sometimes for months, from whence in this warm climate a fermentation ensues, which of course occasions bad oil. Others deceive themselves through a principle of avarice, for though the olive yields more juice from having lain by for some time, it is at the expence of its quality, such thin fermented matter hardly deserving the name of oil, for which reason, and from their little care in putting it into proper vessels, and carrying it about the country in skins, the oil in general is wretchedly bad at Madrid.

islands,

islands, as well as at the island of Madeira. Modern writers have fully described the extensive commerce, affluence, and hospitality of the citizens of Cadiz; they are badly supplied with water, and their flesh market is indifferent, but the bay affords them a variety of excellent fish.

Port St. Mary is a large and handsome city, on the north side of the bay, from whence it is a journey of three leagues to the city of Xerez, remarkable for its excellent wine so well known by the name of *Sherry*.

Medina Sidonia is six leagues from Xerez, then the city of Arcos, seated on a craggy rock, at the foot of which runs the river Guadalete; a route of ten hours through a stony country leads to the village of Algodonales lying under a high mountain pierced through from east to west.

The city of Ronda is six leagues from Algodonales, on a very high situation, it being a continual ascent from Xerez, which continues as far as Gibraltar: the country about Ronda is remarkably fertile, and supplies Cadiz with all kinds of fruit and vegetables, the soil is of a reddish colour with pebble, and resists the heat of the fire, for which reason it is much used in furnaces for fusing iron*.

The district of Ronda furnishes the fierce bull, the ravenous wolf, and other noxious animals; its rocks serve as a retreat for the eagle, the osprey, and kite; yet notwithstanding such numerous enemies, its soil makes ample amends by its unbounded fertility.

The *Sierra Vermeja* is a range of hills which runs westwardly towards Malaga, and affords a singular curiosity; for though they run parallel, and so close that their bases join, yet one is red and the other is white; snow will not remain on the highest, while it constantly covers the other. The waters of the white hill are martial and vitriolic; those of the red sulphureous, alkaline, and with a strong smell like those of Cotterets in France. Near this place is the last village on the Carthagena side.

Near Lorca there are two ancient mines of lead and copper, and in the *Sierra* towards the sea near Carthagena, the village of Almazarron is famous for its fine red earth without any mixture of sand, and is a principal ingredient used in Spanish snuff, to give it that fine colour and softness to the hand, and to fix its volatility. It is sometimes called after the name of the village, but more commonly *almagre*, and is likewise used in the glasshouse of St. Ildefonso instead of *tripoli*, to give the last polish to glass, as others use *colcothar of vitriol*, the *caput mortuum*, or residue left at the bottom of the vessel after the distillation of vitriol. Near Almazarron the remains of a silver mine are to be seen, which in former times is reported to have yielded great quantities of silver. A plain of six leagues, with reddish soil, like the neighbouring hills leads to Carthagena, and is so fertile in corn in rainy seasons, that it produces sixty for one; but this seldom happens, as the country is frequently scorched up, and they suffer from droughts; however their plentiful harvest of *barilla* makes them ample amends, requiring little water, and being in great demand in England, Ireland, and France, for making crystal glass, hard soap, and for bleaching. Besides these advantages, the kingdoms of Granada and Murcia, yield together annually 700,000lbs weight of raw silk, which is now totally consumed in the manufactories of Spain. They make cables in the arsenal of Carthagena with hemp from the kingdom of Arragon, the use of which was introduced under the direction of admiral Don Jorge Juan, and they imagine them to be equal in goodness to any imported from abroad†.

In going from Carthagena to Alicant, you cross the rich vale of Murcia, covered with mulberry trees, and pass through a delightful country to Orihuela and Elche, remarkable for its numerous groves of palm trees, the branches of which are a lucrative article of trade. The fer-

* Amongst other curiosities with which the country of Ronda abounds, that little animal called the gennet is one of the most extraordinary, and not to be found in any other part of Europe except Turkey. It is smaller than the civet, has a long body, short legs, a sharp snout, and a slender head; under its tail there is a long bag, which emits a perfume. Its fur is soft and glossy, of an ash colour marked with black spots, which unite upon the back and form stripes which run longitudinally from the neck backward, with a long tail diversified with ringlets of black and white: the fur was formerly in esteem, but of late has been counterfeited by tinging grey rabbit skins with black spots, and is now out of fashion.

† Amongst the stone at the bottom of the harbour, the fishermen bring up the *Pholades*, which a few years ago were not known there, the people not suspecting they could subsist in the centre of these rocks, without any visible aperture to get in at; at present they are searched after as a delicate morsel, and are to be found in most places on the Mediterranean coast.

ity of this country, particularly round Orihuela, ceeds all description, their harvests of wheat very great, and they are reckoned to have best bread in Spain. The castle of Alicant nds on a limy rock above a thousand feet high, ving shells half petrified on its summit. The nts of the vallies grow also on its top, the seeds which were probably dropped by birds, or ought by the winds. The *Huerta de Alicante* beautiful plantation, about one league long d two broad, full of vineyards, which they are metimes obliged to water; the grape never-eless affords excellent wine.

The city of Alicant forms a crescent, on the -side, and is well known for the luxuriancy of environs, as well as its extensive and lucrative mmerce.

A chain of hills are discernible at Alicant, ex-ding from Murc[illegible] forming a semicircle of o leagues extent from the city, and close in h the sea about four leagues from each other, tting in a fine vale. The western side is un-en, full of stone, and consists of a white calca-us soil, whose surface is covered with large ells more perfectly petrified than those on the -shore*.

On doubling the first point of land to the tward of Alicant, the bay and harbour of St. ul presents itself, with a view of the ancient stle of the duke of Arcos. Here the ships me to an anchor and load salt from the *Mata*, reat lake from the sea-side, but without any visible communication with it. The quantity of salt collected here is immense, and is the property of the king, costing little more than the labour of heaping it, being in a manner produced naturally. The high bank which separates the sea from the *Mata* appears natural; the lake is bounded on the land-side by mountains, and is formed by the torrents of rain-water that rush down in winter, which evaporating gradually by the heat of the sun, added to the nature of the soil, become a mass of salt, so plentiful, that some years the exports have amounted to near one hundred thousand ton weight, chiefly for Holland and the Baltic; considerable quantities also are in demand for curing of fish, particularly for Newfoundland and New England. The cost is about eleven shillings sterling per ton, on board; and the king, in order to encourage the export, permits the price always to remain the same. The soil and air in general, on the coast of Valencia, Murcia, and Granada, is impregnated to a very uncommon degree with salt, and considerable salt-petre works are carried on in many parts, particularly at Murcia and Lorca, collected from the earth in the fields, the very dust on the roads and in the streets; from which, after extracting the quantity of salt-petre, the same dirt, thrown up in large heaps, serves again in four or five years, for the like purpose, and furnishes a fresh supply. This circumstance renders the soil so peculiarly favourable for the culture of *barilla*†.

CHAPTER IX.

Observations made in the City of Valencia and its environs—Journey from Barcelona to the Mountains of Montserrat.

THE city of Valencia is happily situated about three miles from the sea on the west e of the river Guadalaviar, with five stone dges over it, which afford a variety of agree-e outlets from this pleasant city, exultingly rising out of a forest of mulberry-trees, which bring an immense wealth to its citizens.

I shall not enter into a detail of the manifold branches of cultivation in the environs of Valencia, where nature always smiles, and where the

* Two leagues to the south-west of Alicant, there is an lated calcareous mountain, at the eastern foot of which y find small crystals, red, yellow, and white, with two nts like diamonds as regularly cut as if done by a lapi-y. The red and yellow are hyacinths.

† There are eight or ten different sorts of plants in the plains of Alicant, whose ashes serve for making glass and soap: but the *barilla* is the principal and best sort: the method of making it is well described in Miller's Gardener's Dictionary, and is much the same as used in the North of England in burning kelp. An acre may give about a ton.

very air is constantly embalmed with the fragrant perfume of an infinite number of fruit trees and odoriferous herbs. The cedrats are so large as sometimes to weigh more than six pounds, when the tree that produced them is not above two or three feet in height: the grapes are the most delicious imaginable, with bunches sometimes fourteen pounds weight, and every grape as large as a nutmeg. The grapes of Valencia and Grenada have the preference to all others in Spain. They cannot, it is true, from their distance, be sent fresh to England like those of Portugal, but they ship off large quantities of raisins at Malaga*. The raisins *of the sun*, as they are called, are still more delicate, having the stalk half cut through while the bunch remains suspended on the vine, and partakes of the heat of the sun, as the sap cannot penetrate after they are dried; they are packed up in boxes. This is the method used in Granada, which makes them more luscious and delicate, and justly gives the preference to the Malaga raisins.

There is a pleasant village about two leagues from Valencia, consisting of four streets inhabited chiefly by potters, who make a pretty earthen ware of a copper colour with gilding, that serves the country people both for ornament and use, it is made of an agillaceous earth, very similar in quality and colour to that of Valencia, in which virgin mercury is found †.

It is an agreeable to urof five leagues from Valencia to Morviedro, famous for the remains of the ancient *Saguntum* and its Roman theatre described by dean Marti as well as by such English travellers as have passed that way. The view from the top of the hill is most beautiful with an extensive prospect of the vale and city of Valencia and the Mediterranean. At a few leagues distance from hence to the south-east beyond a chain of hills, consisting of red marble and lime rock, the Carthusian monks have a convent situated in a perfect paradise, where they make excellent wine. There are two copper mines near this convent.

To return to the plains of Valencia, it would be an endless theme to enlarge upon its products: they cultivate great quantities of lucern which is acceptable to horses, and makes excellent hay. The Spaniards call it *alfalsa*. Its roots make little brushes for the teeth, that are sought after by dentists. The *chirimoya*, a very fine fruit from South America, thrives and bears fruit in Valencia; in a word, every production of nature may be said to prosper in this kingdom‡, for here we find corn, wine, oil, honey, flax, sugar, cotton, rice, silk, besides fruits, and plants, pro-

* They prepare them in Valencia with the lixivium of seeds whose salt augments the heat of the water in boiling. The grape is dipped for a moment in this lixivium, when the skin bursts on every side, and the juice gushing out candies in the air, after which the bunches are hung to dry in the sun. The cold weather afterwards perfects this crystallization, so that when they get to England, they become so many cakes of sugar, infinitely better than when first shipped off.

† This earthen ware is very glossy, and remarkably cheap, but is far from being the best ware in Valencia; another manufacture has been lately set up at *Alcora*, by the count de Aranda, a grandee of Spain, which for the fineness of the clay might vie with other manufactures of the kind, were its varnish less liable to crack and scale off.

It goes by the name of Count Aranda's ware, and is sold at Madrid.

‡ The following sketch exhibits the value of the principal products of Valencia.

	£ Sterling.
Silk crop annually about 1,500,000lb. of 12 ounces, which sells on the spot at a price equal to 10*s.* - - - -	750,000
400,000lb. weight English, or 20,000 ton of rice for home consumption, at 15*s.* per cwt. -	300,000
lbs. For exportation *s. d.*	
150,000 Barilla - - at 10 6 -	75,000
80,000 Raisins - - 7 6 -	30,000
Brought over	1,155,000
10,000 Kernels of Almonds 40 0 - -	20,000
10,000 Pipes of Brandy £10 0 0 - -	100,000
10,000 Wine - - 4 0 0 - -	40,000
	£1,315,000

Besides great quantities of wool, aniseeds, cummin seeds, and many other smaller articles, and a large quantity of oil for home consumption. Nothing is mentioned in this account, of cotton, which is a considerable article. I will now state the whole, as given us by Mr. Swinburne, and reduce it into English money, as it makes the annual revenue much more considerable.

	Dollars.
Silk crop of 1775, one million of pounds, at four dollars per lb. (though a good deal of it sells for three dollars) - - - -	4,000,000
Fruit of different kinds - - -	2,000,000
Hemp at 3 dollars per arrove - - -	300,000
Rice at 10 dollars per load - - -	1,400,000
Cotton 450,000 arroves - - -	1,350,000
Vintage of 1767 wine, at 5 reals per measure	861,133
	9,911,133

Which sum of 9,911,133 dollars, at forty pence sterling per dollar, is £1,655,855 10*s.* sterling.

ing altogether near ten millions of dollars *per annum*. Few cities enjoy a more temperate air, have more beautiful environs. The *Alameda*, public walk, is one of the most pleasing in in.

The city of Barcelona is generally reckoned of the most agreeable places in Spain. Its asant situation, its commerce, with the acity and industry of its inhabitants, contribute make it a place of splendour and affluence. this city the traveller will find a curious caet of natural history belonging to a private zen, Mr. Salvador, an eminent apothecary, o shews his collection to strangers with the ost urbanity.

The first stage from Barcelona leads to the n of Martorel, at the conflux at the rivers va and Lobregat; here you are sensibly struck h the tremendous appearance of the grand and mn mountain of Montserrat, impressing on mind the most exalted ideas, in viewing this nderful effort of nature. You seem quite e to it, but have still three hours, in the usual hod of travelling in Spain, to approach its is, and as many more after to climb up to its mit. There is a famous bridge over the bregat at Martorel, with an arch at its foot. Martorel is a large town, replete with indusus inhabitants, all employed and constantly ork; the women in making black lace, and men in various useful and laborious occuions; a little further on, at the village of Espaguara, there is a manufactory of cloth, which ntains numbers of families; the same spirit of ur and application is universal every where Catalonia; but we now draw near to the lofty ntain of Montserrat, the most singular per in the world for its appearance, composi, and productions; as much the admiration he naturalist, as revered by the natives in eral, from the renown of its sanctuary, fa for miracles and the extraordinary favours nted by our lady of Montserrat to its numes votaries.

The whole extent of this mountain may be ut eight leagues in circumference, its chief erials consisting of round limestone, firmly glutinated with a yellow calcareous earth and d, not unlike the *Brechia* or pudding-stone of ppo, only that the grain is coarser and the es larger than that of the Levant, with a further addition of round white quartz streaked with red, as well as touchstone, all cemented together, forming one perfect solid mass, and according to the natural bitumen which united all these together, has occasionally given way in the course of fleeting years, various torrents of rain water have rolled down and washed away the earth, the result of their decomposition, and have split the mountain into an infinite variety of shapes and singular appearances, forming in some places the most amazing clefts and frightful precipices: in others, huge pieces of blanched and bare rock shoot up into sharp cones, pillars, and jagged forms, from twenty to a hundred feet high, exhibiting wonderful aspects that strike the eye with surprize, and the mind with astonishment! its wildness increasing in proportion as you advance higher, insomuch that on reaching the summit of this enormous pile, human reason is lost in conjecture, but the sight is gratified with the most splendid prospect, looking down on an extensive kingdom beneath you as on a map, exhibiting a fertile country to the south, studded with villages and watered with rivers; the eye stretching out further over the Mediterranean, the landscape is rendered still more striking from the contrast on the north and east, bounded by the bare and dark mountains of the Roussillon, and the snowy tops of the Pyrenees. On these inhospitable cliffs of Montserrat, amidst the constant inclemency of jarring elements, dwells the pale hermit, with hairy gown, wrapt up in silent contemplation. Here he has hewn a solitary dwelling, and offers up his fervent prayers, and takes his lonely walk, lifting up his eyes, musing

> Of every star that heav'n doth shew,
> And every herb that sips the dew.

But though the elements have wreaked their fury upon these elevated peaks, the indulgent hand of nature has not been sparing in her gifts to this surprising mountain, as numberless evergreens and deciduous plants serve to adorn the various gaps and breaks which its singular shape admits of, rendering it a curious repository of the vegetative kingdom. The lower part of the mountain has decomposed much sooner than the upper parts and turned into soil, productive of corn, vineyards, and olive, while the shelving rocks facilitate a passage to the summit, and exhibit to the botanist a view of above two hundred sorts

sorts of trees, shrubs, and plants that shoot up spontaneously, gracing this hoary and venerable pile. The direction of this great mountain is from east to west. It is impossible to view this amazing mountain without the utmost admiration; its name has been extended to one of the British islands in the West Indies, and its fame is universal: its prodigious clefts impress the mind with such wonder, that it has given rise to the opinion in common with Gaeta in Italy, that these tremendous rocks were suddenly rent in this manner when our Saviour gave up the ghost on the cross, when "*The earth quake, and the rocks rent.*" *St. Matth.* xxvii.

CHAPTER X.

Return to Valencia and Castile—Mine of Sal Gemat Mingranilla—Source of the River Guadia —Mine of Antimony near Santa Cruz de Mudela in La Mancha.

IN going from Barcelona towards Valencia you cross a fine bridge, lately built, over the Lobrega; at Molino del Rei; further on, another bridge over a deep valley has been attempted with a row of arches at an immense expence, the foundation has given way, and a long time must pass before it is completed. The new road was finished in 1778, as far as Villa Franca de Panades. The country is hilly and affords a variety of rural prospects. The ancient city of Tarragona stands near the sea, on an eminence that commands a fine prospect over a beautiful vale. The city exhibits several remains of Roman antiquities and inscriptions. Proceeding from Tarragona the next town is Reus, a commercial place, which of late years has greatly increased in buildings and population. Here the merchants of Barcelona have their factors and warehouses, and ship off their wines and brandies as the ships come to an anchor in the road of Salo, about three miles from Reus. Catalonia furnishes annually thirty-five thousand pipes brandy, which require a hundred and forty tho sand pipes of wine to make them, besides wh near two thousand pipes of wine are also ann ally exported; and of fruit about thirty tho sand bags of hazle nuts every year chiefly England, and worth about twenty shilling bag on the spot. It is a few hours excurs across the country to the northward, thro Monblanc to the royal convent of Pob founded by Alfonso first king of Arragon, the twelfth century, for monks of the Cister order; the abbot is a temporal baron and an extensive jurisdiction with a consider revenue. Several of the kings and queens Arragon are buried in the church with stat monuments, as well as some of the duke Medinaceli, and Cardonat.

It is a tedious journey from Reus to Tort on the banks of the Ebro, where there is a bri of boats that is crossed in passing to Valen I shall now resume the itinerary in going fr

* The singular rock of Gaeta in the kingdom of Naples, has an amazing cleft from the top to bottom, and is totally rent asunder, which they tell you happened at the death of our Saviour; a large block of marble has fallen in between, on which they have built a little chapel, dedicated to the Trinity, and ships passing near salute it; this place is held in great veneration, particularly in Spain; during the wars in Italy *La Santissima Trinidad de Gaeta* was greatly resorted to, and was a place of constant invocation. There is a good plate of this rock in the "Remarks on several Parts of Europe, by John Breval Esq. *London*, 1738.

† On viewing these tombs the emotions are only to be felt by an Englishman, that occur when he perceives in an obscure corner on an humble stone, the name of an English peer, Philip, duke of Wharton, an unhappy nobleman; at the pinnacle of glory in the dawn of life, but alas! whose evening was clouded with misery and scorn. After leaving his native country, he meanly crouched to the pretender, assumed the insignia of the order of the g bore arms against his country; abandoned and despi all, he was kindly received in the last moments of wretchedness, and was interred by the hospitable abb Poblet. Thus ended Wharton, an exile and an out shewing how little availed the highest dignities, fortune talents, without love and virtue for his country. His is extinct, and the faint inscription on his tomb, at pr nearly effaced, will soon be totally obliterated, while energetic lines of Pope, so descriptive of his character, hand down his failings as an example to posterity. Th scription on his tomb in the church of Poblet is as fol and is said to be of the duke's own composition.

Hic jacet Exs. Dom Philipus Warton, Anglus, Marchio et Comes de Warton, Marchio Marburiæ et logh Rathcasram, Vicecomes de Winchester, Baro de T lon Eques Sti. Georgii alias de la Geratera, obiit in Ecclesiæ Catholicæ Romanæ Populeti, die 31 *Maii*, 173

Vale

encia towards Castile; the ground continues
ise gradually as far as the chain of hills that
ile that kingdom from La Mancha, with a
steep ascent at the *Puerto de Bunol*. The
nt still continues to Villagorda, through a
ged country, broke up every where by gullies
asioned by torrents that gush from the moun-
s. On the highest of them there is a quarry
rey marble, veined with red; the river Ca-
runs at its foot. At its summit there is a
y spring, where they make salt with a boil-
heat. It is a constant descent from these hills
e village of Mingranilla: half a league from
village, there is a district of limy soil, with
e hillocks about half a league in circumfe-
ce, having below this bed of lime, a solid mine
al gem, equal to the superincumbent stratum;
epth is not known, for when the excavations
ed three hundred feet, it becomes very ex-
ive to extract the salt; the mines frequently
way, and fills with water, which obliges
n to abandon the shaft and work another near
he whole country being an enormous body of
sometimes mixed with a limy substance, and
thers pure or reddish, mostly crystaline.
The ground has been perceptibly carried away
torrents that have discovered the mine, for
bles and hyacinths are dispersed in the gullies
ich are now seen firmly conglutinated in the
e, forming hard rock, yet leaving no doubt
heir having fallen at some period, from the
, by what may be observed on their summit.
From hence an easy descent, for about four
rs, leads into the extensive plains of La
ncha, those regions of fancy which Cervantes
rendered immortal. They have plentiful
ps of saffron at San Clemente, and the best
grows in La Mancha. The saffron remains
or five years in the ground, producing an-
lly flowers; then the roots are taken up and
asplanted, and the soil becomes excellent for
, but twenty years must pass before any
ron is cultivated again.
La Mancha produces great quantities of laven-
cotton, said to be the same with the famous *mosa* from China, imported constantly by the English and Dutch; while the Spaniards, if this be the same plant, have it at home and know nothing of the matter.

The greatest part of La Mancha may be considered as one continued plain so far as the eye can extend without a single tree; as the villages are large, and the churches have lofty steeples, they make a good figure at a distance, but when you draw near, their mud walls with many houses in ruins convey quite a different idea. The inhabitants, for want of wood, burn thyme, southernwood, and wormwood, and though they have few springs they console themselves with drinking good wine: when one considers their manner of living in these silent villages, added to their natural simplicity, they seem to have lost little of their original character. At Socuellanos they get water about two or three feet from the surface; but at Tomilloso, four leagues further, the wells are a hundred feet deep. From hence it is an hour's journey to Luegar-nuevo on the banks of the famous Guadiana, and only three leagues from its source; there are many lakes hereabouts which communicate with each other, produced by springs whose waters form a river, which, having run for some leagues, disappears in the meadows near Alcazar de San Juan. In summer this river is trifling, but in winter it is necessary to go over the bridge at Villarta. The river disappearing there, shews itself again a few leagues off, in other lakes called *Ojos de Guadiana*, "The eyes of Guadiana;" from whence the proverbial expression of *a bridge where many herds of cattle are constantly grazing*. On that part called *The Bridge*, they have sunk wells for travellers and cattle, and always find water. When the Guadiana issues out of the lakes, it turns several mills, is a hundred feet broad, and about four in depth. It passes afterwards by Calatrava, Ciudad Real, Medellin, Merida, Badajoz, and Ayamonte, where it enters the ocean, dividing Spain and Portugal*.

Before I quit the territory of La Mancha, whose

Professor Link, speaking of the river Guadiana, says, ow beautiful would the banks of the Guadiana be, were but well cultivated! But the destructive ravages of the converted every thing into a naked common, which first not unpleasant, but at length fatigues the eye. da is situated very near the banks of the Guadiana,

being an open town of moderate size, full of small miserable houses like Truxillo, and, like that place, shews traces of having once been more thriving. The ruins here render this place remarkable; the remains of a Roman aqueduct are still seen, and of a wall describing a circle in the open fields; part of both are still in good preservation, and they

whose fame will never perish so long as wit and humour remain, I must once more investigate the bowels of the earth, and speak of a mine of antimony near Santa Cruz de Mudela, at the foot of the *Sierro Morena*, which, since 1774, has been successfully worked by Don Antonio Sancha, an eminent printer at Madrid, who, after having been at a considerable expence, now gets lumps of regulus of antimony of an enormous size, one weighing a hundred and fifty *arrobas*, and many of twenty or thirty, the smallest of four or five, for which he has considerable demand; he established a manufacture of *regulus* of a mony, and has wrought up above six hund *arrobas*, so white and chrystaline, as to l like silver, being superior to that of France Hungary; it is a valuable article in differ manufactures, particularly among printers making types, and is in great request at drid, where the art of printing is now brou to remarkable perfection.

greatly enliven this open and chearful country. At Merida (he continues) we passed the Guadiana over a handsome stone bridge. Over a few open pastures, at the foot of the last granite mountain, we came to a market town called Lobon; which, with its ruined castle, is situated on some hills at a small distance from the river, and concealed amid olive trees. The Guadiana winds along fertile but uncultivated plains. Between Merida and Badajos, on the plain which borders on the Guadiana, is another small town full of small wretched houses, and called in the maps Talavera la Real, but in the "Guide des Couriers" Talavera del arroye, and by the inhabitants Talaruela, a name more appropriate than either of the former. Badajos considerable town, being the capital of Estramadura a frontier fortress towards Portugal. The streets are in part straight and well paved; but there are few houses. The Guadiana flows close to it. But let traveller expect to find in this capital of Estramadura inns than in any large village. In the best, or, as the vernor expressed himself, the least bad, every thing be sent out for as in the smallest village, as nothing be found in the house."

THE END OF DILLON'S TRAVELS THROUGH SPAIN.

TRAVELS IN PORTUGAL,

BY

HENRY FREDERICK LINK,

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SECTION I.

Entrance into Portugal—Elvas—Portugueze Military—From Elvas to Estremoz—Arrayolus—Montemor o novo.

THE Portugueze frontier fortress of Elvas is but three Spanish leagues from Badajoz, from before the gate of which it is distinctly seen upon its hill. A small brook called the Cayo, which may be forded in dry weather, forms the frontier, which is in few places marked by nature, but is therefore more clearly drawn by art. On this side, the approach to Portugal appears uncommonly pleasing. Instead of wide-extended open sheep-walks, and far-dispersed villages, the country is adorned with detached houses here and there, which seem to indicate a superior state of cultivation. Before we came to Elvas we saw the first orange-garden, lying open along the road, though a great quantity of this fruit is grown round Badajoz. The dress of the inferior people is better; and the women are more friendly and communicative than those of Castile. They wear their hair, like the women of Biscay, uncovered and only lightly bound with a ribbon, or handkerchief. Their politeness, and their easy, gay, and friendly manners prejudice a stranger more in favour of the Portugueze than of the Spaniards; nor is this judgement altered, so long as the traveller is only acquainted with the lower classes, though he forms an opposite judgment so soon as he begins to know the higher orders.

We had scarcely passed the Cayo, before the regular tone of the Portugueze language began to sound in our ears. Most of the words are nearly the same as Spanish, but the pronunciation is extremely different.

On entering the inn at Elvas, we found the apartments and furniture similar to those of both the Castiles and of Estramadura; nay both were perhaps still worse. The houses are generally better, and more convenient in Spain; but here we had no occasion to send out for what we wanted, or perhaps ourselves to fetch every piece of bread or glass of wine, as both food and drink are supplied in every Portugueze inn, provided the traveller is contented with Portugueze fare.

Elvas is a city, and it first acquired that appellation in the reign of Dom Manuel, although it is said to be rebuilt by Dom Sancho II. who granted its foral*. It has four parish churches, six religious houses, besides a monastery of capuchins without the gate. The town and district contain twelve thousand inhabitants. The streets are narrow, irregular, and so full of dirt, that it is difficult to wade through them even in dry weather. The Spanish towns, even Badajoz itself, are in general much cleaner and neater. The country is pleasant; the hill on which the town stands is covered with olive-trees, and in the neighbourhood are a number of kitchen-gardens and orchards of oranges. The aqueduct, which is a very fine work, and a Portugueze league in length, consists (in the neighbourhood of the hill of Elvas, where it passes through a

* That is, laws or titles of creation, and of the conditions under which the settlers accepted the lands.

valley,)

valley,) of four rows of arches, one upon another, of a considerable height.

Elvas is governed by a corregedor, a provedor, and a juiz de fora, being the chief town of a corregimento*. It is the first and most important fortress in the country. The town itself is strongly fortified, and defended by two citadels situated on neighbouring hills; one called o forte de S. Luzia; the other erected by the Count of *Lippe Bückeburg*, and from him called *o forte de Nossa Senhora de graça de Lippe* In the town of Elvas every thing, as far as could be perceived, was in good order, in the spring of 1798; the fort was strongly garrisoned, and new works were carrying on. In Badajoz, on the contrary, all was empty and forsaken; and it was evident that Portugal was in fear, but not Spain. The troops at Elvas, especially the officers, had a truly military appearance, and a Prussian officer who should see them on guard would almost have taken them for colleagues in service, whereas the Spanish troops at Badajoz he would probably have disowned.

This improvement in the Portugueze army is entirely the work of count de Lippe, an extraordinary man, who lives in the remembrance of every inhabitant of the country. The whole nation held him in unbounded veneration, considered him as the creator of their army, and felt more than can be conceived on this side the Pyrenees, that he was a true knight, according to the ancient sense of that phrase.

The Portugueze troops are far from bad, and I know regiments that exercise and fire extremely well, even when compared with the troops of the various nations I have seen reviewed. It cannot, however, be denied that the officers are not respected as they deserve in a country which has long kept its ground by its military energy. It is true, commandants of fortresses who reside at Lisbon and have at most seen their forts once in their lives, and generals who are never with their regiments, do not much contribute to this improvement.

The uniform of the Portugueze infantry and cavalry is dark blue: that of the hussars light blue; the marines green; and the sailors are dressed like the English. But the blue or red cloth breeches of many of the regiments, and the black Manchester breeches of the officers, have an unpleasing appearance. Generals and other officers wear a suit of scarlet richly embroidered with gold. The cavalry, like that of Spain, ride stallions, and their horses are in better condition. They are not bad riders, but their uniforms become them. The soldiers are but poorly paid; a private receives two vinteins, or forty reis (about two-pence sterling); from which stoppage is deducted for clothing†.

But enough of the Portugueze military. The

* Originally every town and village in Portugal had its particular judge, who pronounced sentence in the first instance, and was chosen by the inhabitants. These judges are still found in some villages and market-towns in remote parts, as for instance, near Cape St. Vincent's, &c. and are nearly the same as the German dorfschulzen, or bailiffs. They are called *juizes da terra*, or country justices. But by small degrees, as the power of the crown increased, and these officers perhaps giving occasion to some disturbances, judges were appointed by the crown, at first in the great towns, and then in the small, and even in great villages. These judges were required to have studied at some Portugueze university, and were called *juizes de fora*. All civil causes are in the first instance brought before them, and in small places they also have cognizance of criminal processes; for which, in the larger towns, a *juiz de crime* is separately appointed. Portugal is divided both into provinces and districts, which last are commonly called *comarcas*, or *corregimentos*; in the chief town of which is a corregedor, before whom civil and criminal processes are brought in the second instance. He has also the superintendance of the *juizes de fora*, whom they can suspend from their office. If the corregimento depends originally from the crown it is called *correiçao*; but if from *donatarios*, it is called *ouvidoria*. Thus Bragança is still an ouvidoria, the dukes of Bragança being the original donatorios; and as most of the ouvidorias depend on royal houses, the distinction between those two kinds of corregimentos is only attended in official papers, nor is the word *ouvidor* ever used in common language, but corregedor, and in official papers *corregedor ouvidor*. The seat of the provedor is also the chief town of the comarca; but he is totally independent of the corregedor, and has not only the superintendance of the execution of wills, guardianships, &c. but of the royal revenues in the district. Under him also, in the great towns as to what regards the former, is a *juiz dos orfaos*, or judge for orphans, from whom appeals lie to the provedor. These are the most important judicial officers in the capitals of provinces, under whom are a variety of inferior officers, such as *alcaldes, verendoes, meirinhos*, and *escrivaes*.

† This is extremely miserable pay in so dear a country as Portugal, particularly at Lisbon. Bread, a sardine and bad wine, are the constant and daily food of these men, who seldom or never taste meat or vegetables. In the year 1798 many young men were pressed, and many of the regiments increased by five hundred men; they were torn from the fields and kidnapped every where, and the government promised rewards to the juizes de fora, who should raise them most recruits. In consequence of this, whole troops of considerable length were often met travelling [illegible]

hill on which Elvas stands is formed of a granite consisting of white quartz, felspar, and mica, and in some parts containing steatite. On the declivity, this granite is covered with a whitish, grey, foliated, lime stone, in which are interspersed sulphurous pyrites and fahlerz. The vegetation here is similar to that of Spain. We saw every where the beautiful *antirrhinum anecgutinum*, first described in Lamark's Encyclopedia; and the beautiful *iris alata*, which we had already seen near Badajoz.

The beautiful country round Elvas soon deserts the traveller. Most of the towns in Portugal lie like islands in the midst of a desert sea. Not far from Elvas we climbed a naked, barren mountain, where we saw a few single houses, but no villages. Farther on, toward the *venda* (an) *do senhor jurado*, the mountains are covered with cistus ladaniferus, and consist of slate, with veins of quartz. This slate, which is extremely common in Portugal, is often clearly a hadstone, and not unfrequently bears traces of its origin from granite, and grains of mica and felspar; sometimes it approximates to clay-slate, and changes wholly into that substance. It forms gentle (not lofty) hills, which often show signs of containing ore*.

The venda is a very small and miserable house, in a wretched country, and, indeed, a venda may in general be expected to be surrounded by a kind of desert. Beyond this spot we came to a wood of cork-trees, which is seldom seen in the middle of Spain. Towards Estremoz, which is seven leagues† from Elvas, the country becomes more pleasant, is better cultivated, and bears more olive-trees. The mountains rise again, and a whiter, or even a blacker, foliaceous limestone, which produces a very good marble, is seen in rocks in large quantities.

Estremoz is a small fortified town, and *praça de armas*, which has therefore a governor, but belongs to the *corregimento of Evora*. The number of inhabitants may amount to six thousand at the utmost. It is an ill-built place, but in the middle has a large cheerful square. There is a castle on an eminence, and the town has also some out-works. In other respects it has been a considerable place, as the number of religious houses shews, there being five in the town, and a sixth in the neighbourhood. There are a hospital and a casa de misericordia in almost every considerable town in Portugal; but generally in such a state that they are of very little use. The country, particularly on the side toward Lisbon, is very pleasant, and well cultivated. Three leagues from Estremoz we came to an inn called *A venda do duque*, where however no duke could lodge. We did not perceive any cultivated lands till within a league of Arrayolos, an open villa with about two thousand inhabitants, a large monastery in which reside the canons of St. John the Evangelist, and a monastery of Franciscans. This place is six leagues from Estremoz, yet not a village is seen throughout that distance, nor any but single houses. The soil is sometimes granite in masses, sometimes slaty granite.

From Arrayolos the road lay through Montemor o novo, which is three leagues farther, over naked mountains, and then through a cultivated vale. After this we ascend high granite mountains covered first with evergreen oaks, and then

viduals with their hands bound. It was painful to behold these unfortunate people, who perhaps could live happily and comfortably at home on the fruit of their labour, now brought by force to starve in the towns. At Lisbon I have often been solicited in an evening for charity by men among the guard at the barracks of the regiment of *Gomez Freire*, who had the greatest claim to my compassion. But can any man blame the natives of a country for shunning military service under such circumstances?

* The slate mountains have always an arid barren appearance; and are usually, in the southern parts of Portugal, covered with cistus ladaniferus, a plant, without being acquainted with which, it is impossible to form an adequate idea of the appearance of these parts. It is about four, and sometimes six, feet high, the leaves have nearly the form of those of the *oleander*, are of a shining dark green, and not deciduous in winter; a very sweet-smelling gum covers the young buds and leaves, and diffuses, particularly in the evening, a very pleasant fragrance that seems to fill the air. These plants do not form a very close bush; but stand so close together, that it is difficult to force through them, and thus cramp the growth of every other plant. Hence it is very rare to find any beneath them. The flowers are uncommonly beautiful; but scarcely blow before they fall off. Each of the petals is almost three inches long by two broad, pure white, and some way in on the under side have a dark purple-red spot, resembling a drop. The whole plant is also uncommonly beautiful; but its uniformity, and the lonely desert forms, render it at length extremely irksome. It serves for nothing but fuel and charcoal; though, were this country populous and industrious, the gum perhaps might be employed in various ways.

† The Portuguese league is various in different provinces, but always exceeds the Spanish, which is three thousand rods or fathoms.

with myrtles. The myrtle is not here a beautiful shrub, for where it covers a large tract of ground its growth is diminutive and ugly. It is only beautiful by the side of brooks, where it grows taller, and is extremely charming, when covered with its beautiful white flowers. Toward Montemor o novo the country again becomes more cultivated. This open place, or villa, is gay and lively, containing above four thousand inhabitants, four religious houses, and being very pleasantly situated on fertile granite hills. On this side we approached the town by a large and beautiful meadow; to the left we saw on a high hill an old ruined castle; and on the other side, toward Lisbon, many gardens, followed by woods of ever-green oaks; a tree which constitutes the riches of the neighbouring country and affords food to a great number of men. The acorns are roasted for use, and have by no means an unpleasant flavour, but are only consumed by the poor. No attention is bestowed on the cultivation of this tree, but its propagation is left entirely to nature. The wood is reddish, solid and good, but is chiefly used by cart-wrights; the charcoal is also much valued.

The granite mountains continue a league beyond Montemor, and then lose themselves in a plain, which extends to the banks of the Tagus, and is every where covered with sand and ratchil.

SECTION II.

Heaths in the Province of Alemtejo—General Remarks on that Province.

THE province of Alemtejo derives its name from *Alem*, beyond; and *Tejo*, the Tagus*. Alemtejo according to its natural limits, may be divided into three parts, the high or mountainous, the flat or heathy, and the *serra de Arrabida*.

We had now arrived at those great heaths which extend as far as the river, along it upward to *Salvaterra*, and downward to the sea. To the southward they extend as far as the Algarvian mountains, and to the eastward to Beja and Evora. In the midst of this plain is the Serra, or high range of mountains ending in the cabo Espichel above St. Ubes. These heaths, like that of the Lunenburg heaths, consist of innumerable small hills which give the whole an undulating appearance. The soil in some places, particularly near the river and the sea, is so sandy that we sunk deep into it; but in others, on the contrary, it is covered with coarse gravel and ratchil, which render it very solid. Swampy places are very rarely found, for in general the great aridity of the soil is the cause of the barrenness of this extensive tract.

Here and there are seen woods of pines, especially in the neighbourhood of Lisbon. In the south of Europe two varieties of the pine are common, the first, *pinus pinea*, a very fine tree, the stem of which grows high, strait, and stiff, and the branches bend upward, so as naturally to form a thick, large, round crown. The leaves are longer than in our *pynus sylvestris*, and its green colour is much darker. The other variety is the sea-pine (*Pinus marittima* Gerardi), which never grows so high as the former, or as our German pine, has strait branches not bending upward, and therefore forms a pyramid like the fig-tree instead of a crown. Its leaves are longer and greener than in our pine, and it wants its red bark. But although it does not grow so high and handsome, yet this last property gives it a preference to ours, the small blueish-green leaves and its red bark giving it a dead and melancholy appearance†.

* It is to be lamented that the natural frontiers of this province from the river to the range of mountains which divides Algarvia are not the same as the political; for several corregimentos on the south side of the Tagus belong to the province of Estremadura.

† Both these trees are very useful; their wood is good, and yields a great deal of resin, for which reason, in consequence of an order of the minister of marine, they have of late been burnt for tar. The fruit of the pine contains a pleasant almond-like kernel which is very commonly eaten and used in cooking. Another use is also made of this tree, which however being injurious to the woods, is prohibited, but the prohibition, as usual, is not attended to. The fishermen of Seixal, Costa, and Trafferia, tear up the roots of the young trees to give a brown colour to their nets.

Four

Four leagues from *Mortemor o novo* is a small village called *Vendas novas*, which contains a hunting seat of the prince of Brasil; three leagues farther is another very small village, called *Os Pegoes*, both of which were first established when Philip II. came to Lisbon; and five leagues farther we reached the bank of the river, where, at a market-town called Aldea Gallega, it is usual to embark for Lisbon. On an eminence a league from Aldea Gallega is a church dedicated to *Nossa senhora da Atalaya* (our lady of the watch-tower), to which the negroes in Lisbon annually make a pilgrimage, and a great concourse of people go there to see this black procession.

Antonio Henriques de Silveira says, "Alemtejo is the least populous province of Portugal; for though thirty-six leagues long, and nearly as broad, it contains only four cities, one hundred and five towns (villas), three hundred and fifty-eight parishes, and about three hundred thousand inhabitants *. The towns are very populous, comparatively more so than the rest of Portugal; but there is a scarcity of villages, which generally contribute most to cultivation, many of the inhabitants of towns leading idle lives. One cause of the thin population of this province arises from its having always been the theatre of war between Spain and Portugal. It also contains a great number of fortresses, maintains ten regiments of infantry, and four of cavalry, which are constantly recruited there, and form a fourth part of the military establishment of the whole country. Every town and village in the province, except these fortresses, now contain fewer inhabitants than in the beginning of the last century, and in all of them are empty houses.

"The best means of improving this province would be that the crown should establish small villages of about twenty houses, or grant permission to private persons to form such establishments, granting them the manorial rights and privileges.

"To this proposal it is objected, first, that there is a scarcity of water; but this is by no means universal, and might be obviated by sinking wells, as is already practised in many places in this province: secondly, that the soil is too bad; but wherever it will afford pasture for cattle, corn may be produced, at least rye and even maize, especially on the banks of the rivers: thirdly, that the population is too scanty; but the province of Minho is so populous that many of its inhabitants annually migrate into other provinces; how easy therefore would it be to employ those men in such establishments: fourthly, that the quantity of cultivation would not be increased if these men were settled on lands already cultivated; but if these lands were divided into small lots or parcels, the soil being nearer their habitations would be better manured and cultivated, and would not be suffered to lie fallow two following years, being sown only once in three years, as is now practised, but would be sown during the two years, and fallowed the third: fifthly, that no one would be willing to embark the capital requisite for establishing such villages; but so much money is spent in pursuits of luxury and distinction, that it cannot be doubted that many would be willing thus to employ some part of their money in purchasing the title of lord of a village. To raise a company of cavalry costs eight thousand crusades, in consideration of which the king grants a captain's patent (or commission), and yet when it was known that five companies were to be raised in Algarvia no less than one hundred and fifty-four candidates offered.

"The lands in Alemtejo are far from being well cultivated. In that province are three kinds of soil; fruitful black solid fat earth is found in the red clay of Elvas, Campomayor, Olivença, Fronteira, Estremoz, Beja, and Serpa; a lighter earth mixed with a little sand forms the soil round Evora and Arrayolos, where the bad kinds of wheat, barley, and rye succeed very well, and cork trees and evergreen oaks also grow; and a sandy barren soil forms the heaths of *Cantarinho, Ponte de Sor, Monte Argil, Tancos* and *Vendas Novas*, a tract of country about thirty leagues in circumference. They were once full of cork-trees, but these have been sold to the charcoal-burners, and thus the woods have been destroyed, excepting at a distance from the rivers. These heaths serve only as pasture for goats, and yet at a depth beneath the surface lies a solid stratum of clay, which might be brought up by the plough, and the soil thereby rendered better for cultivation. More pines also should be planted, and defended from goats, though not in the neighbourhood of the roads on account of robbers. Further on are marshy tracts near

* According to the last lists they amount to 339,355.

Rio frio, Relva, and *Barroco de Alva,* which might be drained.

"The rivers in Alemtejo, particularly in winter, are very rapid, and do much damage. The banks therefore ought to be planted with trees to confine them in some measure within their beds.

"The south side of the Serra de Ossa is very fertile but almost entirely uncultivated; the north side is quite naked, but might be planted with chesnuts.

"The whole province is full of vagabond beggars who beg or steal by day, and at night sleep in the huts of the husbandmen. At a wedding or christening from eighty to a hundred often appear, and through a mistaken piety or vanity the rich peasants feed them, while others who perceive the absurdity of these prejudices likewise feed them through fear, lest they should set fire to their corn. Hence these vagabonds are very coarse and rude.

"The nobility have too large herds of small cattle as sheep and goats, for which reason they do not have the heaths cultivated, but hire other lands besides their own which are thus likewise deprived of cultivation. Some of these, who do not possess pasture for above eighty sheep keep above a thousand, the land of their neighbours supplying the deficiency. The law indeed endeavours to prevent these robberies by appointing sworn watchmen; but this only increases the evil, as these men always have an understanding with the offenders, and the poor neighbours cannot obtain justice against criminals of rank and power. The nobility generally find various means of evading the penalties which the poor are obliged to pay. In the war of 1762 many of the peasantry who had only two carts were stripped of both, whereas from the nobles, who had many, not one was taken.

"The numerous fast-days are also very prejudicial. Permission ought to be given to work after mass, as the bishops of Coimbra, Lamego, Portalegre, and Oporto have done gratis.

"Many estates belong jointly to several proprietors, one of whom called the *Senhorio or Posseiro* has a right to make all the contracts, and to let the estate when and how he pleases, and the other proprietors *(quinheiros)* only receive their share, whether fixed or contingent. Meanwhile they are bound to pay a fourth part of all necessary expences in proportion to their shares, but not to any disbursements, the object of which is to improve the estate. This regulation is evidently prejudicial. It is an old custom to dispense with some part of the taxes in bad years; but with this regulation it does not take place, as the copartners are willing to participate in the profits, but not in the losses."

Many parts of Alemtejo are ill adapted to growing corn, as for instance the heaths along the banks of the Tagus, the soil of which is a deep fine sand. These heaths are so well adapted for bees, that Portugal might supply foreign countries with wax and honey; but this branch of husbandry is neglected, because the bees destroy the grapes.

There are also hills covered with cistus that are incapable of cultivation, there being too little mould in the soil, which consists of a very coarse sand. Here too bees might perhaps be advantageous, as might the cultivation of the kermes-oak, were the population more numerous, both on account of the cochineal and of the sweetness of its fruit. On the other hand a quantity of land which is covered with *cistus* in the corregimento of Ourique, between Mertola and Serpa, and in other places, clearly shows that with good cultivation the soil will produce corn. But two circumstances operate against it: the first, so long as numerous monasteries oppress and drain the country with continual contributions, no improvements can be expected. This every Portugueze well knows, and even confesses in conversation, though no one dares to print it. The other impediment arises from the badness of the roads, a great part of Alemtejo round the Campo de Ourique being wholly destitute of carriage-roads; which, were they exist, are extremely wretched. The small districts round the Beja and toward the Serra de Monchique, where the traveller to his great astonishment suddenly meets with high-roads, are so small as scarcely to deserve mentioning. The prince of Brasil, when he met the king of Spain at Elvas, patiently bore the jolting of this wretched high-road into Spain, instead of having a road made for his royal father-in-law.

Throughout Portugal travellers are uncommonly safe from robbery, excepting that a part of Alemtejo, particularly on the frontiers of Spain, and especially the high road into that country, had acquired a bad character in this respect. The danger however is by no means so great as in many parts of Spain.

SECTION

SECTION III.

Lisbon, Description of that City, and the Country round about it.

THE view of Lisbon, if the traveller pass the river either from the river Aldea Gallega, Coutu; or Casilhas, is uncommonly fine; nor do I know any large town that forms so majestic an appearance. The vast expanse of water, a river in many parts more than nine English miles broad, the great number of ships, the wide-extended city adorning an amphitheatre of hills that lie contiguous to the river, together with a crowd of churches, cultivated heights covered with country-houses, monasteries, churches, gardens, and olive-trees, are certainly an extraordinary assemblage of uncommon beauties. At a great distance, where the limits of the town can scarcely be distinguished, the whole bank of the river seeming as it were one city, the majestic, pointed, rocky mountains of Cintra form the back ground of the landscape, after the lofty Serra de Arrabida among the heaths on the south side of the river have already surprised the spectator. But as he approaches he at length more distinctly perceives the town which covers the hills to the top, the beautiful Praça do Commercio, or Merchant's-square, the new streets, the arsenal, and the corn-market. He perceives the river narrowing towards its mouth, and pouring its waters into the sea between the hills, which here also rise on the south bank, though elsewhere flat, while large ships cover its surface. He admires these hills, which, on the north side, are adorned by the villages of Belem, Ajuda, and its brilliant churches, together with the royal menagerie; and on the south side by a market-town called Almada, whose church stands on the summit of the first hill.

According to the last observations Lisbon is situated in 38°. 42′. 58″. 5‴. north latitude, and 11°. 29′. 15″. west longitude from Paris. The Portuguese compute the length of the city at two leagues; and indeed the distance from Belem to the eastern extremity appeared to me a full German mile (four miles and a half English.) This distance renders it necessary to add that every computation of latitude and longitude is taken from the Praça do Commercio in the middle of Lisbon. The breadth of the town is very various, often but small, and sometimes quite inconsiderable, not exceeding one street, but never much more than half a league.

The population is here, as throughout Portugal, very difficult to ascertain. Only the number of houses is accurately known, and the number of inhabitants must be thereby calculated; for that of communicants is very uncertain, as many frauds are practised in this respect. If enquiry be made in the small towns of the corregedores, they give a round and generally exaggerated number, in order to magnify the consequence of the place where they live. According to the last decennial census in the year 1790 the forty parishes of Lisbon contained 38,102 fireplaces or hearths; which includes the suburbs of Junqueira and Alcantara, but not the villages of Belem and Campo-grande; though they also, particularly the first, are connected with the town, being in the termo of Lisbon. If we reckon Belem, a market-town which completely joins Junqueira, the population may be estimated with confidence at above 300,000, exclusive of the military.

Lisbon is quite open on all sides, having neither walls nor gates, nor even any fortifications, except a small castle in the middle of the town, and a number of batteries or small forts on the river. The ground is very hilly, and, according to the Portugueze writers, the city stands, like ancient Rome, on seven hills; I shall consider it as standing on three.

The first hill, or rather mountain, begins at the bridge of Alcantara, forming the proper western limit of the town, and extends to the *rua de San Bento*, or St. Benedict's street. This hill is unquestionably the highest, being much celebrated for its salubrious air for which reason one of the streets bears the Spanish name of Buenos Ayres, instead of the Portugueze words *Bons Ares*. At the western extremity it is but little cultivated, but farther to the eastward up to its summit, forming also to the eastward a plain, on which stands the new monastery. In many parts it is so steep that it is a labour to walk the streets, and even the lower street, which runs along the river, rises and falls considerably. During the heavy rains the water rushes down the

streets with such violence that they are often impassable, and at the bottom of the *calzada de estrella* some *gallegos*, i. e. porters, post themselves at these times, and convey the passengers for a trifle. This inconvenience, however, is attended with the advantage of washing away the filth, and cleansing the town. Immediately after the earthquake this hill was more built upon, as the shocks were much less severe there. Foreigners also prefer these situations, both on this account and for the salubrity of the air. Hence many handsome houses are interspersed in various parts. The streets are irregularly built, ill paved, often narrow, and not unfrequently full of new but small and wretched houses. On this hill the queen has built a church and convent (dedicated to the heart of Jesus), to which she is much attached. It is generally called *o convento novo*, or the new convent. The church is handsome, its excellent and beautifully white limestone giving it a very cheerful appearance, though the architecture is bad, and overloaded with ornament. Not far from this convent, on the other side of a square is the protestant burying-place, in which are many monuments, particularly that of Fielding, who died here. This cemetery is planted with cypresses and judas-trees, a combination much used for such situations in the south of Europe, and originally an oriental custom. Not far from thence, leaving the houses behind us, we came to a pleasant plain, called Campo de Ourique, separated from the neighbouring hills by deep vallies, which is used as a promenade by the lower and middling classes.

The second hill is only a continuation of the first, from which it is separated by a valley of no great depth. It extends from the *rua de San Bento*, to the valley in which are the three new streets built by Pombal. Excepting a few of the principal streets, the rest are crooked, narrow, and wholly destitute of regularity; the small streets leading to the bank of the river are horridly dirty, the filth being heaped together, so that the passenger must be well acquainted with the narrow paths that run among these heaps, to be able to walk the streets. At the foot of the eastern side of this hill the earthquake did great damage, in consequence of which many handsome new built houses adorn it, and here, as in many other places, traces of that convulsion appear in ruined churches and monasteries. On this eastern declivity is the opera-house and the residence of Quintella, the great dealer in diamonds and richest merchant of Lisbon. Above the public promenade beyond the Praça de Rocio this hill rises to a considerable height, and is very steep toward the next valley. The view from this eminence is uncommonly fine. In the valley beneath appears the best part of the town; to the left are olive-gardens interspersed with country houses, monasteries, and churches; opposite the high steep hill on which the castle stands, and to the left the Tagus covered with ships.

This hill is succeeded by an even valley of considerable length and breadth, which forms the broadest part of the town. This valley was totally destroyed by the earthquake of 1755; after which it was entirely rebuilt. On the bank of the river the valley begins with the large and handsome square called *Praça do Commercio*, formerly the terrace or parade of the royal palace, which is six hundred and ten feet by five hundred and fifty. The quay and the groups of people where the ships and boats are landing and taking in their cargoes, are objects that far excel the quays of London and Paris. The east side is formed by a large building with an arcade ending toward the water, in a pavillion which is used as an exchange. The ends of the three streets which terminate in this square are unfinished, nor does there appear any probability of their being completed, as they have been long neglected. The three principal streets which were rebuilt since the earthquake lead from this square to that of Rocio. They are straight and broad, provided with causeways; and not built as separate houses, several of them forming large buildings, which make a very handsome appearance; but the upper stories seem proportionably too small, the windows too narrow, the panes of glass too diminutive, and the balconies are an impediment to a beautiful form. In the middle street, *rua Augusta*, live the gold and silver-smiths, and in the two others the artisans of other metals, who, as is usual in the south of Europe, work on the ground floor close to the door, and therefore make a most intolerable noise. The line that divides east and west Lisbon, which is an ecclesiastical distinction, (the former belonging to the bishopric of Lisbon, and the latter to the patriarchate,) passes through this part of the town. The Praça de Rocio is large, and like the

Praça

Praça do Commercio unpaved in the middle; but is much more incumbered with filth and puddles. Here is the great palace of the inquisition. To the east of the Praça de Rocio is a large market-place, called *a Figueira*, to the westward of the Praça do Commercio is the fish-market, and near it another square, called *a Riberia Nova*, which is much more frequented as a promenade than the Praça do Commercio.

The third hill begins with an eminence, on which is the castle of Lisbon, called *o Castello de Mouros*, from which it continues, with some interruptions of plains, to the eastern extremity of the town. The castle is a small fort, and could only serve to defend the town against a sudden attack. This part of the town also consists of narrow, irregular, ill-paved streets, with a neat house here and there. It appears from the style of building that this is the oldest part of Lisbon; the houses being narrow, but high, containing many stories, and bearing gothic ornaments. The interior disposition of the apartments is as bad as in Spain, and the entrance no less shocking.

Following the river to the eastward of Lisbon small houses continue almost all the way, and one village succeeds to another. To the west Belem so nearly joins Lisbon that it is difficult to discover the separation, and the suburb of Alcantara is only divided by a bridge over a small brook which here falls into the Tagus. This suburb is only separated by an artificial boundary from that of Junqueira, as is the latter from the town of Belem. A foreigner, however, going to Belem, would not suppose he had quitted Lisbon. It is a considerable market-town where many persons of property and tradespeople of the higher classes have houses. Formerly the royal family resided there, but the castle being burnt they removed to Quelus. In Belem is a monastery of Hieronymites instituted by Dom Manuel, the architecture of which is very striking, for instead of endeavouring to preserve symmetry the greatest pains have been taken to avoid every external appearance of regularity, one pillar being made intentionally different from another. The adjoining church, however, is in a gothic but grand style, and affords no unpleasant impression. There are besides in Belem two new-built neat and handsome churches. Near to one, that of Nossa Senhora de Ajuda, is the botanic garden and museum, and farther on a royal garden, with a menagerie at the entrance and several aviaries. It is opened for a trifling fee to persons of condition as a promenade; but in itself, like the menagerie, is very insignificant. Beyond Belem is a park of considerable size belonging to the prince, the trees and bushes of which are olive-trees and broom. The chace on the north of the river is confined to the prince, but that on the south is free for the public.

The Tagus washes the foundations of the houses throughout Lisbon. Toward the eastern part it is about two leagues broad, or, if the breadth be taken to the end of the reach, three leagues. Its bank consists of heaths, and to the west, nearly opposite to the Praça do Commercio, it grows narrower, and as far as its mouth is only about a league broad: the opposite bank, at the same time, rises, forming steep precipices toward the stream. The river is often covered with ships, and large men of war may lie opposite the town, the views in many parts of which are uncommonly fine; the market-town called Almada, with its church on the summit of the hill, and the English hospital at the foot of it, give life and interest to the picture.

The side of Lisbon toward the country consists entirely of hills, from which are seen only the highest edifices of the town, and the traveller suddenly arrives in the city before he is aware of it. The greater part of the country round Lisbon, particularly on the east and north sides to a considerable distance from the town, are covered with large gardens surrounded with high walls, between which it is insufferably tedious to travel, sometimes for leagues, without seeing any other object, and in continual danger of mistaking the road. These gardens are often of considerable extent and laid out rather for use than pleasure, generally containing plantations of orange and olive-trees, and sometimes even corn fields and vineyards. A pretty large garden-house is attached to them, and families are accustomed to spend a part of the summer there. One of the best gardens of the new French taste round Lisbon is that of the Marquis de Abrantes, in a market-town called Bemfica. The gardens round Lisbon please strangers on account of the plants they produce; those which with us are reared with great pains in pots and houses, grow here wild and high.

Beyond

Beyond the western part of Lisbon the country is not so well cultivated, and there are naked and rocky hills. But where these are not too stony they are luxuriantly fertile, and render the flora of the capital the richest throughout the country*.

The soil round Lisbon consists of lime-stone and basalt; the former lying at top, and being here and there very white, close, and excellent for building, bnt breaking too coarse for the statuary. A singular species of lime-stone, which only forms a mass of petrification, appears at a depth in both banks of the river, lying beneath the other strata. The basalt begins at the bank not far from the sea, and then proceeds through Quelus toward Bellas; meanwhile a branch of the basalt mountain extends beyond the city by the aqueduct, and unites with the forementioned chain toward Bellas. From thence the basalt country extends as far as Cabeça de Montachique. It properly forms only one mass of basalt, which is here and there covered with lime-stone. It is particularly striking that basalt is only found in those two parts of Portugal, Lisbon and Cape St. Vincent, where the earthquake of 1755 was most violent; and this circumstance is thought to confirm the opinion that basalt covering great strata of coal furnishes materials for subterraneous fires, and thus gives rise to earthquakes and volcanoes; but it must not be forgotten that Belem, which partly stands on a basalt hill, suffered less from that earthquake than some parts of the town evidently founded upon lime-stone. Portugal however is rich in warm springs, which are doubtless the effect of subterraneous fires. Such springs are found even in Lisbon, though the warmth is very slight; also, at Cascaes a few miles from Lisbon.

Close to the north side of the town, is that bold and grand work of art, the aqueduct called *os arços*, by which water is brought from several springs situated at a distance of three leagues and near the village of Bellas, being in some parts conducted under ground†.

The water enters the town at a place called da Amoreita, where it divides into several other aqueducts, and supplies the fountains, which are often very ornamental, though in a bad taste. Here the Gallegos draw water in small barrels, and cry it about the streets. The water is very good, containing a portion of oxygenated calcareous earth, its sources being in limestone hills. The Portugueze being inhabitants of a warm climate, cannot be blamed for loving good water. In summer, it is sold by the glass throughout Spain and Portugal, in the public squares and promenades; and among both these nations an excellent method is used, to keep water and other liquors cool in summer. Earthen vessels are made of clay containing lime and iron, so as to be very porous, but without glazing. These vessels which are called *ucaros* or *alcarrazes*, suffer the moisture to pervade their substance in the form of a fine dew, which is continually evaporating, and thus producing cold. At first they give the water an unpleasant earthy taste, which however it soon loses by use.

The trees that grow here on the north side of Lisbon, are chiefly olive and orange-trees; but other fruit-trees are more scarce, and even almond-trees are not numerous. Cypresses, judas-trees, elms, and poplars, appear here and there. Of oaks, beeches, and linden-trees, there are none; and willows are extremely rare. The orange-tree is most striking, although near Lisbon it does not grow very high. It requires much water, which is supplied to plantations by channels, which are filled by water-wheels. The earth is heaped up at their roots, and the water

* The hills form the meadows of Lisbon. Meadows such as the inhabitants of northern climates may suppose, and covered with grass, are rarely seen here, thick verdure being uncommon in the low and hot countries of the south of Europe. The blades of grass stand single and scarce, but on the other hand the soil is covered with various kinds of trefoil and similar plants. But our common clover is here very rare.

† Near the town it passes over a deep valley, and the works are planned with great magnificence. It rests on several bold arches, the largest of which is 230 feet 10 inches French high, and 107 feet 8 inches broad. The view is singular when the spectator stands beneath it, and its pointed arc... seem changed into a majestic vault that re-echos every sound. The whole length of the aqueduct is 2400 feet. In the middle is a covered arched way, of seven or eight feet, where the water flows on each side through a tunnel of stone. Without this arched way and on each side is a path, where two persons can conveniently walk abreast with a parapet, over which they may look down to its base. The small towers perhaps disturb the general effect, but could not be dispensed with, for they serve as ventilators.

onducted between these heaps. They are propagated by seed and afterwards grafted*.

Besides the orange groves, strangers are particularly struck with the hedges of American loes and Indian figs in the southern parts of pain and Portugal; both of which are easily lanted, forming hedges impenetrable to cattle, but easily destroyed by men, though difficult to confine within bounds. They will grow also on extremely bad sandy soil. In July and August, when the aloes are in bloom, these high stems covered with flowers form a very beautiful object, whereas in Germany, a single aloe in bloom is publickly advertised in the newspapers†.

SECTION IV.

Climate of Lisbon—Provisions there—Police, and Description of the Portugueze.

THE climate of Lisbon is very salutary and pleasant to those who are accustomed to it. he winter, as to vegetation, is the end of July, e month of August, and the beginning of Sepmber; at which time every thing is parched up, ot a green blade of grass to be seen, and the bliage of the evergreens is shrivelled up and has melancholy appearance. The heat continues cessantly with the sky almost always serene, ough it is much relieved by sea-breezes. In mmer the north wind prevails in Portugal, but s direction being changed by the mountains of intra it becomes a north-west, which conderably cools the air. In September the enings are frequently cold, though at noon the r is proportionably too hot. The greatest heat lways accompanies the east wind; and in the mmer of 1798 Fahrenheit's thermometer rose 104° (32° of Reaumur). A heat equal to 9° of Fahrenheit is not uncommon in Portugal; d from comparative observations it appears, at the climate is hotter there than in Rio Janeiro in Brasil, though the heat does not continue near so long. From Midsummer-day to the middle of September rain is extremely uncommon, and even in the beginning of that month very scanty: the drought often continues much longer. Immediately after the first rains follow the autumnal flowers, the meadow saffron, the autumnal snow drop, the sweet-smelling *ranunculus bullatus*, and many others. These appear in the higher lands round Cintra, where the rains are earlier than in the lower parts round Lisbon. Immediately after the autumnal flowers come the spring plants, owing to which the interval between spring and autumn is scarcely perceptible In October the young grass springs up and the new leaves shoot out, rendering it the pleasantest month of the year. In November and December fall heavy rains with frequent storms. Days of perpetual silent rain are very rare; for in general it comes down in torrents. The brooks round Lisbon, which it was a little while before easy to step over, and

* In December and January, the oranges begin to turn d, and at the end of January, and in February, before ey are ripe and sweet they are gathered for exportation. oward the end of March, and in April, they are very ood, but delicate persons will not eat them till the beinning of May; at which time they begin to be perfectly weet and well flavoured. They continue throughout June nd July till August, and at length become scarce and ver-ripe. At the end of April and in May appear the lossoms, the fragrance of which extends far and wide; the uantity of golden fruit amid the dark branches, and reered still more by the white blossoms, which at the same me adorn them continually, excite new admiration, hough the same object daily recurs. One tree frequently ars 1,500 oranges, and examples are not wanting of heir bearing 2,000, and sometimes, though rarely, 2,500. Those from Lumiar are particularly good, and some knights of Malta have assured me that these, and the oranges from Coudeixa near Coimbra, are by no means inferior to those of Malta. I have also found those of Vidigueira in Alemtejo uncommonly delicate. At Lisbon they are not cheap, but in the provinces excellent oranges may be bought for about half a farthing sterling each. Oranges are sold wholesale on the trees, and there are people who understand how to appreciate the number they bear. They are then gathered, carefully packed in chests, and shipped. The greater part are sent to England, or conveyed in English vessels to other parts, but some of the rich merchants who have long dealt in them, assured us that they do not yield any great profit, and often leave a loss. Other acid fruits, as for instance lemons, are scarce at Lisbon, but more abundant in the colder regions of Portugal.

† We may add, that this is the case in England likewise.

which wholly disappear in summer, now rush like torrents down the hills*.

In January cold clear weather often prevails, but becomes milder in February, which is generally a very pleasant month. Snow is so extremely rare, that, fourteen years ago, some happening to fall, the common people were so alarmed that they run into the churches, and thought that the end of the world was coming. In February the sun becomes strong, and thus causes a great many severe catarrhs, called by the Portugueze constipaçoes. The equinox is followed by heavy rains accompanied with storms, as if all nature were falling in ruins. From this time till June is the most changeable season of the year. The weather is sometimes rainy and cool, sometimes dry and hot, till the accustomed heat and drought that follow midsummer day complete the circle. Storms scarcely ever happen in the middle of summer; they are confined to winter or the equinoxes, but are then violent, and the lightning is sometimes destructive.

The genial temperature of the air is very favourable to agriculture, and it depends entirely on the quantity of rain whether the year be fruitful or the contrary. Wheat is commonly sown in the neighbourhood of Lisbon, but rye is scarce and only grown for cattle; barley is also sown, but I never saw any oats. The usual variety of wheat is that with long-pointed calices, named by Haller *triticum siculum*, which requires the best soil. The harvest is in May, and the corn is threshed as with us; but in some parts is trod out by horses or oxen, for which purpose a floor is made in the fields. Manure is not commonly used, or at most putrified plants are laid on. Rye is often in ear in February and March, but is cut down before it is ripe generally for fodder.

The Portugueze live principally on meat and fish, but are not fond of vegetables. In Lisbon the bread is generally bad. It is usually made of wheat-flour, sometimes of maize, but never of rye. Water-mills are not used; but wind-mills are numerous, and, being furnished with triangular sails, form a singular appearance on the hills round Lisbon. Potatoes are not at all cultivated, but imported from England and Ireland. However, Spanish potatoes, which are far le nutritive, are grown here and there. In Marc young green peas and beans are eaten, but these warm climates are not so well flavoured with us, having always a dryness and insipidit A small kind of beans, brocoli, and cauliflower are very common, also lettuces and succory; bu other species of cole are more scarce, and brow cole is not to be found. The chick-pea, whic constitutes the chief food of the lower classes i that country, and is certainly preferable to drie peas, is but little cultivated near Lisbon. Th common people eat lupins in great quantities These are sown in fallows, and the pulse ar soaked in running water to destroy their bitter ness before they are dressed. On days of pro cession, bull-fights, and similar occasions, the are sold in the market-place, boiled, but cold to the common people, who eat them out of thei pockets. They have a mealy insipid taste, bu are very cheap. Rice is also, both in Spain an Portugal, a very common species of food, an much liked by all classes. It is imported i great quantities from Brasil, and sold at a rea sonable price, but is not much cultivated i Portugal.

Butcher's meat is very good; but calves ar not allowed to be slaughtered in order to preserv the cattle, so that veal is very rare. It may be easily imagined, however, that this law con tributes as little to its object as other similar re strictions, and therefore is not obeyed. The oxen are, throughout the peninsula, of a size and beauty seldom seen elsewhere. Pork is also very good; and the Portugueze hams are much esteemed. The swine of this peninsula are of a particular kind, being short-boned, broad-backed, and having thin black hair, which forms no bristles on the back. The mutton is the worst kind of meat. Game is rare, except rabbits and red partridges, which are extremely common, but not so tender as ours. It is remarkable that in Portugal no fresh butter is made excepting in a few private houses in the country, Irish and Dutch butter being commonly used. Dutch cheese is also most common and cheapest; and milk is no where found but in great cities, excepting goat's milk upon some of the mountains.

Fish constitute the principal nourishment of

* This swelling of the streams renders travelling extremely difficult at that season, and would, without doubt, retard the operations of war as much in winter as the drought in summer.

common people and the delicacies of the rich. Both consume great quantities of bacalaho, of which the English export thither to the value of a million and a quarter of dollars. There are immense warehouses of this fish, which on fast-days supply the tables of the rich and poor. In consequence of the war between England and Spain, great quantities were sent over-land to that country; but the stock-fish simply cured, which in Germany is the most common, is not so suitable in Portugal. Another fish, which is taken in immense quantities on the coast of Portugal, is the *Sardinha*, or pilchard (*Sardinia clupea sprattus*, Linn.*), which is the food and comfort of the poor. It is often also given as food to swine. Bread, wine, and sardinhas, form the dinner of the common soldiers, labourers, and similar classes; and I have often seen beggars rub their children's bread with a sardinha to give it a taste. Were this fishery properly carried on, it might supply the place of bacalaho, and would even supply Portugal with fish-oil. The other kinds of fish eaten here are the sole, the turbot, the shad, the conger, the mackarel, and the sword-fish, some of which are very good.

Among the spices used for culinary purposes I shall only mention cassia from Brasil, which supplies the place of cinnamon, and the pichurim-bohne, which is used instead of nutmegs; the taste is pleasant, somewhat resembling that of fennel, but very different from nutmegs.

The first object that must strike every foreigner on entering Lisbon, is the badness of the police; the filth of the streets lies every where in heaps, which, in the narrow streets where the rain does not wash it away, require great skill in walking, to avoid sinking into them. In one of the most frequented streets on the river leading to the Ribera nova, there is only a narrow path winding near the houses; and the reader may form an idea of the number of people who daily use it, the gallegos with their very heavy burthens, which a passenger cannot avoid; while the carts pass as near to the houses as possible, that the horses may not go in the deepest part of the mud; and thus all the dirt and filth is blindly splashed upon the passengers, in the worst manner conceivable. As to the night, the city was formerly lighted, but now this practice has ceased; and, as the window-shutters are shut early, there is no light to diminish the darkness of these dirty, narrow, ill-paved streets. A host of dogs without masters, and living on the public, wander about like hungry wolves; and, still worse than these, an army of banditti. Our friends often expressed their astonishment at our venturing into Portugal in these times of war; but I assured them it was by no means so bold an undertaking, as to go at midnight from Belem to Maravilbas, at the eastern extremity of the town.

The government is said annually to appropriate a considerable sum to cleansing the streets; but how this money is disposed of is best known to the intendant of the police of Lisbon and of the whole kingdom, Dom Diego Ignacio de Pina Manique.

The amusements of the carnival are always governed by the ruling taste of every nation. Of what then should they consist at Lisbon? Both high and low delight in throwing all kinds of dirt and filth on the passengers, who in conformity to custom, and to avoid quarrels, must bear it patiently.

The high walls of the quintas in the town, the vacant and deserted grounds, invite to robbery and murder, which are still farther favoured by the badness of the police. These crimes are always perpetrated with knives, though all pointed knives are prohibited.

Murders mostly arise from revenge or jealousy; robbers are generally contented with threats. The spring is the most dangerous time, and I have known every night marked with some murder. The boldness of the assassins is astonishing. On a fast-day, in a procession in honour of St. Rochus, a man was murdered in open day in the throng, at five o'clock in the afternoon. In the summer of the same year a man was robbed at noon, between the walls near the prince of Waldeck's, who was witness to the transaction. The robbers were even so bold as to attack coaches. But the criminals almost always escaped, the compassion of the Portugueze being such, that every one assists him in his flight. They exclaim Coutadinho! or, alas, poor man! and every thing is done to assist him. The punishment of death is entirely done away, and the culprit is sent to the Indies or Angola; a punishment which by no means gives

* In this name I have followed Brünniche and Vandelli, though I do not believe the sardine of the south to be the same as the sprat of the north. This is evident, from those which are daily exposed for sale in England.

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the impression of death, though the climates of both are so unwholesome that destruction is certain.

A great part of these robbers are negroes, of whom there is a greater number here perhaps than in any other city of Europe, not excepting London. Many of them get their bread as tradespeople, not unfrequently become good and respectable citizens, and instances occur of their arriving at a high degree of skill as artisans. A larger portion are beggars, thieves, procurers, and procuresses. Every negro who has served his master seven years in Europe is free, and then not unfrequently becomes a beggar unless he has had a very good master. Great numbers of them are employed as sailors, and I do not see any reason why they are not also enlisted as soldiers.

There is a great number of vagabonds in Lisbon, for all idle people from the provinces come in bodies to the metropolis, and are permitted to live in the open town without impediment. Hence arise the immense number of beggars, who partly rove about, and partly remain in fixed places, crying out continually, and promising to mention this or that person to Nossa Senhora in their prayers. A physician might here meet with an uncommon number of remarkable cutaneous disorders; I have often observed a true leprosy, and endeavoured by observations of this kind to render myself insensible to the disgust they inspire. These beggars receive a great deal in charity, through a mistaken sense of piety, prevalent in catholic countries. They also often practise artifices to obtain charity. I remember an old man who fell down before us through hunger, as he afterwards said, and thus immediately obtained from my youthful companion a considerable piece of gold; while I, somewhat colder, remarked his theatrical performance, withheld my charity, examined into the affair, and found my suspicions grounded. Another class of begging is that for souls in purgatory. The religious fraternities, to whom it properly belongs to collect these alms, and to have masses performed in a certain church for that purpose, farm out this employment to certain people, who post themselves in the neighbourhood of this church to beg: for which they generally pay eight milrees annually, and by this contract frequently gain one hundred milrees a year. Every thing is done in Portugal *pelor amor de Deos e pelas almas*, (*i. e.* for the love of God and of the souls). The monasteries send their fruit, usually grapes, to be sold in the streets, as it were, by auction, in order to perform masses for the money. They are cried about the streets as *uvas pelas almas* (grapes for the souls); and when the price is asked, the answer is generally considerable. In the *Calzada de Estrella* sat a beggar, who always cried snuff for the souls. Snuff is a great article of necessity for all ranks for both sexes, for every old man, and in short for the whole nation. Nor is it difficult to obtain the partiality of any of the common class of people, if the traveller but offer him a pinch of good snuff. I saw a beggar-woman put some snuff to the nose of her child who was still in arms. On a botanical excursion near Lisbon I met a well dressed lady, who asked me for a pinch of snuff, as she had lost her box; and when I told her that I never used one, she replied, with an expression of the most violent grief, *estou desesperada* (I am quite in despair).

The porters, water-carriers, and most of the servants, come from the Spanish province of Gallicia, and are called Gallegos. These useful men leave their poor native country, migrating partly into the other provinces of Spain, partly into Portugal, to earn money by the severest labour, and, in many provinces of Portugal, assist in the harvest. They are extremely laborious, and, though avaricious, honest. This character, however, is not entirely unspotted. Sometimes they settle in Portugal, and open small tippling and eating houses, or grocers' shops, but generally return home with the money they have gained.

The dress of the common people is a vest of various colours, as blue, black, dark brown, &c. over which they wear a mantle with hanging sleeves, like the Spaniards, but a three-cornered hat, and not a brown cap, which is peculiar to the Gallegos. Young ladies also wear a similar mantle, as do both men and women of considerable rank, only that they wear them of various colours, and often figured. Beneath this mantle a fashionable dress is often concealed, similar to that of London or Paris. Great coats and round hats are quite unusual among the natives. Women of the lower classes wear a handkerchief wound round their head, so that a corner hangs down behind; some wear the Spanish net, but never the Spanish veil. Among the rich, who in

other respects pursue European fashions, we re and there saw one with her hair tied flat be- d with a ribband. The female peasants und Lisbon come to town in a red jacket and a ck pointed velvet cap.

They who would judge of the nation by Lis- n run the risk of committing frequent errors; this city is a rendezvous for all the vagabonds the whole kingdom, and a great part of the fo- igners of the lower ranks are also the scum of ir nations. I know that these last are some- es very docile, and easily fall into the custom hiring themselves as banditti; for I know cer- inly of serious proposals of this kind being ade. But I must confess that, notwithstanding e numbers of bad people among the lower sses, and the unworthy manner in which fo- igners often act toward the inhabitants, exam- es are not wanting of a true and disinterested spitality among the common people. Round sbon and in the villages, however, the true ortugueze character not unfrequently again ap- ars, to which I bear testimony of full appro- tion.

Both the higher and lower classes are fond of profusion of compliments, which flow in a tor- nt from every mouth. A common peasant eeting another takes off his hat quite low down, olds him a long while by the hand, enquires ter his health and that of his family, and does t fail to add, I am at your commands, and ur humble servant. This is not a remark ken from a single instance, for I have heard it xtremely often from ass-drivers and others of milar classes. The rich are said to conceal a lse heart beneath a profusion of polite expres- ons. I have nothing to say in defence of the igher classes; they are as inferior to the paniards as the common people excel them.

The male sex are not handsome; and a tall an is rarely seen, the generality being short, t, and square-made. Their features are also eldom regular, turned-up noses and projecting lips being so common as to suggest an idea of a mixture with negroes. The difference between the Spaniards and the Portugueze is extremely striking, the latter being fat, the former meagre, the noses of the latter turned up, those of the former arched downward, so that they only agree in their yellow complexions and black eyes. Of the fair sex, the author of the *New Picture of Lisbon*, who was a Frenchman, and his German editor at Leipzig, Tilesius, differ; the former praising, and the latter censuring them. In fact, they have the same defects as the other sex, being of too low a stature and inclined to corpulency; but their countenances are expressive, and their manners animated and friendly; which, with very fine eyes, long and uncommonly strong hair, very white teeth, full breasts, and extremely beautiful feet, form, in my opinion, a charming assemblage, and compensate other irregularities. Although in Lisbon, as in every other great city, there is no scarcity of courtesans, and though, as their doors stand open, every one may enter, yet they are far less importunate than in London, or the Palais Royal at Paris. But to return to ladies of condition. The softer graces which adorn the beauties of the north are rarely seen in Portugal; and perhaps they might as ill become the fire of Portugueze eyes as a burning climate can give them birth. Great beauties, however, may be seen in Lisbon, particularly when the slender northern shape and the white fine skin of those climates are united with the advantages of the south, producing as it were the most beautiful work of nature.

From this charming subject I am obliged to pass to the uncleanliness of the Portugueze. On leaving England and entering France every species of uncleanliness becomes greater and greater in proportion as we travel southward. The apartments grow constantly more dirty, the privies are more horrible, or totally disappear, and a host of vermin of all kinds swarm round the traveller in his sleep.

SECTION V.

The Amusements of Lisbon—Public Institutions at that City.

THE society of Lisbon is dull and melancholy, especially when compared with that of large Spanish cities. The inhabitants neither walk nor ride. In all respects there is very little luxury, nor are there any fine equipages; and the coaches, which every rich person keeps, are made

made on the ugly Spanish model, and drawn by mules. The desire of keeping many servants, that species of luxury so destructive to every country, here also prevails. They are, however, poorly clad and ill fed, having rice almost every day. The rich keep within the circle of their own families, and the tranquillity of their courts is scarcely ever disturbed. They spend a part of the year in their quintas (gardens;) and in August and September go to Cintra, where they see more of each other. It is a trait of their character, that at places, where the richest part of the town assemble together, they dance to one violin. In general the Portugueze are not fond of dancing, which is seldom seen among the common people, except in the market-places sometimes a foffa, or Spanish seguedilla, is danced, and by travellers mistaken for the fandango. For foreigners and the principal Portugueze, as for instance the ministers, a public assembly-room is built, where is a dance every Thursday. But this is rather an amusement for the foreigners, who form here a separate class of society; the lower orders assemble in coffee-houses, *(lajes)* of which there are several in every street, and often a considerable number. They are small, dirty, and ill-contrived, and afford wretched coffee, bad punch, and other refreshments. The chocolate is bad throughout Portugal, and mixed with a disgusting fat. In short, it is infinitely inferior to that of Spain. There is only one tolerable coffee-house, which is visited by people of condition, and where at that time every thing that could be desired might be had, and of excellent quality. The lower classes resort to the numerous wine houses *(tavernas)*, where a red wine is sold, which round Lisbon is very bad. I have both here and in Spain observed that the inhabitants do not accustom themselves to drinking wine, but are intoxicated by a quantity which a German or an Englishman, after a short residence in this country, would scarcely feel.

One of the principal amusements of the rich is the Italian opera, which is not supported by the court, but by private individuals. It was at that time in all respects excellent, and the singers have rendered every other opera to me insipid. The best of these performers was added to it at the time, when the French occupied Rome and turned out the Castrati from the great opera. The house is large and handsome, the disposition of its parts excellent, and the attention of the manager, that every one should be in his proper place, very exemplary. Sometimes also Portugueze operettas are performed, generally farces as afterpieces, in which the Portugueze language has a pleasing effect in the Italian mouth of Zamparini.

Besides the opera-house called *teatro* de Carlos, there is a Portugueze play-house called *teatro do salitre*, situated in a narrow little street behind the public promenade: it is much less than the opera-house, very narrow, and is but little visited by persons of condition. Under such circumstances little can be expected. Here no women perform, their parts being filled by men who can scarcely conceal their beards. The players are frequently artisans. A shoemaker who had been at work all day performed among other comical old characters, and was not the worst of the actors. The pieces represented are generally translations from the Italian, less frequently from other languages, and still more rarely original. But I have never myself seen or heard announced even on this stage, The Portugueze merry-andrew who is called *gracioso*. All the tragedies and serious plays are bad or ill-performed, nor can any thing be more wretched than the principal lovers. The after-pieces are wretched farces.

Near this theatre is the place used for bull-fights. It is moderately large, quadrangular and surrounded with wooden balustrades and benches. On one side are boxes for persons of rank, and one for the corregedor, who has the superintendence of it; the rest of the seats are divided into two parts, the shady, and the sunny side, the former of which is the dearest, and consists of wretched wooden benches rising in an amphitheatre above each other. In summer there were bull-fights almost every Sunday; from twelve to fifteen beasts being killed in an afternoon. During the winter this very cruel amusement entirely ceases. They stab the beast with pikes, and hang oblong pieces of wood with sharp iron hooks on his body, and frequently in such numbers, that the blood rushes from him like a torrent. There is nothing fine in this exhibition, but the rushing forth of the enraged beast, or the pauses he sometimes makes in the middle of the square, where he tears up the earth and roars aloud as in defiance.

Now that I am speaking of amusements, I must

must not forget the religion of the country, which throughout this peninsula constitutes an important part of these. For in fact people go to mass because they have no other walk: they love the ceremonies of religion as a pastime, and follow processions as they would go to an opera. In every book of travels in Portugal we find accounts of amours, to which the mass has given occasion, and as usual this is also exaggerated. As young women scarcely ever go out but to mass, it is natural to suppose that love would not neglect this single opportunity, and it is equally natural that the female heart should be attached to those places, where it first experienced the pleasing emotions of passion, and of devotion. In the country the object of an evening walk is frequently an image of the virgin, where people kneel down to pray, then rise up, and laugh and joke as before. In general the Portugueze very strictly observe the external signs of religion, even perhaps more than the Spaniards; and none eat meat on a fast day, but those who are considerably enlightened*.

The inclination of the Portugueze merely to observe the ceremonies of religion is evidently the cause of this diminution of fanaticism, and also of several good customs that prevail. Whoever has any money buys a permission to work on fast-days, in consequence of which the fields and vineyards round Lisbon are full of labourers on some rather important fasts. In regard to public business, Sunday is observed much more strictly in London than in Lisbon. This inclination, indeed, of the people is attended with much greater disadvantages: for, hence they continue always ignorant, and are the dupes of an equally ignorant priesthood.

Lisbon is by no means destitute of literary institutions. The first and most important is, doubtless, the academy of sciences, founded by the present queen immediately after the beginning of her reign, that she might contribute something to the advancement of literature, which Pombal had not. The president is the duke of Lafoes, of the royal house of Braganza, generalissimo of the forces, and one of the first personages in the country. The duke has travelled abroad, is a favourer of learned men, and, although he has many peculiarities, is by no means unenlightened or destitute of talents. The secretary is Dom Jose Correa da Serra, now in London, where I had the pleasure of becoming acquainted with him, and found him to be a man whose science, talents, and enlightened mind, do honour to his country. With these qualities it was natural he should have quarrels with the inquisition, in consequence of which he thought it prudent to live abroad. He continues, however, to enjoy his office, and his substitute is Dom Francisco de Borja Garçaõ Stockler, who also had some trouble on account of his eulogium on D'Alembert, which was too free and well written for this country. The academy have already done much for the advancement of science, and have published six volumes of *Memorias da Litteratura Portugueza*, consisting in great measure of papers on the history and laws of Portugal. Then follow three parts of *Memorias economicas*, among which are many excellent papers, and two parts of prize memoirs, the first on the method of cultivating and manuring land, and the second on the vine. For some years past these publications have been interrupted. In 1797, appeared the first volume of their larger treatises, in quarto, very handsomely printed, in which are several papers that deserve attention. Added to these,

* I was once much amused at hearing a question agitated, whether it was a greater sin to eat meat on a fast-day, or to violate the sixth commandment; when the general answer was, that the latter was a trifle, compared to the former. Notwithstanding this, neither the nation nor the common people are so fanatical as in Spain. Of this I could relate many individual traits, but I will content myself with a few. I was present at a procession at St. Ubes, where two captains of ships, a Dane and an Englishman, suffered the host to pass them, without taking off their hats. Of this no one took notice, except a Portugueze sailor, who asked who were those people with their hats on. The answer was *sao Inglezes fideputas*, (they are English sons of b——s), and nothing more was said. When the Prince of Waldeck was buried, I heard one of the common people say, "he was a heretic, but a very good man." Upon this I mixed with the crowd, and heard nothing but praises of the worthy prince, who was even carried to the heretic cemetery. I heard also, that he had refused on his death-bed the accustomed solicitations to become a catholick, and found, to my great astonishment, his conduct generally approved, "because every one should live and die in his religion." The Portugueze consider every foreigner as a heretic, yet are polite, and ready to serve them, and even express surprise when they meet with a foreigner who is a catholick. This trait shews how much of their antient bigotry this nation have lost, owing probably to their commerce with the English.

these, the academy have in their printing-office several works for publication, of which I shall name the Flora Cochinchinensis by Loureiro*.

In January, 1799, was instituted a geographical academy, particularly relative to Portugal, the members of which have already completed a new map of that country now ready for publication. All the maps of Portugal are extremely defective.

The college of the nobles, in a very handsome and extensive building, founded in 1761; the *academia real das guardas marinhas*, founded in 1782, the *academia real da marinha* in 1779, and the *academia real da fortificacaõ* in 1790, have also their professors, called *lentes*; but all these institutions are in a weak and lingering state. Besides these there are, at Lisbon, professors paid by the government for the instruction of youth. There is in fact no want of means, the defect is in the choice of them, the requisite taste for knowledge not having yet been found, and no one knowing how to impart it.

There are public libraries in Lisbon, which, though far from ranking in the first class, are by no means so bad as some travellers would describe who had merely taken a cursory view of them. But it is very unjust to complain, because we happen to be too much alarmed at the voluminous *Acta Sanctorum*, to take the trouble of asking for any other book. The principal of these libraries, which is in the large building in the Praça do Commercio, contains many works of importance, and even some papers on natural history. I am better acquainted, however, with the library in the benedictine monastery of Nossa Senhora de Jesus, as I lived nearer to it. Here is a very complete collection of Portugueze and modern Spanish literature; nor is there any want of French works, as, for instance, a complete set of the *Encyclopédie par Ordre des Matières*. Next to French literature that of Italy is most abundant, still more, though it might not be expected, than the English, which the Portugueze seldom learn, though they are always reading French. In short, both these libraries may be compared with many of the public libraries in considerable towns in Germany. A third library, that of the monastery of San Vincente de fora, is indeed not open to the public, but it is sufficient to be once introduced to be always admitted. It contains a very complete collection of even the smallest Portugueze works.

There are many booksellers' shops in Lisbon, the masters of which, however, have no foreign business. I shall only name the widow Bertrand and son, near the church of Nossa Senhora dos Martyres acima do Xiado. New Portugueze works are easily procured there, and at the prices marked in the printed catalogue. Each book has a price prefixed, and the bookseller is contented with a moderate profit.

The royal museum at Ajuda deserves also to be seen. It will not, indeed, bear a comparison with that of Paris, or even that of Madrid; it is small, not a single class is well stocked, and it contains fewer specimens from Brasil than might be expected. There are, however, some curious specimens; and, among others, one very singular of copper ore, found in a valley two leagues from Cachocira, and fourteen from Bahia. Its weight, according to Vandelli, is two thousand six hundeed and sixteen pounds, its greatest length being three feet two inches, its greatest breadth two feet and half an inch, and its greatest thickness two feet four inches. The upper surface is uneven, being here and there covered with malachite and iron ochre, and on one side it is foolishly polished, and bears an inscription. Hence mineralogists will perceive how singular this specimen is of its kind.

Besides the royal museum, that of the Marquis of Angeja contains some specimens worth seeing, especially some diamonds from Brasil embedded in argillaceous iron-stone, as near as I could judge. There is another museum in the monastery of S. N. de Jesus, chiefly consisting of shells, but containing many specimens of value.

The royal hospital of San Jose is a very good institution, and the sick are well attended. In the beginning of 1797 there were, according to the Court-calendar, one thousand and eighty-eight patients; during that year, fourteen thousand, eight hundred and eighteen persons were brought in, of whom thirteen thousand, two hundred

* All books treating of scientific subjects are printed at the expense of the queen, the number of readers being too small for any bookseller or printer to gain by them. Hence literature is in its infancy, little being written, and literary fame unknown; nor can any thing serve literary men but family or other connexions.

ndred and thirty-five were dismissed cured, thousand five hundred and seventy-nine died, one thousand and ninety-one remained. Be- es the account of it in the calendar, which ust not always be trusted, it has in its favour com- on report, even that of foreigners, who gene- ly complain of every thing in Portugal. There e, besides, an English and a Danish hospital pported by individuals of those nations.

Every physician must have studied at Coimbra, d procured a licence from the protomedicus of sbon to practise physick in Portugal; but it is t requisite to take a doctor's degree, which ey seldom do. In Lisbon itself, as usual, they e less strict than in other towns, and foreign physicians are suffered to do as they please. Edmund More, an English physician, was at that time in the highest repute. It must not, however, be supposed that all the Portugueze physicians are altogether ignorant, for here and there is a clever man, and the university of Coimbra is not entirely barbarous. Many also pursue their studies at Paris, and, of late, even at Edinburgh. Almost in every street is a small apothecary's shop; but these are under no regulations, and frequently very bad. Many of them, however, after trials I have made of them, did not deserve the censures which some travellers have, without examination, bestowed on them.

SECTION VI.

Villages round Lisbon—Quelus, the Royal Residence—The Mountains of Cintra.

ON the south side of the river, notwithstanding the sandiness of the country, and the ntinual succession of heaths and pine-forests, e village follows another, being generally situ- ed on creeks of the river, and supported by the afic carried on by that medium with Lisbon. ound these places is a great quantity of garden- uit, and very good vines are grown here and ere, which, with attentive cultivation on the ndy plains of this warm country, succeed ry well. It is to be lamented, there is no ac- ss to these places but by water, and that during ebb several swamps appear, which, particularly summer, corrupt the air. Barroco de Alva is ell known for its insalubrious air, nor is Couna any means a healthy place. On the last creek the eastward, is a market-town called Aldea allega, of which I have already spoken, and on a reek not far from thence a market town called Ioura, through which lies the road to St. Ubes, a onsiderable place, though not so closely built as e former. Farther along the bank of the river it- lf are the beautiful market-towns of Alhosvedros, avradio, celebrated for its good wine, and arreiro. Here begins a second creek, which tends to the market-town of Couna, through hich is the road to Azeytaõ. Near this place uicksilver has been found in the sand, which ere alternates with strata of clay containing ome iron, for which reason trenches are cut, nd it is intended to make some farther attempts f this kind.

Then follows the last creek, with the market-town of Seixal, which is the least of all, and through it lies the road to Cezimbra, a town which supplies Lisbon with a great quantity of fish. In the angle where the stream grows narrow, is the market-town of Casilhas, the usual landing place in going up the river from Lisbon, as the landing is always good there without waiting for the flood. The market-town of Montella, and the small town of Almada, are only a quarter of a league from Casilhas. Thus in a space of five leagues, or about four German miles, are no less than ten considerable, well-built, and populous market-towns, without reckoning the numerous villages and hamlets; from which an idea may be formed of the lively scene the banks of this river afford.

Below Almada on the bank of the river, is a large English hospital for sailors, particularly for the fleet, and a considerable magazine of wine. From hence the bank continues high and hilly, the towns and villages lying in the hollows between the hills. A tower strengthened by a few cannon and soldiers, called *torre velha* or old tower, answers to the opposite tower of Belem. A village called Porto Brandaõ, the landing-place in crossing the river from Belem, lies in another hollow; but the houses continue for a league inland to Caparica, where good wine is also produced. Close to the mouth of the river is the great fishing village of Trafferia, and round the point of the village of Acosta consisting

of only small houses, which have the appearance of wooden sheds, and are dispersed along the beach. The inhabitants are a bold half-wild race of fishermen, who venture far out to sea, and are considered at Lisbon as the refuse of the nation. From the point, a sand-bank, which is covered at flood, runs out into the sea as far as a large fortified tower, which with the opposite fortification covers the entrance into the harbour. It is properly called the fort of San Lourenço, but generally the torre de Bugio, serving as a place to keep prisoners, till they are sent to the Indies or Angola.

To Aldea Gallega, Mouta, Couna, Casilhas, and Porto Brandaõ, daily packet-boats take passengers for a trifle. In windy weather, this conveyance is very dangerous, as the stream is very rapid, and the boat-men uncommonly careless; so that misfortunes frequently happen. The north bank of the river extends much farther into the sea before it forms the cape, or cabo de Rocca*.

Fort San Juliaõ, and fort San Antonio, are the only two of any importance round Lisbon. These are sufficient to prevent a fleet from entering, but, if once entered, it would have all Lisbon at its mercy, and might with perfect ease level it with the ground†.

Between Oeyras and the village of Carcavelos, the sweet wine is produced which in England is called Lisbon, and in the country itself wine of Carcavelos. The vineyards are enclosed in gardens, on a gentle declivity toward the sea, and the must is generally sent to Lisbon, where it is made into wine.

Two leagues beyond Belem among high hills, in an enclosed solitary vale, is the royal residence of Quelus. Neither the castle, nor the adjoining quinta are worthy of remark, but the road is planted with magnolias, geraniums from the cape, and similar plants, which here succeed well. There are a few small houses round the castle, which, however, do not form a village. Here the court resides in the greatest tranquillity, excepting on a few fixed days, which are days of gala: but the queen at this time, in consequence of the melancholy state of her mind, no longer appeared. The prince regent was not brought up for the throne, of which he first came to the expectation on the death of his elder brother, a prince who was much beloved and lamented, and who died of the small-pox.

Half a league from Quelus is a market-town called Bellas, with a pleasant quinta belonging to the Conde de Pombeiro and a very good inn. Beyond this place, toward Cintra, are some mineral springs, near which is a house for the reception of invalids. A quinta serves as a promenade, but very little use is made of it. The whole country round is basalt or lime-stone; sand-stone also appears, and from these the springs arise, which, from the opportunities I had of trying them, appeared vitriolated, without having much oxygen. These springs are enclosed that they may not be used to procure abortion, as has sometimes happened. On the opposite side of Bellas, at about a league distance, amid lime-stone hills, the water for the great aqueduct of Lisbon is collected from various sources within the same building. These hills are very dreary and barren.

To the north-west of Lisbon rises a high range

* The following are the principal places along this bank; below Belem is a square tower called Torre de Belem, fortified with cannon, which no vessel must pass till it has been visited. Near this tower are several batteries, as also along the bank from hence to fort San Juliao. This small irregular fort, commonly called San Giao, is built on a rocky point, and extremely well covers the entrance of the harbour: the passage into which is difficult, being very narrow, and a bank of stones called os cachopos, lying obliquely before the entrance; but if the forts and batteries are not very strong, nature has done much for the protection of the harbour. A quarter of a league from it, inland, is the small town of Oeyras, and, two leagues farther down, the small town of Cascaes, rather a considerable and not ill-built place, standing on a strip of land under which ships may lie. Near this town is the small fort of San Antonio; but from hence a considerable way to the northward, is a high broken rock without any landing-place; the bank to the southward is skirted with considerable sand-banks.

† It is therefore somewhat singular, that both this and the towns of Oeyras and Cascaes, should be garrisoned by English troops, or such at least as are in the English pay. In general all the emigrant and English regiments collected in and about Lisbon; the regiment of Dillon was at Cascaes, an English regiment of infantry at Oeyras, English dragoons at Belem and Oeyras, a Swiss regiment in the English pay and the royal emigrés at Belem, and the regiment of Montemar and Castres at Lisbon, after the departure of general Stuart with many troops for the expedition against Minorca. Many political events in 1797 and 1798 may be explained by these circumstances; for hence appears the reason why Portugal could not ratify an advantageous peace with France, Lisbon and its harbour being in fact in the hands of the English. It appears singular that the Portugueze government should thus suffer its hands to be bound; yet it must be allowed that with great address they bound the hands of the French during that critical period. Certainly, however, to leave Portugal, that most important country to England, in peace was the greatest of the follies the French at that time committed.

of mountains full of peaks, forming the back-ground of a charming landscape. These are the mountains of Cintra, which lie North-east and South-west, ending in the Cabo de Rocca. The distance from Lisbon to the market-town of Cintra is four leagues. The country on this side of Lisbon is far from pleasant, the road lying across arid stony hills of lime-stone or sand-stone. The range of mountains itself consists of granite composed of clear white quartz, a somewhat reddish felspar, and black mica, against which leans a white or foliaceous lime-stone, or a proper stink-stone. The south side toward Lisbon is arid, naked, parched up, consists of bare heaped-up rocks, and affords a wild, desert, dreary prospect. But every thing is changed when we pass round the mountain to the north side of this range, and enter Cintra. Here the whole declivity is to a certain height covered with country-houses and charming quintas, forming a shady wood of the finest trees, such as oaks of various kinds, pines, lemons, and other fruit-trees. Every where streams issue from the rocks, and form cool mossy spots. Toward the summit of the mountain naked rocks are wildly heaped together. On one of the high points, floating as it were in the air, is seen a monastery, and on another the ruins of a moorish castle. Where the quintas cease begins a thick but low coppice of strawberry tree, privets, buckthorn, and the rare sweet willow, which, with other vegetable inhabitants of the island of Madeira, have strayed hither. A fine prospect of the well-cultivated valley of Colares, of the great monastery of Mafra, and of the sea, complete the beauties of the scene.

The houses at Cintra lie dispersed in a picturesque manner over the declivity of the mountain. Here also is a royal castle, formerly the residence of several kings. Cintra is the summer residence of the rich inhabitants of Lisbon, but especially of the foreign merchants, and of the Portugueze who are connected with foreign houses. Here also are seen a great part of the ministry, and other diplomatic persons of high rank. The months of August and September, when every thing is parched up round Lisbon, are passed here on mountains that abound in water, verdure, and shade. It would not be believed that art has done any thing to render this abode agreeable, nor has it, except in forming shady quintas. The country houses are very indifferent when compared with their inhabitants, being generally small and inconvenient for persons of rank. The promenades alone are formed by nature. Cintra is the abode of love; for in the midst of summer the coolness of the nights is charming, and the dispersion of the houses, the rocks, gardens, and woods, afford innumerable opportunities for amorous solitude. Cintra is less celebrated in Portugueze poetry than might be expected; but foreigners love it very much, and have laid out the best spots. Camoens speaks of this mountain with a miserable conceit: "Cintra," says he, "where the concealed naïads fly from the sweet bonds to the cool fountains, where love, however, softly binds them in his net, and lights up flaming fire-brands even in the water."

To the west of Cintra, at the foot of this range of mountains, is a market-town called Colares, celebrated for its orchards, chesnut woods, and wine. A great part of the fruit that is consumed in Lisbon comes from hence. Apples are particularly abundant and good, and the best table-wine is produced there. Parties of pleasure are frequently made from Cintra to this place. Upon this lofty mountain, to the westward, is a small monastery of capuchins, built between rocks, and called Cork monastery, the rocks being cased with cork. The loneliness of the scene, the naked and dreary range of mountains, from which the spectator has an extensive view of the sea, and this poor little monastery, sometimes entice foreigners away from Cintra; and hence it has undeservedly acquired its reputation. Its elevation and vicinity to the sea cause a great accumulation of clouds and moisture, to remedy which the coating of cork upon the walls is very useful. In winter snow is not unfrequent here, though it never lies. Toward Cabo de Rocca the mountains become lower and lower, ending in a flat, desert, naked, lonely ridge, which forms the cape. Near the extremity is a light-house, and not far from it a small chapel. On this naked plain the storms rage with great violence, the sea bursts with vehemence against the rocks, and is very deep in their vicinity. From hence are seen the mountains of Mafra; and opposite is the corresponding cape, Cabo de Espichel. Farther to the northward is another chain of mountains, parallel to those of Cintra, with which it unites by high and detached mountains, the Cabeça de Montachique

Montachique and others. From the sea these mountains appear like a lofty amphitheatre. This chain of mountains consists of thick and foliaceous lime-stone. On the part which runs toward the sea is the castle of Mafra with its immense monastery.

SECTION VII.

Journey to St. Ubes, Alcacer do Sal, Grandola—Description of the Serra da Arrabida—St. Ubes—Journey into the Northern Provinces—From Lisbon to Caldas de Rainha.

IN April, 1798, we crossed the river to Couna, which is generally considered as a distance of three leagues, and thence proceeded to the small town of Azeytaõ. The road lies chiefly across sandy heaths and pine-woods, the soil being better cultivated only round the town. There are many cork and olive-trees, and at length vineyards and fields. The town consists of small houses, has a manufactory of cottons, a dyehouse, five hundred and fifty-two houses, and two thousand three hundred and forty-two inhabitants, or less than five to a house.

I cannot forbear here to introduce a remark on the population of Portugal. According to the last lists, the present minister of police found the number of houses in Portugal to be seven hundred and forty-four thousand nine hundred and eighty. In Lisbon and Oporto alone can we reckon five or more inhabitants to each house, in the maritime towns generally about five, but in the inland towns certainly not so many. The small houses of these country towns are occupied only by one family, frequently consisting only of a man, his wife, and one child; nor are the common people very prolific, not having the means of supporting many children. Of this Azeytaõ is an example. It is a manufacturing place, which also carries on a considerable trade in wine and oil, being situated between the two harbours of Lisbon and St. Ubes; yet the population is very small, not being sufficient for the harvest, for a hundred and eighteen labourers come annually from Aveiro in the province of Beira, to assist them.

Close to Aldea dos Mouros rise pleasant hills covered with a grove of laurel and laurustinus, upon which are also the remains of a ruined castle. Here the Serra da Arrabida appears in front to the southward rather as a high, steep, and naked range of mountains. The valley between these hills and the mountains is a heath of the better kind, entirely covered with beautiful tall cisti and other rare plants. The Serra da Arrabida rises to the eastward, at Palmella, very rapidly out of the sandy plain, takes a due westerly direction, forming the Cabo Espichel, and consists of a grey close lime-stone which breaks in shivers. The part beyond Aldea dos Mouros is the highest. On the north side the mountains are steep and not covered with rocks, but, like most lime-stone mountains, with small loose stones, which render the ascent extremely difficult; nor is any fine and luxurious vegetation seen, excepting in the hollows where the brooks take their rise. The south side rises strait out of the sea, is entirely covered with coppice, and has likewise in the hollows pleasant groves. Here is the monastery of Arrabida, from which the range of mountains and the province take the name of these Franciscans. This high mountain, covered with trees and thickets, rising immediately out of the sea, forms a singular and novel view; and the prospect from the highest point is magnificent and surprising.

The lime-stone from this part is very marbly, and was employed in building the monastery of Mafaa. The north side of the mountain furnishes pasture for goats and sheep, but was formerly a chace, as the south side is now. These flocks of sheep are considered as the cause of the want of cultivation.

At the eastern extremity this range of mountains rises suddenly with the round and almost conical mountain on which is the considerable monastery of Palmella, of the military order of Santiago, with a village, and is seen at an extraordinary distance, on this, for the most part, naked mountain. The prospect from this eminence is very extraordinary and singular in its kind. At the foot of it lies St. Ubes with its harbour and extremely-

remely-well cultivated plain; directly in front high, naked, stony ridge of mountains; to right is Lisbon, with its river, harbour, and rich high bank; and, if the spectator turns und, he discovers the black desert waste of emtejo. Such a range of mountains, with two siderable harbours, a desert, and very fertile cts of country, form a most striking contrast.

This range of mountains extends from hence l farther to the westward, between St. Ubes d Azeytaõ: then between Aldea dos Mauros d the sea onward. To the southward of the t-mentioned place, along the north side of the untain, lies the fine estate of Calheriz, the ner of which, Dom Alexandre de Sousa, con-utes much to the improvement of rural nomy.

Still farther to the westward, but on the south e of the mountains, in a hollow surrounded steep rocky naked summits, and close to the , is the small town of Cezimbra. The har-r is small and ill-protected, and close behind town, on a mountain, is an old castle, which een far and wide. This part is uncommonly ed and barren. The town is supported by fishery, and sends a great quantity of fish to bon.

The higher summits of the mountains here sist of limestone, then follow strata of rounded rtz, or large-grained sand and slate-clay, in ich appear coal, pyrites, and native sulphur. This range of mountains ends in the Cabo de pichel, which with the Cabo de Rocca forms mouth of the Tagus. The height of the mer cape is much more considerable than that the latter; but it is only on the south side, ken off quite abruptly. On the west side the livity indeed is very steep, but may be ascend-and is covered with bushes and rocks. On farthest point, besides the light house, is a all church, with a miraculous picture of the gin. This church, dedicated to Nossa Sen-a de Cabo, forms the centre of a building, n which long wings extend on each side, sisting of two stories, and containing a great ny small apartments, furnished with wooden irs and tables, but without windows, for the of the devout, who come hither as pilgrims. the beginning of May, every year, there is a ocession of them from Belem to Porto Brandaõ, l thence through the desert heaths and pine-woods; and sometimes the prince of Brasil takes part in these pilgrimages, passing his time in hunting. This cape indeed is the pleasantest in Portugal, the country round is well cultivated, single houses being every where interspersed, the hills cheerful and gay, and the naked summit adorned with the above mentioned building.

Here also the upper stratum is entirely lime-stone, and beneath is a stratum of sand-stone, in which, especially on the declivity toward the sea, we found abundance of charcoal. Under this is lime-stone with substances appearing like petrifications, as also happens at Porto Brandaõ and even on the north side of the Tagus round Lisbon.

St. Ubes* is situated at the extremity of the Serra da Arrabida, on the south side, where the country is very pleasant through the variety it exhibits. To the westward the mouth of the Sado is so wide, that it appears a considerable bay formed by a strip of land on the opposite side, which, with this high range of mountains, also constitute the narrow entrance of the harbour. As far as the eye can see, a high steep declivity, covered with thickets and woody hollows, extends along the sea. To the north-east, toward the charming mountain of Palmella, is a fertile spot watered by brooks and adorned with quintas, plantations of orange-trees, and vineyards. Black heaths and pine-woods to the southward and eastward increase by contrast the charms of this rich prospect.

A fort, called San Philipe, covers the harbour, and a tower fortified with cannon, called Torre de Outaõ, together with a light-house, are situated in the hollow of the mountains, besides which several bastions are raised here and there. The entrance is also difficult, and the channel very narrow, so that the fortifications may fully answer their purpose. The town is small, consisting of narrow dirty streets and small houses; but the strand is broad and neat, being adorned with superior houses occupied by the rich inhabitants, who mostly reside in this part, and provided with a good pavement along the water's edge. The walls of the old town and its gates still remain. St. Ubes is the seat of a corregedo , and contains five churches and nine religious houses; a large number in proportion to not much above two thousand houses.

The trade of St. Ubes consists in wine, which

* In Portugueze Setuval. The ancient name was Cetobrica. T.

is here very good, and various kinds of it are exported. Good muscadel is here also produced. Oranges are likewise exported; but the best trade of St. Ubes is in salt, which is taken principally by Danish and Swedish ships. The salt-pans lie in great numbers along the Sado and its branches, being called in Portugueze *marinhas*. They are dug square, about three feet deep, and salt-water is introduced on one side from the sea, at flood, through canals which extend in innumerable branches, and are shut when the pans are full*.

The fishery of St. Ubes was formerly much celebrated, but has since greatly fallen off. In former times the towns of Sinos, St. Ubes, and Alcacer were much connected in the fishing trade†.

Opposite St. Ubes, on the narrow strip of land that forms the entrance of the harbour, are the remains of an ancient city called Troya. Many walls are still seen, and a number of square pavements, formed of small angular stones bound together with cement, being probably either the sites of houses or the courts belonging to them. Similar ornamental paved courts are found in the remains of old moorish buildings‡.

We ascended the Sado to Alcacer do Sal (or Salt-castle) the banks of the river being full of salt-pans, and cultivated to some distance, behind which the desert heaths begin. The town or village of Alcacer consists of about six hundred and fifty houses, but mostly small. It has only a juiz de fora, and belongs to the Comarca of St. Ubes. Travellers generally pass through this place to Beja and Algarvia, as they can go from St. Ubes to Alcacer, a distance of eight leagues by water. Much corn also from upper Alemtejo is shipped here for St. Ubes and Lisbon. Near this town are the remains of a castle much spoken of in Portugueze history. The country is flat, excepting a few hills of sand-breccia.

From hence to Grandola, we had three leagues of desert sandy heaths and pine-woods, and very little cultivated land. This town (or villa) is said to contain eight hundred houses, but these, excepting two, are small and bad, and this place, compared with Alcacer, is very dead. Some wine and oranges however are produced in the neighbourhood. Beyond the town, the Serra de Grandola proceeds in two ranges, one behind the other, from east to west, forming the last mountains as far as the frontiers of Algarvia. The Serra is not high, but extremely arid, and consists of a fine-grained argillaceous sand-stone

* The water is often previously collected in large reservoirs, called *governos*, from which it is afterwards distributed into the marinhas, where, being evaporated, the salt is collected in the month of June, and kept either in wooden sheds or in heaps, which are protected against the rain by rushes. Of this salt a considerable quantity seemed to be in store. It is large-grained, becomes but little moist in the air, and excels in purity the marine salt collected in other provinces of the south of Europe, or in other parts of Portugal. Thus a quantity of salt is prepared on the banks of the Tagus above Lisbon, round Aveiro, &c. The salt-trade to Brasil is farmed by the government to a merchant.

† In 1796, the following ships entered and sailed from the port of St. Ubes, *viz.* seventy-one Americans in, seventy-two out; four from Bremen in, three out; a hundred and forty-five Danish in, a hundred and forty-seven out; one Spanish inwards; ten Hamburgers in, six out; forty-six English in, forty-five out; eight Lubeck in, seven out; eight Oldenburg in, six out; thirteen Portugueze in, nineteen out; sixty-eight Prussian in and out; four from Papenburg in, three out; two Ragusan in and out; a hundred and seventy-seven Swedes in, and a hundred and seventy-three out.

In 1797, the following ships entered Lisbon: one hundred and fifty four American and one man of war in, one hundred and sixty-one out; ten from Bremen in, eleven out; two hundred and eighteen Danish in, two hundred and twenty-nine out; one French in and out; nine Genoese in, thirteen out; forty-three Hamburgers in and out; three Spanish in, four out; one Imperial in and out; five hundred and thirty-three English in, four hundred and sixty-six out; two hundred and twenty-three English men of war in, two hundred and twenty-five out; nine from Lubeck in, ten out; nine from Morocco in, nine out; four Neapolitan in, three out; six from Oldenburg in, eight out: two from Papenburg in and out; two hundred and sixty eight Portugueze in, three hundred and nine out; sixty-one Portugueze men of war in, seventy-nine out; eighty Prussians in, eighty-six out; twenty-two Ragusans in, twenty-three out; one hundred and thirty-five Swedes in, one hundred and forty-eight out; nineteen Venetians in and twenty-four out. From these *data* the trade of St. Ubes may be compared with that of Lisbon; and thus it appears that the former is not inconsiderable; but the number of Portugueze mercantile houses in Lisbon exceeds two hundred, and that of foreigners exceeds one hundred and fifty, while there are only fifteen in St. Ubes.

‡ Tradition says that this place was buried in the sea through the impiety of its inhabitants, and that only a single church, called Hermita, remained. It is certainly probable that the place was deserted on account of the sand, and that the inhabitants went over and built St. Ubes on the opposite side. Lima, in his map, lays down a place called Vanda in this spot, and places Troya on the other side of a creek that does not exist; in which he is followed by Lopez and other modern maps. For this Vanda we enquired in vain.

which often breaks slaty. On the second range, not unfrequently are found copper pyrites and red-copper ore, whence this range of mountains is called in the maps *Serra de minas de cobre*, but by the inhabitants Serra de Grandola*.

From Grandola we followed the sea-coast for some distance over very tedious heaths covered with deep sand to Comporta, a place consisting only of a church, a large but bad inn, and a few small huts. From this place we returned to St. Ubes, having travelled over a most dreary country, from which we derived no other benefit than a few fine plants, and some corrections for the map of Portugal.

We left Lisbon in May 1798 to explore the northern provinces of Portugal, and directed our course to Torres vedras, and the baths of Caldas.

The country beyond the eastern part of Lisbon I have already described; but Campo grande, a suburb of Lisbon, Lumiar, and Carnide also deserve mention. We only saw hills with short interruptions, and covered with olive-trees, on the plain ground orange-gardens, along the brooks meadows full of oaks and poplars, and here and there corn-fields. The oranges of Lumiar are high in esteem. Equally charming is the valley of Loures: where the hills rise still higher, the valley itself becomes wider, and one village succeeds to another. The traveller may go through Bemfica, Campo grande, Carnide, and Lumiar for several miles constantly between houses, without perceiving he has quitted Lisbon.

Beyond Loures the level of the country rises considerably, and we ascended the high chain of mountains, which extends to Mafra, consisting of basalt covered with lime-stone; but on the heights, and on the north side, a compact fine-grained sand-stone appeared. The first shelf is formed by a mountain called de Montachique; after which the level is lower, as far as a village called *a Pova*. The road, though paved, was bad every where, and had doubtless not been mended for a century; the towns and villages are uncommonly small and wretched. Round Pova are many fruit-trees; a proof of a high and cool situation. Beyond that village the mountains again rise, and become bare and dreary, with a quinta only here and there. On these mountains is the village of Enxara, with a fine estate of the Conde Redondo. Toward Torres vedras the mountains again cease, and we travelled between cheerful hills; but the little cultivation that appears shows the distance from Lisbon. The hills consist of a coarse-grained sand-stone, here and there is basalt, and sometimes strata of rounded flints.

Torres vedras is a small town, seven leagues from Lisbon, surrounding a hill on which are the ruins of an ancient castle. It contains somewhat above six hundred houses, four parish churches, and three religious houses without the town. These give it an appearance of greatness, which we afterwards found it did not possess. In ancient times it was a celebrated fortification, and is still the chief town of a Corregimento. The country round is pleasant and well cultivated, being full of gardens and vineyards, and watered by the small river Sizandro. On one side sand-mountains and pine-woods soon again begin, while on the other are only gay lime-stone hills covered with coppice. At the foot of these rises a luke-warm spring containing some carbonic acid gas. Coal is also found here in a stratum of clay.

From Torres vedras to the neighbourhood of Obidos, a distance of five leagues, we passed through an ill-cultivated desert country, exhibiting, first pine-woods, then heaths, and only a couple of wretched insignificant villages. The mountains every where consist of sand-stone and ratchil. Round Obidos the prospect is pleasanter and more varied, being full of short hills formed of a close yellowish lime-stone, frequently rough and rocky, covered with cheerful coppice and surrounded by brooks. Obidos itself is a small insignificant town built round a hill, on which are the ruins of an ancient fortification celebrated in history, and the walls of which are still kept in very good order. Within it, amid ruins and rocks, are some houses inhabited by persons belonging to the police.

* At the time when we found these mountains as laid down, we had been seeking in vain for a lake placed in the maps between Alcacer and Grandola, under the name of *Lago Alva*, of which no one throughout the country could give us the least intelligence. Equally in vain we sought in this country for the *Montes azules* of Lopez, which not an inhabitant knew, and the place of which is occupied by a sandy heath. Such errors regarding countries at no great distance from a capital, and in laying down a place of trade so well known as St. Ubes, are very striking.

A league

A league from Obidos is the small town of Caldas, much frequented for its sulphureous waters. The town is small, being built in an irregular quadrangular form; but is continually increasing. The houses are small, generally consisting merely of a ground-floor, and only a few have windows. The flooring is very bad almost throughout, and those who would have other furniture, than bad wooden tables and chairs, must bring them. As to beds, table cloths, and other conveniences, they are wholly wanting; in short every article of furniture must be provided. The company who come to bathe always live in private houses. Such are the accommodations prepared for the rich merchants and principal nobility of Lisbon, who visit Caldas twice a year; namely in May and September. The rich pass the hot season at Cintra, and travel from thence to Caldas; for which reason the company are frequently more brilliant in autumn than in spring*.

SECTION VIII.

From Caldas to Coimbra, through Alcobaça and Batalha—Coimbra—The University—Causes of the Backwardness of Portugueze Literature.

WE set off from Caldas for San Martinho, a small market-town two leagues from Caldas, over low hills, and through a sandy country, and pine-woods. Close to the sea, rise hills consisting of sand-stone and lime-stone with a small quantity of gypsum. Between these is the narrow entrance into the harbour, which is pretty large, almost completely a round basin, which has a very fine appearance; but only small ships can enter, and we counted but three two-masted vessels. Most of the inhabitants are supported by the fishery, and carry on a coasting trade.

To the eastward of San Martinho, a chain of sand-stone hills runs parallel to the sea. The summits and western declivities are naked, but the eastern sides are covered with frequent and considerable pine-woods. The country also becomes more mountainous. At the northern extremity, concealed in a valley, so that it can only be seen on a very near approach, is the rich Bernardine monastery of Alcobaça, together with a market-town. The church is large and built in the gothic taste, which is called the new normanno-gothic. A number of curiosities (but of no great importance) were there shown us. I was only struck with some articles made of the first gold from Brasil, and an excellent black sculptured marble from Porto de Moz. The monastery is a large simple well-built pile, and the apartments have the air rather of a palace than of a monastery. The once celebrated archives were taken away by the Spaniards, when they conquered Portugal, and carried to the Es-

* In the middle of this place over the warm spring, is a spacious and handsome bathing house, founded in the reign of the late king, and close to it a hospital for poor patients. Besides the spring used for drinking, three others supply four baths; that for the men is thirty-six feet long by nine broad, and two feet eight inches deep. The soil is covered with a white clay and washed sand. The company undress behind a curtain, put on bathing cloaths, and sit upon the ground in the bath, so that the water reaches their neck. There are frequently twelve patients in the bath at the same time, and though the water is constantly flowing it is unpleasant to be obliged to bathe in company, especially to these who come last, to whom the water arrives after washing the rest. It is also unpleasant that strangers are admitted. Nothing however is paid for bathing, except a small present to the attendants. The poor are not suffered to bathe till about noon, when the other company are gone. The rest of the baths, even those appropriated to the ladies, are regulated in a similar manner, except that the water in the bath for men is the hottest and of the strongest quality, being from 92° to 93° of Farenheit, (from 26° to 27° of Reaumur). The water from all the springs joins and turns a mill near the bathing house.

On entering this house the company come to a large floor, which serves for a promenade after bathing, and is generally full of people running to and fro with great violence. Here also is an apothecary's shop, and in the back-ground the spring used for drinking, the warmth of which is 91° of Farenheit.

The country round is well cultivated, but sandy and full of pine-woods. The place itself is situated on the western brow of hills very much flattened, consisting of a soft brownish sand-stone containing iron, and probably covering coal, from the combustion of which the heat of the water may arise.

curial.

curial. The library is far from bad. We also saw here a magnificent copy of the English translation of Camoens's Lusiad, which was presented by lady Bute to this and other institutions in various parts of Spain and Portugal, as a token of remembrance. In short this library did not at all resemble most German monastic libraries, and a new and excellent apartment is now preparing for its reception.

Alcobaça is a very considerable market town or villa, and carries on various manufactories, the oldest of which is in the monastery, where Pombal established it, probably in order to turn the monastery to some account. Cambrics and other fine linen manufactures are made here, but the woollen manufactory is more important, as also one for spinning wool, belonging to Messrs. Guillot, natives of France. That part of it which can be done by machinery is so performed, such as carding, spinning, &c. and the ingenious construction of these various machines excites general admiration. This manufactory enjoys a good sale, although woollens are also made in Lisbon, and a spinning manufactory is established at Tamar. The Guillots are a respectable house, both here and at Lisbon.

The common people have a great talent for fine delicate works; and imitate with the greatest accuracy. We saw here extremely fine thread, spun at Santarem, which M. Guillot showed us as extraordinary in its kind.

Alcobaça is surrounded by mountains. To the south-west, and to the northward, sand-stone mountains press close round it. To the westward rises a high naked range of mountains, which for a considerable distance runs parallel with the coast, being connected, though by detached ridges, with Monte Junto to the south-east, and Lousaõ to the north-east. A part of this range is called Porto de Moz, and affords excellent marble. The country however round Alcobaça is cheerful, containing much coppice and meadows, and being also far cooler than the flat lands to the southward.

From Alcobaça to Batalha, a distance of three leagues, we approached the chain of mountains to the eastward, where they become higher, more crowded together, and in many parts covered with pines. We now came to a market-town called Aljubarota, on the long flat summit of a mountain. It is a pretty large place, but consists entirely of very small houses*.

Toward Leiria, the hills are still lower, consisting of sand-stone, and bearing olive-trees. At the foot of them, on a plain between the small rivers called Lix and Lena, and two leagues from Batalha, is the city of Leiria with its suburbs. The number of houses does not amount to much more than one thousand; but there are some neat ones, and many persons of easy fortune reside there. It is a very old city, was formerly much celebrated, and though it has considerably diminished since 1417, it still continues the capital of a corregimento and the seat of a corregedor and bishop. It consists of two parishes, and contains four religious houses. On a hill is a once much-celebrated castle, and the city has been the residence of some of the kings, especially of the wise Dom Diniz, whose palace still exists. The surrounding country is pleasant, the valley fertile and well cultivated, and old venerable pine woods adorn the hills.

Barren heaths, covered with ratchil, and here and there with pine-woods, continue as far as Pombal. During these five leagues we did not see a single village, and only a few detached houses; but were much surprised at finding in some parts a good road, which is a striking and novel sight that always reminds the traveller of the name of Pombal. The market-town of Pombal, contains some neat houses, and is situated on the bank of a river in a well-cultivated

* Here, in 1386, John I. gained a great victory over the Spaniards, by which he maintained himself on the throne. He was a natural son of Dom Pedro his predecessor; for Dom Fernando the last king having only left a daughter who married the king of Castile, this was sufficient ground for a jealous king of that country to make war with Portugal. It was this battle, that, together with that of Campo de Ourique, established the independence of Portugal. Camoens, in the fourth Canto of the Lusiad, minutely describes this battle in beautiful and truly picturesque language. Nuno Alvarez Pereira distinguished himself in it, having previously engaged the great men of his country to support their new king. In memory of this victory, his majesty founded the monastery and church *da Batalha*, but at some distance from the field of battle, that it might enjoy a convenient situation and plenty of water. The mountains near this monastery are indeed lower, but it is so much concealed between hills that we did not perceive it till we approached very near. The singularly-built and open transparent tower strikes the eye, and pleases by its noble proportions.

and very cheerful country. A capuchin church with a very celebrated miraculous picture of the virgin, the ruins of an old castle on a hill, and the palace of the famous marquis of Pombal, which is a neat but not a striking edifice, are the principal objects that deserve notice. Here the marquis of Pombal ended his days, as it were in banishment.

Similar hills to those from Leiria to Pombal, continue from thence to Condeixa, though not so entirely barren, and better cultivated. We also came to a market-town called Atouguia, a place of some consideration, but consisting of small houses. At length we approached the high naked mountains to the eastward, which extend hither, and consist of a whitish-grey lime-stone. In some parts is found red iron-ore, which might be very well smelted into iron. On this road we quitted the province of Estremadura and entered that of Beira.

Condeixa, which is five leagues from Pombal, is situated near that chain of mountains in a very pleasant and cultivated country. The place itself is larger than Pombal, gay and lively, and many persons of rank reside there. The oranges of Condeixa are celebrated for their excellence and cheapness, and it is called a fruit-basket; a pleasing name for a pleasant place. The young women here appeared extremely beautiful and freer than they generally are in small Portugueze towns, the cause of which may be the vicinity of the students of Coimbra. Here also the ancient Colibria or Colimbria, from which Coimbra took its name, is said to have stood.

A fertile hilly country watered by brooks, well peopled and cultivated, continues as far as Coimbra, which is but two leagues from Condeixa.

Coimbra, like almost all great cities in Portugal, is built on the declivity of a hill, which in this instance is considerably steep; only a small part of the town being situated on the plain. The Mondego in its wide bed winds along in front close to the hill, and over it is a long stone bridge. The traveller does not perceive the town till he descends into the valley; but then it forms a fine and surprising view, in the midst of a charming country, which it adorns with innumerable monasteries and churches, along the declivity of the mountain. But he has no sooner entered Coimbra than all his expectations are reversed: for the streets are extremely narrow, crooked, and full of angles, ill-paved, very dirty, and frequently so steep that it is difficult to climb them. There is a single broad street on the plain; but even that is not inhabited by the rich, because it is deemed unhealthy in summer. The Mondego swells in winter, overflows its banks, and in summer leaves marshes, which, as in all hot countries, produce unwholesome vapours. There is not a single open place in the whole town, nor any promenade, but such as nature offers. The great quinta of the Augustines is alone used as such, and those who wish to see Indian laurels from Goa (*laurus indica*) in their greatest perfection, should visit this spot. But this is not all. In no large town throughout Portugal are the inns so bad, strangers being lodged in wretched apartments with miserable beds and food, the dressing of which requires the appetite of a herboriser to overcome. Hence perhaps it is, that all travellers hurry through this place, observe it but cursorily, and give little or no information relative to its very celebrated university.

The farther northward the traveller proceeds, the better disposed and more industrious are the common people, and robberies and thefts are here very uncommon. Neither sex however is beautiful; and the female far from pleasing, compared with their neighbours of Condeixa. The lower classes of women wear on their heads a long black cloth.

Coimbra is a very old city, and had suffered many sieges, previous to the time when Count Henriquez took possession of Portugal. The towers and walls still remain; but in other respects the place is quite open. Since the year 1419, Coimbra has declined. It is however the see of a bishop, who is always count of Arganil, not only in name but in reality; also of a corregedor, a provedor, and a juiz de fora. It consists of something more than three thousand houses, being divided into eight parishes, and has no less than eight monasteries and eighteen endowments.

The most important object at Coimbra, is the university founded at Lisbon by Dom Diniz in 1291, but transferred hither after a period of sixteen years. It was afterward again removed to Lisbon; but in 1537, John III again transferred it to Coimbra, where it has remained. Under Pombal its regulations were considerably altered,

altered, and certainly much to its advantage. But regulations are not all, and will not supply the want of an animating spirit; for where that fails, the sciences cannot flourish. They require liberal funds, encouragement, and a just estimation of their important uses; means whereby an inferior constitution will produce more effect, than the best regulations in the world. But as the state of this university is little known, I shall here speak of it more at large.

The university is under the government of a rector (reytor) nominated by the king, but not from among the members of the academy. He is generally a priest, and from this office is promoted to be a bishop; being only appointed for three years, but after the expiration of that period, almost always continued till another promotion. The chancellor of the university is the principal superintendant in matters of learning. He confers the degrees at all promotions, and presides at the examinations of students. This place belongs to the prior and chief of the Augustine canons regular at Coimbra.

Various public institutions now occupy the buildings of the ancient college of the jesuits, which Pombal gave to the university. It is situated like all the other university-buildings in the highest part of the town. The museum is inconsiderable, containing but few remarkable specimens, which Vandelli, when he superintended this institution entirely arranged, even the minerals, according to the Linnean system. But the collection of philosophical instruments is good and considerable, including many entirely new, especially from England. Those made in Portugal are chiefly of very fine brasil-wood, adorned with gilding, and so arranged, that this collection is one of the most brilliant of its kind. In mechanics it is very rich, but extremely poor in electrical apparatus. The chemical laboratory is also very good, capacious and light, and, besides the objects generally found in such establishments, there is a pneumatic apparatus, and a collection of chemical preparations according to the new nomenclature. This building also contains a collection of chirurgical instruments.

The public library fills a small church, the interior of which is very little altered; but it is not easy to judge of a library without studying the catalogue. The number of volumes is considerable; and from the description of the professor of botany, Brotero, it seems not to be deficient even in new works. Accordingly it is much visited and used by the students.

The observatory is well built in an excellent situation in the upper part of the town, and is very convenient and neatly arranged. It only wants instruments.

The botanic garden is not very large, and the green-house is small; but through the industry of its superintendant, the professor of botany Dom Feliz de Avellar Brotero, is excellently regulated. This garden is without comparison more interesting than the royal botanic garden at Lisbon. Beside every plant is a stick bearing its name, as in the garden of Paris, and at first sight the spectator might almost imagine he is viewing its counterpart. Besides many exotics, there is a considerable collection of plants indigenous in Portugal, on which this excellent superintendant has made a number of very important botanical remarks, and no botanist can visit it without instruction.

In short the various institutions of the university of Coimbra are far from bad. It far excels the Spanish universities, not excepting that of Salamanca, if I may judge from what I have heard, both in Spain and Portugal, from the best judges. There are indeed very many universities in Germany, which in this respect are far inferior to this their Portugueze sister, whom they despise.

SECTION IX.

The Country round Coimbra—Agricultural Economy—Aveiro—Oporto.

THE country round Coimbra is uncommonly beautiful, and, though mountainous, extremely well cultivated. The mountains are covered with small pine-woods and even German oaks, the vallies watered by brooks, and full of gardens, quintas, neat summer-houses, and even monasteries,

monasteries, and adorned with olive-trees, orange-trees, and the beautiful Portugueze cypress in abundance. The Mondego winds before the city; and on both sides of it is a narrow and very fruitful vale, which this rapid stream inundates in winter. In the distance on one side are seen the high mountains of Lousaõ; and on the other the high mountain of Bussaco, whose solitary summit is adorned with a celebrated monastery of Carmelites, and its quinta with high shady cypresses. Those to whom the ascent is not too laborious, will here find the richest variety. Opposite to Coimbra, on the bank of the river, is the *Quinta das lagrimas*, or garden of tears, with a fountain of the same name, which rises at the foot of a hill shaded by fine Portugueze cypresses*.

The mountains round Coimbra consist partly of a coarse-grained sand-stone, alternated with a grey lime-stone. At a distance began high slate-mountains, and here also a yellowish grey argillaceous slate changes to a sand-slate, and this to a mica-slate, which ends in a granite. The flora of this part is uncommonly beautiful. On the slate-mountains grow the plants of Entre-Douro-e-Minho. In the pine-woods and sand-mountains are found the plants of the Portugueze heaths, and on the lime-stone mountains an abundance of orchides, and of the plants of the Serra da Arrabida. When we came to the oak-woods, we fancied ourselves in the smaller forests of Germany.

The land is well cultivated; better than elsewhere, except in Minho. Much oil in particular is produced here. The olive-tree, indeed, is very common all over Portugal, from the northern frontier mountains of the serra de Gerez to Algarvia, but most abounds in these midland parts, where the traveller may sometimes pursue his way during whole days without seeing any other tree. There are several varieties of it; but in general the Portugueze oil is better than that of Spain, though the olives are smaller. The olive-tree is planted by sets *(tanchoés)*, or it is grafted on the wild olive *(azambujeiro)*, which is by no means scarce in many parts of Portugal. The latter method affords a more durable stem. The sets are cut off from old trees in autumn, from which time they are kept in moist earth, and are set from the beginning of January to the end of April, according to the situation of the soil. In the first years they are hoed, to destroy weeds, and the land is sowed with corn; but this method of cultivation is not common except in Algarvia. While the trees are young the superfluous branches are cut off; but the olive-tree bears very late, not till its fifteenth year. Hence appears how injurious war is to this branch of agriculture, and how horrid the revenge recorded in sacred history of cutting down the enemy's olive-trees. The olives are ripe in December and January, at which time men climb the trees and beat them with long poles, while the olives are received in extended cloths, or gathered up from the ground. It would certainly be better were the olives plucked by the hand as in the south of France. Some press them immediately on their being brought home in baskets; others shoot them down in heaps, throwing salt between them, and suffering them to ferment in order to produce more oil, of which however the quality is inferior. The presses are worked by oxen; but the want of cleanliness, both in these machines and throughout the whole process, contributes much to render the quality of the oil much worse than it might be. In this country, where oil is used instead of butter with all kinds of food, and fat is burnt in large quantities in lamps, and

* Tradition says that Dona Inez de Castro lived there, and was there murdered. This lady, who was a Castilian by birth, Dom Pedro son and heir apparent to Alphonso IV. loved, and is said to have secretly married, at Braganza. He gave her this spot for her residence, frequently visited her, and she bore him three sons and a daughter. The passion of the prince at length transpired; and his enraged father, instigated by his courtiers, came sudddenly, while the prince was hunting, from Montemor o velho, not far from Coimbra, where he happened to stop, and caused her to be murdered. When Dom Pedro came to the throne, he gave orders to disinter the object of his passion, and with his own hands placed the crown on her remains. He was very severe toward those who had stimulated his father to commit this murder, and even continued this severity throughout his reign; from which circumstance he was called o justiceiro, signifying, not the just which is *justo*, but the severe. This appellation was particularly used by the priesthood, who were unfavourable to him. Inez and Dom Pedro showed great taste in the choice of this little spot, where Coimbra with the charming country around displays itself to the eye. In the romantic valley of the Mondego, the quinta of tears forms a spot, over which fancy seems to hover in all her sportiveness, and if poetry has ever sent forth a few sparks of radiance in Portugal, it has been the offspring of this charming vale.

soap

ap prepared from it, besides other uses, that rticle is an object of great consumption, and is rried from Coimbra into the other provinces. he Portugueze pickle only the ripe brown olive; ut at good tables the large Spanish unripe olives one are seen, as they are every where preferred. he wood of the olive-tree might be very useful, eing yellow, close-grained, and beautiful; but only employed as fuel, the woods from Brasil aving superseded all other kinds of timber.

The olive-tree is subject to two diseases, the ne, called *a gafa*, arises in damp situations, rivelling up both leaves and fruit; the other, lled *ferragem* (or rust), is very prevalent in e midland and southern part of Portugal. In is disorder the leaves shrivel, are covered be- ath with a black clammy substance, and a reat number of insects belonging to the family *f coccus*, but not yet established as a separate ecies. Hence the tree sickens, and bears smaller uit and in less quantity. Complaints are every here made of this disorder, which employs the ttention of the learned and of economists as much s the dry-rot or the caterpillars, called *nonnen- aupe*, occupy the German naturalists and esters. Hitherto no other remedy has been iscovered than cutting off the infected branches, hich is too severe a mode of cure; for probably is insect, like all such animals, has its period, nd would at length cease of itself. In the eco- omical treatises of the academy, vol. I. p. 8, Vandelli has given his opinion, that the insect is a *coccus*, and advises, besides cutting off the branch, o sprinkle the tree with salt-water. In vol. III. . 154, another method is proposed on this sub- ct by Antonio Suares Barbosa, who first gives he natural history of the insect, and then pro- eeds to show that the black clammy substance oes not arise from the insect, but from an over- low of sap *(chymomania)*.

Round Coimbra are grown various kinds of heat, white, red, and summer-wheat *(trigo tre- nez)*, but the latter only when the Mondego, as often happens, rots the seed in the ground. It s sown from November to March, at three ifferent times. When it grows in fields amid live-trees, the ground is turned in winter, if not n May, and it is ploughed only once in October fter the first rains. The plough used here has wo wheels, a share, a mould-board, and a coulter, which may be raised and lowered.

Barley is also sown; but no oats, and little rye. In general, Coimbra is obliged to import wheat and barley from other provinces. Rice is grown in the marshes along the Mondego, but not in any considerable quantity.

Maize or Indian-corn is very commonly cultivated here, and throughout Beira, where it is produced in larger quantities than in the southern provinces, in which the soil is too dry, and too light. The land is ploughed fourteen days before sowing time, which continues from April to the end of May. When the young plants have four or five leaves, the ground is hoed, the superfluous plants destroyed, and immediately afterwards the earth is heaped up round those that remain. In the fields it is harrowed fourteen days after, by which the leaves are torn off, and the young plants frequently quite covered with earth, which makes them thrive better. The maize when ripe is cut, and great numbers live on the bread made of it, called *broa*, which is of a fine yellow colour, but heavy and sweetish. The maize bread in the south of France is far lighter, but much dryer. Maize also affords good fodder for cattle, and is grown round Coimbra in such abundance that great quantities are exported to other provinces. It is called *milho*, and according to the Portugueze writers was first imported from Guinea. Millet *(panicum milliaceum)* is called *milho miudo*, and Italian pannicle *(panicum Italicum)* *milho painço*.

The oranges produced here are excellent, and are exported to foreign countries, even from the small harbour of Figueira at the mouth of the Mondego. The wine is moderate, yet is sent into other provinces. Garden-fruits are produced in great abundance, and of a very good quality, especially common beans, and another kind of beans, called *feijao fraydinho* (monk's beans), which are met with in great quantities all over the kingdom. These beans much resemble the common beans, but are smaller, and do not taste quite so good; yet the cultivation of them is said to be very productive. Some flax is also grown round Coimbra.

Notwithstanding this good cultivation, the common people are very poor, the cause of which strikes the eye of the traveller, even before he approaches the town, in the number of monasteries and churches it contains. The town itself is supported by the university, its trade being

inconsiderable. The Mondego is a bad river; for in winter it inundates the country, and in summer creeps slowly along its bed. This is a great obstacle to navigation, and though many proposals have been made to render the river navigable, they have never been adopted, and at its mouth is so dangerous a bar, that only small vessels can enter. Along the whole coast from Buarcos to Figueira are numerous traces of coal in the same manner as at Cabo Espichel; but at that time they were not worked. In the town and surrounding country are manufactured a little linen, and in the latter thin woollens. In the lower town are some manufactories where a bad kind of pottery is made, and others of red earthenware, the clay for which is brought from a place called Alcarrazas. This red ware is made both glazed and unglazed. Pitchers of a red clay without glazing and very porous are used in all parts of Portugal for cooling water in summer; the transudation and evaporation of which constantly produce cold.

The cheerful hills of Coimbra accompanied us only a league, when the country grew flat, and we travelled over low land with ratchil and sand, covered with heath and pine-woods. Near to Aveiro, which is nine leagues from Coimbra, the soil is better cultivated, but we only meet with two small villages, Sendas novas and Balhaza.

The city of Aveiro is situated in a flat and very marshy country, at the mouth of the Vouga. It is the capital of a corregimento, has a corregedor and provedor, contains about one thousand four hundred houses divided into four parishes, and six monasteries. The old walls still remain, but the town extends beyond them; the houses are generally small, and there are very few rich people. The river Vouga flows through the town where it is still very narrow, but is adorned with a handsome quay. Near the town it divides in two branches, one to the left and southward running to the sea, the other northward to Ovar. Its trade is inconsiderable, only small boats coming to the town; nor indeed could any but small ships pass the bar, which is continually shifting. The fishery alone is worthy of notice; for Aveiro chiefly supplies the province of Beira with sardinhas. Large troops of mules are continually seen carrying them into the higher parts of the province. Much salt is also here produced, though not so good as at St. Ubes and Lisbon.

No town in Portugal is surrounded by so extensive plains, and so large marshes of fresh water. Hence the town is very unhealthy, which is immediately perceived in the haggard pale countenances of its inhabitants. Agues are very common there, and, as in all warm countries, more dangerous than in cold. Putrid disorders are also not unfrequent.

We went from hence by water to Ovar. The arm of the Vouga, which is properly a lake, is pretty narrow for three leagues, then becomes much broader during a league, forming a true lake, and at length ends in a narrow channel a league long, which ceases close to Ovar. The water is nearly fresh, though we were often only separated from the sea by downs. Water-conveyance in small boats on a shallow stream, where in many parts vessels are pushed on by poles, through a flat marshy country, is very unpleasant. Ovar is a considerable town or village containing one thousand three hundred houses, many of them large and handsome. We met with a very well cultivated country, and a method of husbandry, similar to that we afterwards saw in Minho. Here we first met with meadows formed by art, and remarked the English rye grass (lolium perenne) which is sown here, and in these warm climates is an annual, whereas on the contrary the shrubs of southern climates are annuals in the north. Of this the drought is the cause by drying up the roots in summer.

Not far from Ovar, and near a village called Sobral, began mountains of argillaceous slate, which soon gives way to a mica-slate, and introduces a high range extending with steep crowded mountains along the south side of the Douro as far as Lamego and beyond. It is seen in the distance even at Aveiro, but sinks as it approaches the sea. Here begins the province of Entre-Douro-e-Minho, called in the country for shortness Minho, a very small part being situated on the other side of the Douro. Here the harbingers of a better cultivation appear: notwithstanding the barrenness of the mountains, the vallies are cultivated with maize, cole, and flax, the hills are covered with pine-woods, and the vine climbs up the hedges and round the trees. The villages, which at first are bad, gradually improve and become more numerous, and the traveller suddenly finds himself surrounded by detached houses, till he arrives, without perceiving

eiving it, in a considerable place called Villa-ova do Porto, where he descends a steep street o the bank of the Douro, and beholds on the pposite declivity the city of Oporto.

Excepting Lisbon, Oporto is the largest city n Portugal; the chief town of a corregimento, nd the seat of a corregedor, a provedor, and a ilitary governor, being a place of arms; it is lso the see of a bishop who chiefly resides at Mezanfrio. The population is about three hun-red thousand, as the corregedor himself assured s. Oporto has four suburbs, seven parishes, nd twelve religious houses. On one side the emains of the walls and gates still exist; other-ise the town is quite open and has no fortifica-ions. It is also the seat of the high tribunal for he northern provinces.

The quay on the river is built without the east art; on one side is a street, the other side is valled and raised, though merely for the pur-ose of making ship's cables fast. From the trand rises a broad well-paved street with cause-ays on the sides, leading to an equally hand-ome oblique street. The rest of the streets along he declivity of the hill are narrow, crooked and irty; but upon the hill we again found many ine broad straight streets, with a great many new nd handsome houses. We seemed almost to ave quitted Portugal, and to be suddenly trans-orted to England: so regular, so light, and eat are all the buildings. Generally speaking, Oporto is without doubt the cleanest town in Portugal. The steep declivity of the hill on hich the city is built, renders walking and iding on horseback or in carriages more laborious han in Lisbon. On the east side of the town are ouses built against so steep a part of the declivity ver the stream, that they can only be entered by eps cut out of the rock. This inconvenience is ndeed compensated, at least to a stranger, by the omantic situation they enjoy, and the prospect f the opposite bank with its towns, villages, onasteries, and pine-woods.

At Oporto the manners of society are taken rom the English, who are here more numerous nd considerable, in proportion to the other rich inhabitants, than at Lisbon. They have a kind of casino in a handsome building, which is extremely well regulated, and very much contributes to bring foreigners together. Among the English merchants are several who possess both knowledge and the love of science.

A short time ago a considerable play-house was built at a large expense, but the architect has unfortunately so contrived it, that the audience in the boxes cannot hear. In other respects it highly merits approbation. Here Portugueze plays are performed by tolerably good actors. Thus it is not impossible that Oporto may soon have a better theatre than Lisbon. Another uncommonly extensive building, the royal hospital, was at this time in the same unfinished state as when Murphy saw it.

The trade of Oporto, which is well known to be chiefly in wine, has suffered much in consequence of the war. The vicinity of Vigo in Galicia, where the French privateers take refuge, have kept this place in great awe, and the harbour of Oporto is very ill-adapted to be a station for ships of war, on account of the difficulty of its entrance. Hence French privateers have almost always been hovering within sight of it; and this circumstance has ruined many houses in Oporto, which can be said of very few at Lisbon. In front of the town the river is very deep; two-masted vessels can come to the town itself, those with three masts within a quarter of a league, and the great Brasil ships alone unloaded their cargoes in the road*.

The mountains suddenly cease toward the coast, and the land is lower at the mouth of the river; but here and there rocks rise out of the sand, rendering the entrance into the harbour extremely narrow and very dangerous. The sea also is very boisterous on these coasts during the rainy season, and the river very rapid. The sand which the streams brings with it is retained by the rocks, and thus more and more chokes the passage; so that, unless great and powerful means are employed, the harbour will at length be rendered totally useless. Endeavours, however, are made to keep the stream in one place,

* In 1796 the following ships entered and sailed out of this port: ten Americans in and six out; from Bremen two in and out; fifty-one Danish in, fifty-two out; two Spanish in and out; thirty-six Hamburghese in, thirty-four out; eighty-eight English in, ninety-nine out; four from Lubeck in and out; thirty-five Portugueze in, forty-two out; twenty-seven Prussian in, twenty-six out; one from Papenburgh in and out; thirty-two Swedish in, and twenty-nine out. From which it appears that the English trade to Oporto far exceeds that of all other nations.

so as to wash the sand away; and something has already been effected by labour. On the whole, however, little has been done, and much more can and must be performed, if this important harbour is to be preserved. It is a fearful sight to behold a ship, when the wind is at all strong, winding its way through this narrow part. A small fort called San Joaõ de Fez, near which is a small market-town, covers the entrance; besides this, on the coast to the northward is a bastion on the beach; opposite to which on the south side is also a very small fort, called Santa Caterina, with a few other batteries.

Immediately opposite to Oporto, on the south bank of Douro, is the appearance of a town not much smaller than Oporto itself. To the westward, along the declivity of a hill, are a number of detached houses forming the market-town of *Gaya*, a place remarkable both for its situation and name. Here in former times a place called *Cale*, of which the ancients speak, is said to have stood; but Oporto being afterwards built, as being more convenient for ships, by the greater depth of the water along that bank, it was called *Portus Cale*, or the harbour of Cale, whence was derived *Portucal*, and at length *Portugal*. Thus from this place the whole kingdom afterwards received its name according to this highly probable etymology, of which Resende is the author. Portus Cale was at length called o Porto *(the harbour)*, which name the town of Oporto afterwards received. Advancing to the eastward, we came to a considerable and populous town or villa, called Villanova do Porto, inhabited by the lower classes of people, whereas the rich more generally live in Oporto itself. Between Villanova and Gaya, on a small plain along the bank of the river, are the immense magazines where wine is kept till exported. A monastery on a high, and, toward the river, very steep hill, completes the circle of this bustling view to the eastward. We were told that the number of inhabitants at Gaya and Villanova, including the detached houses reckoned as part of both places, was about twenty thousand.

The climate of Oporto is in winter damp and foggy in consequence of its mountainous and woody situation; whence also the air is cooler than elsewhere, though it seldom freezes. On the contrary in summer the heat is great both in this narrow valley and the town, which is situated on a southern declivity. Here, as also along the lower coasts of Portugal, regular winds prevail in summer, *viz.* in the morning the east wind, which toward noon veers to the southward, and then to the west; which confers many advantages on navigation. The soil though well cultivated is not productive; but oranges are brought from Braga and Barcelos, wine from the Upper Douro, and, in short, all those productions which bear the name of this town are not grown here and it though thence exported. The gardens round Oporto are beautiful and pleasant, and the plants of the Cape and of New Holland grow in the open air, with gooseberries, currants and other fruits of the colder countries of Europe which are not seen round Lisbon.

SECTION X.

Journey to Braga—Province of Entre-Douro-e-Minho.

CLOSE to Villanova do fameliçaõ six leagues from Oporto, behold one of the beautiful Minho-vallies in which that place is situated. Here small fields of maize, and even of rye and barley, but more rarely of wheat, are surrounded by high German oaks, chesnuts, and poplars, artificially watered by brooks, every tree supporting a vine which spreads over its crown, and not unfrequently reaches the summit of the high oaks; while a cool refreshing shade every where abounds, adorning a cultivated populous country, and every valley resembles a fairy-land inclosed between rocky desert mountains.

Minho is the most populous of all the provinces of Portugal. Within a space of eighteen leagues in length and eleven in breadth, it contains three cities, twenty-five villas, nine hundred thousand inhabitants, and two hundred and twenty-three thousand four hundred and ninety five houses. The whole province is a collection

of granite-mountains, the soil in the vallies being alone fertile, and the eminences bare granite-sand, but on the other hand extremely well watered, and therefore well cultivated. The industry of the inhabitants is every where apparent: they dig with great labour for water, so that a stranger would suppose the ground to be full of shafts of mines, and they divide the water they find with great care among the fields and meadows. Maize is chiefly cultivated, being hoed twice a year, first when four or five inches high, and afterwards when the ears are set. The vine yields a very bad wine resembling vinegar, the grapes that are shaded by the tops of the trees not having sufficient sun.

Except some rich monasteries, very few large estates are met with in this province; but hence the peasants thrive the better, which ought to convince every Portugueze, that under such an order of things alone an adequate population is practicable. Yet the increase of this industrious and chearful people is too great for their unfruitful soil, and a great number annually emigrate, some with an intention of finally settling elsewhere, and others to acquire property and return. These men help the farmers of other provinces in their harvest and other branches of husbandry, travelling about in considerable numbers under the command of a captain, and living in huts. In this manner the inhabitants even of the northern part of Beira round Aveiro, &c. emigrate

On quitting the valley of Villanova, we again crossed arid mountains covered with heath before we came to the valley of Braga. Here we saw to the northward the high range of mountains that divide Portugal from Galicia, called the Serra de Gerez, with its high pointed summits. The city of Braga is situated in a broad open vale, as the Minho-vallies generally are, and like them cultivated and shaded by trees. Here are many cork trees, and close to the town orange-gardens. The small rivers Cavado and Deste scarcely deserve the name, being mere brooks. Braga, the chief town of the province, is under the archbishop of that place, who enjoys a revenue of above a hundred thousand crusades; and appoints judges and two tribunals, the one spiritual, the other temporal; so that this is the only city where the king does not appoint a corregedor, or a juez de fora. Braga contains about thirteen thousand inhabitants, five parishes, and seven monasteries. Several of the streets are broad, light, and open, but most of the houses are small, as in all inland towns in Portugal*.

A league from Braga we came to a small village called Ponte do Porto, on account of a stone bridge there, over the Cavado. This valley is extremely pleasant and charming: the distance appears like a thick wood of high trees, though these trees surround fields and gardens. The houses, which are dispersed and embosomed in thick shade, are concealed from the sight; but the number of well-dressed persons, and even of young ladies, we frequently met, announced their vicinity. We passed over granite-mountains to the Bernhardine monastery of Bouro, at a distance of two leagues. It stands in a hollow at the foot of the mountains, is very rich, the buildings are extensive, and by no means ill-arranged. On a mountain not far from Bouro, is a church with a miraculous figure of the virgin, to which many pilgrimages are made. It is called Nossa Senhora de Abbadia (Bouro being an abbey), not Nossa Senhora da Badia, as it stands in the maps. According to our barometrical investigations Bouro is situated five hundred feet above the level of the sea, which is but a small height.

Beyond Bouro we ascended the spurs or forerunner-mountains of Gerez. As soon as we had, with great labour, climbed its rough sides, the road became uncommonly pleasant, leading along the declivity of high and rocky mountains, under a continual shade of oaks and chesnuts, with streams every where rushing down or spreading in artificial canals to water the meadows. On one side we had a deep valley, the steep de-

* Among the objects of curiosity here is the large old gothic-built cathedral with its antiquities and treasures; also the church and monastery of St. Fructuoso, containing a miraculous picture of the virgin, and rich in treasures and relics, stand on a hill without the town, so situated as to form a fine object, as seen from a broad handsome street. The origin of Braga is lost in remote antiquity; the Romans called it Augusta Bracharorum, and Roman coins are often found in the neighbourhood. Braga was a more considerable place in the fifteenth century than now. It has a hat-manufactory which supplies a great part of Portugal with hats for the common people; nor are the hats bad, though they do not equal the English. There is also a manufactory of knives which is inconsiderable. The women are every where seen knitting, sewing, or making linen, and signs of industry and activity every where appear.

clivity of which is converted with great industry into terraces, and extremely well cultivated.

From the declivity of this mountain we descended to a large village, called Villar de Veiga; and then followed the valley, which continues rising more and more. A roaring stream, called Rio das Caldas, pours down over rocks into the middle of the valley; the mountains become higher and steeper, and, after climbing them for a league, suddenly appears behind an eminence a small place in the same valley, consisting of forty houses, and celebrated for its warm baths, for which reason it is called Caldas de Gerez.

This valley is extremely narrow. To the eastward the houses lean against the mountain, a stream waters them to the west and also the foot of another mountain; to the northward the valley rises rapidly up the heights, and an eminence to the southward before it de[illegible] completely incloses this dell. The moun[illegible]s are very high, steep, and rocky, being chiefly destitute of wood; and trees are found exclusively on the banks of the river.

For some years past this spot has been more celebrated for its baths than formerly, and new houses are continually built; so that there will soon be no more room in this confined valley. The company come from the small towns of Minho, and many of the English from Oporto. As the surrounding country is very bleak, the inhabitants go in winter to Villar de Veiga, and return in May. The houses are of stone, but ill-built, having but one story, small inconvenient apartments, mostly without glass windows, and floors that can be seen through. The furniture consists of a rough wooden table and coarse chairs; every thing else, even to the smallest trifle, the company must bring. Nor must they expect either inhabitants or attendants; for in general an empty house is opened to the stranger, who is only put in possession of bare walls and of the tables and chairs above described. The place only affords young beef, or rather meat betwixt veal and beef, rice, oranges, sour wine of the country, sometimes Douro-wine which is better, and still more rarely fish. Sugar, spices, coffee, and every other necessary, must be procured from Villar de Veiga, which is a league distant, and even there not much is found. Even the apothecary lives at that place, and no watering-place-physician is to be here expected.

The warm waters of this place rise to the eastward from a wall of granite rock at the foot of a high mountain. There are four springs, each bearing a different name. The bathing season continues from June till August. In this narrow valley the air is often very hot, though from time to time it is considerably cooled by the mists of the mountains.

The Serra of Gerez, generally speaking, extends from east to west, but sends out many branches to the southward. The valley where Caldas lies also pursues the same direction, rising continually toward the north, but only to a certain degree, after which it again somewhat sinks toward the frontiers of Galicia, which are only three leagues from Caldas. It continually becomes narrower, more rocky, and more woody, till at length the traveller enters a thick shade of fine lofty oaks, while brooks murmur around, high abrupt walls of rock appear, the mountain becomes wilder, and at length assumes an appearance of sublimity. Near the Spanish frontiers, the river Homem intersects the valley obliquely and passes into another. Here are the ruins of a Roman bridge, with many remains of pillars here and there belonging to a Roman way. A narrow and difficult foot-path now leads by this singular spot into a foreign kingdom.

In a pass called Portela de Homem*, where the ridges of the mountains leave a considerable opening, are the Spanish frontiers. The view of Galicia is far less beautiful than that of Minho; the mountains are still high, the vallies wider and more open, but not so well cultivated; the traveller however scarcely yet perceives, he has entered another country, as he still hears the Portugueze language, and beholds Portugueze manners and customs.

The highest of the mountains of Gerez is to the eastward of Caldas toward the town of Montalegre. We climbed a very steep ascent up this mountain, which, however, was very easy, as the path winds round the blocks of granite, and thus is free from danger even to those who easily become giddy, excepting in one short space. But should the traveller lose the beaten path, which is very possible, he will either come to

* In the map of Lopez it is laid down at a distance from the frontiers of Galicia, instead of which it forms the boundary.

impassable thickets or extremely dangerous precipices. In the valley of Caldas the road rises toward Portela de Homem, by a convenient path leading to the heights, and a fine light oak-wood accompanies it three-fourths of the way up the ascent. The prospect to the westward is extensive, commanding a great part of Minho and the sea with the downs that skirt it; but the view is not distinct, as the eye cannot penetrate into the beautiful but narrow vallies, resting only on the barren heights. Toward the rest of the horizon the view is bounded by mountains. The farther we advanced to the eastward, the more rough and wild we found this range, and we met with vallies consisting almost entirely of naked impassable rocks. A sharp mountain-ridge here divides Spain from Portugal.

Wolves are here so numerous as to render this range of mountains dangerous; but the most remarkable animal is the Caucasan-goat, (*capra ægagrus* Pall.) which is extremely rare on other European mountains. We saw several skins of them; and at length a three-year old he-goat that had been shot, was brought to Caldas, where the count of Hoffmannsegg bought its skin, which was stuffed, and is preserved in his collection*.

A considerable quantity of cattle are fed among these mountains, the young bullocks being brought there in spring, and remaining till autumn. The neat-herds relieve one another from time to time. Draught-oxen are brought to the low pastures, when not employed in work, or at least every Sunday. The vallies, especially that of Caldas, are highly cultivated, and where it is practicable a little land has been gained from the mountains, so that between the rocks, in almost inaccessible places, fields of maize are frequently seen. The land on the declivities is often formed into terraces, and carefully watered, so as to constitute artificial meadows.

The mountains on the west side of Caldas are also very steep, but not so high. The path that leads directly from Caldas over the mountain to the village of Covide is very rugged. After passing the mountain toward this village, appear ruins probably of an old mountain-fort, which however the inhabitants assert to be the ruins of an old city, called *Chalcedonia;* but that is not probable.

Taking the road across this plain from Covide, to the frontiers of Galicia, we came to a large village called Villarinha do furno, close beyond which rises a range of rocky mountains, called Serra Amarella, which form the frontiers. Villarinha has many opulent inhabitants. Here we found much honey, which abounds on these mountains, as do milk and fresh butter, which are great rarities in Portugal. Oh that my weak voice could sufficiently praise the worthy people of the cottage, or house, where we lodged: their gratitude and good nature were beyond expression great. These are the people, whom many proud and ignorant travellers, and especially the English, have stigmatized and reproached! The common people in and about Caldas are richer than in many other parts of Portugal, and uncommonly gay and animated †.

* This animal is larger, stronger, and more muscular than the tame goat, particularly in the shoulders and parts near the heel. The forehead is higher, the horns rise straighter up and bend backwards, and the tail is not so long; the hair is shorter and thicker, being a mixture of grey and brown, and very similar to that of a stag. A black cross runs along the back and over the shoulders. The male as in tame-goats is furnished with a beard, and the female has no horns. We carefully took the measure of this animal, which in other respects fully coincides with the description of the writer on capra ægagrus. It is no where found in Portugal, except on the mountains of Gerez, nor have I ever learnt that it is found in Spain. Whether it be a degenerate and wild variety of the tame-goat, or the wild parent stock of the latter, cannot with certainty be discovered, but it is evidently different from it. The last of these hypotheses appears to me most probable. It is found not uncommonly from hence to Montalegre, is hunted in great numbers by the inhabitants, and its flesh is so much esteemed, that the hunter who willingly sold us the skin would not part with the carcass. The skins are here frequently used as covers for mules, and the horns are put up as ornaments in houses.

† At night the guitar was every where, though the performances are monotonous and rude. I here saw some dances accompanied by songs which I found in no other part of the peninsula, and which represented a kind of drama; as for instance, a conversation between a father and his son, who, in a mimetic dance, confesses he is in love, for which he is reproved by his father, whose forgiveness he at last obtains: or it consisted alternately of singing and mimetic dancing, till the procession had meanwhile moved through the village. The audience show their approbation by clapping their hands.

SECTION

SECTION XI.

Journey to Amarante—Serra de Marao—Peza de regua—Remarks on the national Dress—The Culture of the Vine.

FROM this range of mountains we returned to examine the second chief range of mountains in Portugal, Serra de Maraõ. We travelled directly southward through Villar de Veiga, where we saw uncommonly fine Minho-vallies along the river called Rio Caldo, and then through the village of Padrieros, Nossa senhora do Porto, a village containing a neat church and a miraculous picture of the virgin; to Fofe, a very large village, with many new-built and considerable houses, six leagues from Caldas. The vallies in this country are somewhat wider, and always excellently cultivated and well peopled. The ancient town of Guimaraens, which is not far distant, and the surrounding country, carry on some traffic in dried fruit, especially plums, which however are small and bad. Round Lixe the vallies become opener, but farther on the mountains are more naked and arid. This town which is well-peopled increases, and new houses are built; but the inhabitants are ill-spoken of. After passing Caldas the inns are good but dear. Before we came to Amarante, we had a view of this chain of mountains which run north-east and south-south-west, but appear far less pointed and grotesque at a distance than the mountains of Gerez. Hence the traveller already conceives it must consist of another species of stone than granite, which hitherto continues without ceasing.

Amarante is a considerable town or villa, four long leagues* from Fofe, situated on the Támega, which divides it from the suburb, and over which is a handsome stone bridge. This town belongs to the Corregimento of Guimaraens, but has only one juiz de fora. The town and suburb are said to contain above four thousand inhabitants. There are many neat houses, many noble families reside there, and the inhabitants praise the kind and friendly manners that prevail in the society of this place. The country is uncommonly pleasant.

Beyond Amarante we immediately ascended the spurs of the Serra de Maraõ, the summits of which are barren, but the vallies beautifully cultivated and enriched with shade. Here all is still granite. Beyond the village of Ovelha, we ascended the lofty Serra de Maraõ itself, and found the road steep, but not incommodious. The mountains are naked and destitute of trees or bushes, being only covered with an arid meagre turf, without projecting rocks or the brooks and clefts of Gerez, but on the contrary more rounded; in short these are quite a different kind of mountains from those, being also much inferior in natural beauties: the species of stone of which it is composed is also different. Beyond Ovelha, slaty granite is still seen, but is soon followed by black argillaceous slate, which is very coarsely slated and mingled with mica. On the summit it forms bare rocks, and loses its slaty fracture, so that it might be taken for trap. We there discovered in it a remarkable and hitherto unknown fossil which we called maranite. The prospect from the summit is extensive, but not remarkable. We saw a part of the adjacent province of Traz-os-montes, with its considerable high, but naked and arid chains of mountains. In height the Serra de Maraõ is not inferior to that of Gerez, but probably exceeds it. The snow frequently lies on the summit during a month.

We descended the south of the mountain, and came to a large village called Campean, on a small mountain-plain which lies considerably high. This village with its woods and fields forms a charming island amid these naked mountains. The soil is moist, for at a certain depth water springs in every part, the plain being almost entirely surrounded with considerable eminences. The small woods consist of chesnut, oak, and birch. We could almost imagine ourselves in the woods of Germany. The cold in winter is very severe, snow falls, and even the

* The leagues of Minho are much longer than in the other provinces, especially between Caldas and Fofe, where they may be reckoned fully equal to German miles.

mmer-nights are for a long time very bleak. From Amarante to Campean is reckoned a tance of only three leagues; but these leagues very long. From the last-mentioned place set off for Pezo da Regua. At first we met h fine chesnut hanging woods along the de-vities of the mountains; but afterwards about ague from Campean, at a small town called nta Martha, began hills covered with vines, d continued two leagues without interruption, far as Pezo, so that we almost imagined selves in the rich and hilly wine-country of ercy.

Pezo da Regua which is a market town (*con-lho*) celebrated as a depôt for port-wine, and lf producing some of the best quality, is situ-ed on the southern declivity of a hill close to the uro, which here forces its way between steep lls consisting of thin strata of argillaceous slate ged with mica. We beheld vine-covered hills, far as our eyes could reach, sometimes adorned th neat houses. The bed of the river is stony d the stream in summer is navigable only for all boats, though in winter ships of consider-le size can ascend it. The wine-trade renders s place very lively, though it is but small, ntaining only one thousand and forty inha-tants, and three hundred and fifteen houses. This town belongs to a tract of land on the nks of the Douro called Upper Douro (o alto uro) commencing to the eastward at Villa l, or more properly San Joaõ de Pesqueira, tending to the spot where the small river ixeira falls into the Douro, and comprehend-g a tract of somewhat above four geographical les in length, by three in breadth*.

The situation of Pezo is very favourable to e vine. The steep hills slope to the south-rd, and consist of a blackish slate, which by its great heat contributes not a little to the general warmth of these parts, the valley is very narrow, the lofty Maraõ defends it from the north wind, nor can the sea-breezes reach it. In short this spot is very favourable to warmth in summer†, as the neighbourhood of the snow-covered Maraõ is said to cause severe winters. The badness of the water renders this place unpleasant, and in the neighbourhood along the banks of the Douro are marshes caused by the inundations of the river in winter, which give rise to the agues that here prevail.

The culture of the vine is one of the most important means of support to the people of Portugal; for not only the wine from the banks of Upper Douro, that of Carcavelos near Lisbon, and that of St. Ubes are exported to foreign countries: but the other wines produced are either consumed in the country or shipped to the colonies. Portugal has by no means a proportionate variety to those of Spain, to which the wines of this country are also inferior in quality. In the commonest wine-houses in Spain are frequently found good and sometimes excellent wine; whereas in Portugal it is generally very bad. The Spanish wine has naturally a great deal of fire, a quality which is only communicated to that of Portugal by means of brandy.

The Portugueze are moderate wine-drinkers, and even at good tables are contented with bad, or at least very moderate wine; and if any thing more is brought it is port. Carcavelos is set on table together with Madeira, and as the latter may be had in Portugal of excellent quality, it often supersedes the use of the former. The wine of St Ubes is still more rarely drank.

Here, as every where else, hills and mountains are preferred for the culture of the vine, and at Pezo they are so steep that the earth is supported

* In 1781 the population amounted to forty-four thou-d six hundred and sixty, there being twelve thousand ht hundred and ninety-five houses and seventy-eight rishes. This is the tract of land that produces port-wine, annual produce of which is reckoned at ninety thousand ect.

† Here we had an opportunity to observe the effects of heat on human society. At noon (this was at the close July, 1798,) every thing appeared still and dead; at r the labouring classes begun to appear; and after sun-the principal inhabitants were seen abroad. The night s occupied by a constant tumult; the women lightly ssed sat in their balconies to take the air, while their beauty was enhanced by the darkness. The guitar was heard throughout the night accompanied by the elegiac, uniform, popular songs of the Portugueze, which continued till sun-rise. When these are heard at such a distance as not to distinguish the words, it is certainly far from pleasant to listen to their music. The first stanza indeed often surprises by its soft plaintive simple melody; but the hearer in vain desires variety; for the same notes are constantly repeated, and if the pipe of a beautiful woman excites some feeling, the screaming voices of the men totally overpower and destroy it; which is the more unpleasing, as the women are seldom heard, and the men constantly.

by little walls so as to convert the sides of the hills into terraces (*geios*). But the vine is also frequently cultivated on plains, where, if the soil is sandy they succeed very well. Shady vallies and plains or stiffer soil produce even here but moderate wine, and should never be so employed. The vine is commonly short, growing up poles, those in Minho alone excepted, where, as I have already said, they are planted beside trees, round the branches of which they twine. This renders the country charming, but produces wretched wine. In the quintas they form covered walks, but even there they do not yield such good wine as the shorter vines, however pleasant and beautiful these walks may appear. In the province of Tras-os-montes alone are the vines planted at a distance from each other, with corn sown between them; and on the south bank of the Tagus, at Lisbon, garden-vegetables are grown in the vine yards. It is also extremely common at the first establishment of a vineyard, to sow the land the first year with corn.

The number of varieties of the vine is as great in Portugal as in other countries, and their names are of Portugueze origin; but these names are various for the same variety in different parts of the country, while the same name is used in various places for different varieties. At Pezo, the best red wine is produced from a small red late grape, growing on a vine whose leaves are deeply indented and very rough. A great number of varieties are mingled together, as for instance at Camego, where sixty-seven varieties grow together; a method which certainly possesses some advantages, but also great disadvantages. The distance at which the vines are planted is very various.

One of the most important steps is to prune the vine. The high vines in Minho which produce the white wines, are only cut every other year and sometimes seldomer; whereas the others are cut every year; in cold situations in autumn, and in the warm in January and February. The manner of doing this is various, and depends much on the skill of the gardener. A short time before and after they are in bloom, or if they bear too many grapes, the superfluous branches are lopped off. In some parts the leaves are also taken off to expose the grapes to the sun.

In Upper Douro, the branches are carefully bound up to one or more stakes, which is done just before and after the buds come out; otherwise the branches are only twined round the stem, and fastened or tied to it.

Another very necessary annual labour is hoeing, partly to loosen the earth, and partly to destroy weeds. This is done in spring before the leaves come out, at which time the labourers are seen in crowds in the vineyards, and repeated a short time before the blossoms appear. During the first three years a furrow is dug round each vine in autumn, a short time before the fall of the leaf. This is done in order to cut the roots that afford sufficient moisture; for which reason, in cold moist places, the furrows are filled immediately, but in warmer situations much later.

In Upper Douro and other mountainous parts the vines are manured as soon as they are ten or twelve years old. Combustible materials, such as old faggot-wood, dry plants, &c. together with argillaceous earth, are spread, after which the whole heap is fired from below, and the ashes used as manure.

The vines are propagated by means of cuttings from the roots or by layers, which consists in laying a branch in a furrow, leaving out only two eyes. The young vines that arise from these are used for planting new vineyards. But this method is generally used only for supplying vacant places, new vineyards being planted with slips without roots, which, when cut off, are covered half with earth, and half with loose branches. These are planted from vintage-time to the end of January.

The vintage in Upper Douro commences when the grapes begin to shrivel. In these parts it is difficult and expensive to convey the grapes to the press, the whole district consisting of steep hills and narrow vallies. This process is performed by treading, and a great number of men are then employed at vintage-time, but the population of Upper Douro being insufficient, a great number of Gallegos come to assist them. To each vat are reckoned from eight to twenty pipes. The proper port-wine is left seventy-two hours standing on the hulls, if intended for exportation, but only four-and-twenty if for home consumption. In only six districts is white wine produced, which, however, is inferior to the former, but in some other parts of Douro, which properly produce no port wine, good white wine is made.

When the must is put into casks the strong

ndy is added, forming even in wine of the
t quality a twelfth part. There is no proper
t-wine free from it, nor is this addition by
means an adulteration of the wine-merchant,
ng originally added. Those who dislike this
ndied taste must drink the wine of the coun-
made for home consumption, which is often
y excellent, and might probably by a delicate
ate be preferred to all that is exported. It
tains at least a much smaller quantity of
ndy. The taste of the English, and their
dness for drinking to excess, is evidently the

I will here describe the port-wine trade from a paper
e 3d. vol. of the Memorias Economicas. It principally
rds the progress of the monopoly of the company of
per Douro, and in more than one point abounds with in-
sting information. I shall neither give an extract nor a
slation of this treatise, but shall only avail myself of the
s it contains.
n 1681 the Upper Douro was as yet but little cultivated,
very poor. At that time the English as well as other
ropean nations loved sweet wines, to which but few parts
his district are adapted. Lisbon then exported it in con-
erable quantities, nor did the exportation of port-wine
rease immediately after the treaty of Methuen in 1703.
soon the taste for red-wine began constantly to increase,
the English who now settled in the country in great
mbers encouraged the cultivation of the vine in order to
e wine cheaper; which succeeded so well, that from
o to 1735, a pipe of the best wine was sold for only ten
reas. At this even the members of the English factory
e discontented, and fearing so cheap a price might injure
e trade held a meeting; but a shrewd merchant, named
art, prevented any increase of price, and persuaded
m rather to direct their attention to a Spanish merchant,
tolomeo Pancorvo, and put him down. Pancorvo being
cheming man, determined to open a direct trade with
er northern ports, and therefore offered a higher price;
his money failing, he could not go through with his
culation, and became a bankrupt. The English then
lterated the wine terribly, mixing it with the sour wines
Beira and Minho, coloured it, and in short at length de-
red its reputation.
n 1756, the company of Upper Douro was established
an order of the cabinet, which still continues in force,
has produced much good to the country, though its re-
ations and conduct are faulty. It consists of a provedor
hief inspector, twelve deputies, six counsellors, and a
cretary. These nominate a kind of tribunal, consisting of
disembargador juiz conservador, a disembargador fiscal,
their subordinate attendants, a notary, a meirinhox, a
keiros, feitores, administradores, &c. an intricate and
plex constitution, which annually costs a hundred thou-
d crusades. This company depends immediately on the
g, and is not under the jurisdiction of any other tribunal;
which reason they ventured on many arbitrary acts.
ey were resolved to keep up the reputation of the wine,
that the price should be fixed. Their funds at first
isted of one million two hundred thousand crusades,

cause of adding so great a quantity of very strong brandy: but now almost all Portugueze wines have at least some brandy added before they ferment. It is said to be impossible to preserve the wine without this addition; which may indeed be true, as there are no wine cellars in Portugal, the wine being kept in warehouses above ground, where it is left to ferment.

The wines grown here are as soon as possible sent to Oporto, where they remain in the magazine three years before they are exported*.

SECTION

which, however, were not destined merely for the purchase of wine, but to make loans to the peasants at three per cent. These however have very seldom taken place, evasions having also been used to avoid them.

The company have not indeed a complete monopoly of the wine of Upper Douro. The members are bound to take wine from each grower at a fixed price. But if the grower prefers selling and transporting his wine elsewhere into the country he may. This however must be done through the intervention of the company, who receive six per cent. It is evident these regulations necessarily give them a very considerable monopoly; but the restraint went still farther: a list was made of the produce of each vineyard for the last preceding five years, and no one was permitted to sell a larger quantity, either to the company or to any one else. Thus all increase of this species of agriculture is entirely stopped, and what is still worse, the company employ various evasions not to take all the wine grown, nor at the prices fixed.

The district of Upper Douro was divided into such parts as were to produce factory or export wine, and wine for home consumption. The division itself is not properly made; for there are districts which bear bad export wine, and others, where a wine is produced, which far excels most of the wines destined for exportation. The port wine for home consumption, which we drank in good houses, was so excellent, that I at first thought this was the name of the best port wine, and was much astonished when I learnt the contrary, and tasted the common bad home consumption wine. Every possible precaution is now taken to prevent the adulteration of the export-wines with the other wines. It was at first prohibited to send out of their districts the grapes for the export-wine, under penalty, which disabled the poor farmers, who could not now carry their grapes to the press, from selling any factory-wine. But even this did not prevent frauds of this kind, which were often contrived with great art.

The care the company bestowed on the goodness of the wine, went too far. In 1557 manuring with dung was prohibited, because it tended to produce a large quantity, but of bad quality. Orders were also given to cut down every elder tree within five leagues round Upper Douro, to prevent colouring the wine with their berries. In 1771 this order was extended to the provinces of Beira, Tras-os-montes, and Minho; but no attention was paid to the phytolacca decandria, (Pokeweed or American night shade), which is grown in large quantities in Beira for colouring wine,

SECTION XII.

Journey to Estrella—Description of that Range of Mountains—Return from the Serra de Estr... to Lisbon—Portugueze Justice.

THE summer was already far advanced, the heat which was very great threatened soon to make the fields naked and dry, and we were obliged to hasten toward the Serra de Estrella, the highest range of mountains in Portugal. We therefore crossed the Douro by a ferry at Pezo Regua, and on the other side immediately climbed the heights of the mountain. We continued rising as far as Lamego, an old city on the small river Balsamaõ. This is a considerable place containing about five thousand inhabitants, and appears quite opulent. It consists of two parishes, has four monasteries, and is the seat of a bishop and a corregedor. Lamego is celebrated in history for the constitution which bears its name and forms the basis of the monarchy. It is asserted that the Lacobriga of Strabo was situated near it. The land lies very high, and near the town is barren, but considerable eminences surround it. This adds to the charms of the declivity of the mountain toward the Douro, which is one of the finest vine-mountains, ... produces excellent wine, of which the inha... tants of the town make their principal bevera... In some parts the road is excellent, and plan... with trees. The slate of the Douro ceases on ... heights round the town; after this all is gran... which is not without metallic veins, and on ... eminences near the town brings with it plumba...

In these parts we met with the elm-lea... sumach-tree, both wild and cultivated, of wh... probably the former had run wild. It is cu... vated here and there in Traz-os-montes, and e... cially in Upper Douro. Its cultivation requ... but little care, and it is very easily increas... Its young rough branches are used for tanni... fine leather, and near nine hundred thous... pounds weight are annually exported fr... Oporto to England and the northern ports.

Beyond Lamego to the southward, we clim... still farther up this high range of mounta... which here accompanies the Douro, but se...

wine, as I myself have often seen. At length in 1773 orders were given to root up every vine that bore white grapes and replace them with red, because the former give more, but worse wine. This measure was altogether prejudicial; for the difference between the prices of good and bad wine being very trifling, little attention was paid to the choice of the cuttings, those which gave a greater quantity being preferred to the better varieties. The wine-growers also suffered by it considerably, a new-planted stock not bearing its proportion of fruit till five years old. The company itself falsify the wine, since they export as much factory-wine as they receive, though it loses a ninth part of its quantity in the warehouses, where it is kept.

The company have the monopoly of all the factory-wine exported to foreign parts, but is almost entirely sent to England. In 1780, the wise plan was first put in force, of freighting ships loaded with port-wine directly to Petersburg. This has been repeated from time to time, but the number is still insignificant. Portugal might certainly find a considerable market for her wines in all the northern states, and men would soon drink larger quantities of that excellent wine, which so far excels the common sour French wine, were it not spoiled by that quantity of brandy, which none but the English can like. Perhaps, however it was this brandied Pottugueze wine which first corrupted the taste of the English, who were almost entirely confined to this kind of wine. Six per cent for commission and shipping, and ixteen per cent profit are allowed this company.

The company have farther possessed, from their ... erection, the monopoly of wine in the town of Oporto ... and the country three leagues round it, which distance ... extended in 1760 to four leagues, in order as was given ... to prevent all adulteration of wine. This at first exc... a tumult, which was suppressed by force, and the ... leaders of which were severely punished. The comp... still possess the village, and every tavern bears the w... *Companhia do alto Douro.*

At length, in 1772, the company acquired the prin... of exclusively furnishing with wine the taverns in the ... tricts of Pezo da Regua, Penaguiao, Mezao-frio, Barque... Teixeiras, Tourues, and Sabroso de Folhadella, like... under a pretext of preventing adulteration; whereas ... evident, that the real object was to increase the prin... of the company.

Such is the history of an institution in which the s... of the founder Pombal very clearly prevails. His exer... to benefit the country are every where apparent, but e... where the measures he adopted were precipitate and desp... Absolute governments generally run from one extrem... the other. Some expedient was necessary to improv... wine-trade of Portugal, or at least partly to wrest it ... the hands of foreigners, which the erection of the com... of Upper Douro has undoubtedly done; but was it t... fore necessary to exceed the proper bounds of coercion ... so despotic a hand?

th branches to the southward. As it has no row deep vallies, and the declivities are not y steep, a man of slight observation might imate the height of the mountain at much less an the truth. The soil is naked, being only vered with grass or short heath, and somewhat cky. In the vallies we also found oaks and esnut-trees, though not in great quantities e is particularly cultivated here, which is a n of a mountainous bad soil and a cold cli- te; it had already been harvested in the begin- g of August. The villages between Lamego d Crasto, which is four miles farther, are ex- emely miserable, and the peasants appear very or. Crasto is a large nunnery, with a small rket-town, which lies somewhat lower.

From Crasto to Viseu the country becomes nstantly lower and more cheerful. Near asto we passed the Vouga, which flows from nce to San Pedro de Sul (where are some cele- ted and much-frequented warm baths) and length forms the harbour of Aveiro. We sed through chesnut woods and over moun- ns covered with high heath to a large village lled Calde, where the country is better culti- ted and the peasants appear opulent.

The mountains now grew quite flat, and at gh formed a plain, on which is the city of seu; but though every thing here appeared , we perceived we were on a considerable ght, compared with the coast and level of the . To the south-east the Serra de Estrella ap- ared very distinctly. Viseu is nine leagues m Lamego, being a considerable place, and ntaining nine hundred houses, three parishes, d three religious houses; but consists of nar- dirty streets, and mostly bad houses. It is ry old city, and historians are very uncertain its origin: but a city stood here in the time of cient Rome, as appears by some remains of man antiquity, especially two old towers. At sent it is the see of a bishop and corregedor; t it is principally celebrated on account of the y great Portugueze fair, which is here an- ally held*. The plains round Viseu are adorn- ed with small chesnut and oak-woods, but also present many heaths. The soil is granite sand.

Not far from Viseu begin the fore-runners of the Serra de Estrella. We passed over low mountains and through pine-woods to Mengualde, a large village two leagues from Viseu. The higher we ascended, the more lively, more cultivated and pleasanter the country appeared. The village of Mengualde surprized us by the number of new-built neat houses, of which we soon perceived the cause: for we came exactly at the time of an annual fair which is very considerable, and at which a great traffic, particularly in cattle, is carried on. The roads are full of passengers, by which this otherwise populous country was rendered still more gay and lively. This cheerful appearance of the country continued as far as Coutances, another village; after which we climbed rough mountains, down which flows the Mondego, till at length, at the village of Penhanços, two leagues from Mengualde, we descended to the fine plain which skirts the mountains on this side.

This plain is one of the pleasantest spots in Portugal. It is properly a wide flat valley, inclosed on one side by the forerunners of Estrella, and on the other by that range itself, which on this side appears a high, but gently declining and naked mountain; its forerunners lose themselves in hills. The plain is extremely well cultivated, containing fields of maize and rye, vineyards, and small woods of pine and chesnut-trees. A number of villages also surround it, which, like all the villages after passing Mengualde, were adorned with very neat houses and orchards. The fruit of this Serra is also the best and most celebrated in the kingdom. We were much struck with the beauty of this country, of which we had never read, and had heard but little. On the first plain of this serra, a league from Penhanços, is a very small town (or villa) called Cea, where many persons of easy fortune reside, as is the case in many small places in Portugal. At the extremity of this place, near the declivity toward the plain, on an open and beau-

* This fair which is mentioned in no book of geography or statistical work, is certainly of importance, since proprietors of estates at considerable distances, frequently very far from the middle of Portugal, here provide themselves with objects of luxury. Many jewels are also here bought and sold; and the merchants from the middle of the country, who are nearer to Viseu than to any sea-port, take their merchandize from thence. As we were travelling near Thomar, at a considerable distance from Viseu, we met with many loaded carts going to this fair, but as soon as it is over Viseu is again a very dead place.

tiful spot, is the fine house, or rather castle, of Dom Luis Bernardo Pinto de Mendoça, the windows of which command a fine and extensive prospect. Here the spectator looks down on the charming plain that surrounds Cea, and beyond the forerunners of the Serra discovers the plain of Viseu, which city he distinctly sees, as also the mountain-chain of Val de Besteiros, which rise in front, while to the left he perceives the Serra de Bussaco, and the country of Coimbra.

From Cea, we immediately climbed up to the first plain of the Serra de Estrella. These mountains are covered with pines toward their base, but soon become very bare, and nothing is seen but a short grass then entirely parched up. When we had passed this first plain, we came to a valley, in which is the village of Sabugueiro, undoubtedly the best place to stop at in order to examine the range of mountains. The inhabitants of Estrella are not in this country reputed polite; which in comparison with the rest of the nation is perhaps true. A mountain stream, the Rio de Alva, flows near the village through a valley, which in many parts is extremely deep and rocky. A part of the mountain around has a gentle declivity, which is covered with grass.

The Serra de Estrella, which is the Mons Herminius of the ancients, is indisputably the most extensive and highest range of mountains in Portugal; for in winter it is covered with snow frequently during four months and longer, and rises from a mountain plain which itself is considerably high; it lies north-east and south-west. The northern part is lower, the mountains rising there gently and being less rocky, for which reason it is called *Serra Mansa*, the gentle mountains; but the southern parts which is the highest, and in many parts very steep and rocky, is called *Serra Brava*, the wild mountains. Here all is granite without exception. Although many large and small rivers take their rise in these mountains, as for instance the Mondego, the Vouga, the Zezere, yet it does not give rise to those innumerable brooks, which render the mountains of Gerez so charming. There are many populous small towns on this range of mountains, of which the principal are Covilhaõ and Momteigas. Below much rye and fruit are grown, but the upper part of the mountain consists of pasture, especially for sheep, which range about like those of Spain, descending in September to the plains of Alemtejo, and returning hither in May. Their wool which is excellent and next to that of Spain, the best in Europe, is exported to England in large quantities. In the villages round the Serra de Estrella an excellent sheep-cheese is made, which is sent allover the country; but is every where very scarce. The royal family annually send some as a rarity to the court of Spain, and it greatly excels the sheep-cheese of Alemtejo. At Covilhaõ are woollen manufactories in a thriving state, but the Portugueze cloth is bad, thick, and heavy, for which reason the rich constantly wear that from England.

To go from Sabugueiro to the highest summit of the mountain, we first asscended a declivity not very steep, where the road is easy, and winds between cisti, heaths, and rocks. We now arrived at the ridge of the mountain, where the underwood changed to a fine grass, and we pursued with great ease our road, which rose slowly to the southward together with the mountain. High masses of rock soon began to appear among which we suddenly perceived the first lake, called Lagoa Redonda, or the Round Lake. These lakes, so near the summit, give great charms to the mountains. The Lagoa Redonda is the smallest of them, but its completely round form, the high rocks that surround it at a small distance, and the clear transparency of its water render it extremely pleasant. Still pursuing the ridge of the mountains, which is very pleasant, we sometimes discovered a group of trees adorned with rare and beautiful hanging plants, sometimes a large plain or soft declivity covered with sheep, sometimes the juniper-tree, and sometimes beautiful flowers springing up from the soft green sward. The broad ridge of the mountain now suddenly grew narrow, on the east side appeared a deep and steep valley, to which a path led, dangerous to those who are subject to be giddy, and near it a stupendous mass of rocks broken on the sides, and only connected with the ridge of the mountain, by a narrow tongue of land. This highly striking and uncommonly fine mass has received the significant name of *Cantharus*, the pitcher; because water streams down every where between the rocks.

At length the ridge of the mountain leads to the highest summit, called Malhaõ de ferro,*

e but gently arched plain of so great extent,
the spectator does not at all observe the
h rocky sides that surround the mountain
y where excepting to the north-east. Here
found the remains of a pyramid erected by
geographers sent round the country by the
ernment to construct a map of Portugal.
inhabitants of Estrella had destroyed it im-
diately after its erection, and the first anxious
iry of every one we met on the mountain
to ask what was its object. The prospect
n this eminence is uncommonly extensive, in-
ding almost the whole province of Beira and
remadura, and to the east are distinctly seen
Spanish mountains called Sierra de Gata, not
rior perhaps in height to that of Estrella.

urning from the summit, and leaving the
tharus to the right and to the east, we passed
rough rocks to the beautiful Lagoa Escura
ark lake, which is so enclosed between high
rocks, that we could not pass round it.
s lake is deep and cold, and the water receives
rk shade from the reflection of the rocks
of the sky. From this lake we passed, by
extremely difficult road, over fractured
ses of rocks heaped upon each other to the
l or great lake, called Lagoa Longa*, or
prida. It is, however, the least beautiful
gh very long, occupying the middle of a
y of considerable length. It is of unequal
dth, often very narrow, and has marshy
ks. Hence it is the least striking, especially
it is situated in rather a broad valley. The
le of the south-west declivity of this range
ountains is very rough, wild, and composed
igh heaped-up rocks, which render it diffi-
to ascend; nor does it begin to be easier
less rocky till farther on toward Sabugueiro
the northern part of the serra.

estimate the elevation of this mountain at
to six thousand feet above the level of the
and even that perhaps exceeds the fact.
the mountains of Spain and Portugal de-
e the eye extremely through their broken
and wild appearance, which give them an
ne character.

he Serra de Estrella is a branch of the high
e of mountains that divide the two Castiles,
forms the Guadarrama, the Sierra del Pico,
and the Sierra de Gata. This chain of mountains itself sends out branches to Coimbra and Lousaõ, which then indeed only run off in great mountain-plains as far as Cabo de Roca. It lies in the direction of most of the ranges of mountains of this peninsula, from N E to S W.

From Sabugueiro we descended to a market-town, called San Ramaõ, at the foot of the Serra de Estrella, and a league both from Cea and Sabugueiro. At first we found corn-fields, then young plantations of oaks, and near San Romaõ a well cutivated soil, and which are very rare in Portugal, potatoe-fields: in many parts water had been dug for with great labour. But when we left the mountain, appeared a dry and little cultivated hilly country covered with heaths. A long league from San Romaõ is a small village, called Caragoça, in which is an inn Here the serra presents its highest, wildest, steepest side, and its majestic appearance seems to place it in the class of Alpine mountains.

A fine road continues to Ponte de Murcella, which is said to form a part of the great Spanish road through Coimbra and Almeida. This road, however, obliged us to make a great circuit toward the west, as far as the neighbourhood of Coimbra, to get to Thomar.

We passed arid hills of granite-sand, meanwhile the villages were large, and the soil round them well cultivated; to the left stretched out the continuations of the Serra de Estrella, and at first the Serra de Goes which is considerably high.

From Caragoça to a large village called Gallizes is a distance of two leagues, thence to Venda do Vallo, a miserable inn, two leagues, to the village of Moite one league, to the village of Sovereira Formosa one league, and a league more to Ponte de Murcella, at which place we were but four leagues from Coimbra.

At Venda do Vallo the granite ceases, changing to a sandstone slate, containing veins of quartz and iron-ore. Not far from hence, at Arganil, the bishop of Coimbra has caused plumbago to be dug for.

The inns on this road are in part good. At Ponte de Murcella, a village consisting of only a few houses on the Rio de Alva, is an excellent inn. As soon as we had passed the Alva over a large bridge, we crossed the range of mountains

* So the inhabitants call it though this word is not Portugueze, in which language *comprida* signifies long.

that

that goes from the Serra de Estrella to Coimbra, called Serra de Açor, or hawk-mountain, which is moderately high, and consists of sand-stone. The valley between this first and second chain that follows is very well cultivated, and contains many villages, as Poveres, Ponte-velha, and one particularly large called Foz de Arouce. Here Guinea-corn is cultivated. Arid sand-mountains again close this pleasant tract of country to the southward. Beyond the village of Corvo, the mountains approach and crowd together from all sides, and close before the market-town of Espinhal considerable limestone mountains arise. To the right the high Lousaõ appears in sight, forming the highest range of limestone mountains in Portugal. These mountains supply Lisbon with ice, which is there preserved in ice-houses. We now again entered the province of Estremadura.

From Ponte de Murcella to Espinhal is a distance of six leagues. As far as Venda dos Moinhos the road runs along a valley between high mountains, and at Venda da Maria, two leagues from Espinhal, the vallies open, the hills become lower, and are alternated with limestone and sandstone. We passed through a market-town called Cabaços, four leagues from Espinhal, and four leagues from Thomar, in a pleasant country.

This town is situated on a plain which is almost every where enclosed by hills on the river Nabaõ.

Here the hills again consist partly of sand-stone and partly of lime-stone. The plain is almost entirely covered with olive trees, which give it at a distance a monotonous appearance, though on a nearer approach it is much enlivened by the gardens on the banks of the river. On the whole, however, the country is very arid. Thomar was formerly more considerable, but now consists of two parishes, contains four monasteries, and the number of inhabitants is said to be from four to five thousand. It is the seat of a corregedor. The streets are tolerably regular, well paved, and have a gay and cheerful appearance, but most of the houses are small. On the hills is a remarkable edifice, the chief monastery of the order of Christ. Here we see many vestiges of a high antiquity extending beyond the time of Dom Manoel. In this edifice several tribunals are held, and the prelate is always the head of the order of Christ, and a member of the council of state*.

The road to Santarem leads at first over an uncultivated sand hill; we then came to an extremely well-cultivated and extensive plain shaded with olive trees, which accompanied the Tagus for a considerable distance, and afforded a rich prospect, which, after having long seen nothing but hills and mountains, was uncommonly pleasing. The soil of this plain is very fertile, consisting of a fat mould mixed with sand, and therefore light; hence it is hoed with hoes which have a moveable mould-board and no point, but an iron edge two inches broad. On this plain is a market-town, called Golegam, which appeared very flourishing, and where we observed a number of new-built houses. Very low hills, somewhat interrupt the plain at Ponte de Almonda, but it soon began again still more beautiful than before. Here it is almost entirely covered with vineyards enclosed within tall black poplars, and we already discovered, at a considerable distance, Santarem situated on a mountain between olive trees and summer-houses. The wine grown here is sent to Lisbon in great quantities.

The city of Santarem, which is eight leagues from Thomar, is divided into the upper and lower town, the former being situated on a mountain, the latter on the banks of the Tagus. Most of the rich, the corregedor, the judges reside in the former, the low town being reckoned unwholsome, and accordingly consists of small houses. The upper town still presents here and there some remains of walls, and has an old citadel. The population amounts to about eight thousand†.

The Tagus was here so shallow, that we could without inconvenience wade through it in many

* The order of Christ was established in 1310 by Dom Diniz after the suppression of the order of knights templars, whose estates they received. It possesses no less than twenty-one towns and villages and four hundred and fifty-four commanderies. The king and the queen are constant grand-masters, an office to which a revenue of forty thousand crusades is attached.

† Of its former greatness and brilliancy, its division into thirteen parishes, and its containing fourteen religious houses are proofs, and it is well-known that since 1417 it has diminished. It then held the 5th place on the first bench of the cortes, many assemblies of which have been held there.

's, but in winter the contrary prevails; and, great number of sand-banks interrupt its rse, it does much mischief. Hence there is navigation on it, and the tide extends only up Alhalade, which is a league farther down, where goods going to and fro from Lisbon usually loaded and unloaded. All the hills e consist of ratchil, of quartz, sandstone, &c. cannot but here relate an incident which hapd to us because it gives an idea of the adnistration of justice in Portugal. At Thomar count of Hoffmannsegg wished to embark Lisbon. In this plan I found no attractions, proposed to accompany a young Spaniard, count's secretary, and the servants, by land. t here we met with a difficulty; for we had y one passport, in which the count and myself e mentioned, together with his suite*. We refore went to the corregedor's, but he being ent had entrusted his business to another per-, who made no objection, saying the count ght proceed with the portaria, to which he adl a declaration why the count travelled alone l without attendants, giving us at the same e a passport, in which he stated that he had pected the portaria, of which he briefly added contents. With this passport we went to tarem, where two officers of justice, (*escrivaos*) immediately appeared, a class of men who roughout the country bear a very bad characand demanded our passports. They refused declaration of the corregedor of Thomar, as ry foreigner ought to have a pass from the inldant or a secretary of state. Both these men nt to and fro, spoke secretly together, then me back to us, and, in short, I observed they nted some money, which however I feared to e them, lest I should thereby render myself pected. At length they examined our pock-, and unfortunately found in mine a pointed ife, which being prohibited in Portugal, they reatened me with imprisonment. All this, wever, was not serious; they suffered us to eat r supper in peace, and did not come till ten lock to fetch us to the juiz de fora. This genman, having a large company with him, suffered us to wait a long time in his antichamber, whither he at length came, merely heard the escrivaos, who said. "Here are foreigners who have no regular passport," and laconically replied, "To prison." I requested him to read our papers, but he replied, "My orders are given—to prison." Thither the young Spaniard and myself were taken amidst the sport of the escrivaos, but no one troubled himself about our servants and baggage. At first we were put into a decent room: but the escrivaos spoke a few words softly to the jailer, who then obliged us to go down some steps into another chamber. This was a shocking place; a horrid stench attacked us, for the privy was situated there, and I soon perceived with horror, that we were in the same room with criminals. Even now when I reflect on this wretched moment, I can scarcely restrain my feelings; and it particularly vexed me to be told, that it was contrary to good manners to wear my hat. At length I sent to the jailer to know if we could have another room by paying for it. This was all that was wanted; and we were now shown into a good room, our servants were permitted to attend us, and the jailer allowed us to go into his apartment. I was also permitted to send messengers to Thomar and Lisbon.

At first people seemed disposed to let us remain in prison. Among the prisoners were a number of Spanish merchants, who had remained there several weeks from the same cause as ourselves, and had only been once examined since their first imprisonment. A poor Italian, who was ill, chiefly attracted my pity. He had been brought here because his passport did not agree with the last orders, his money was spent, the poor man was forgotten, and saw no means of liberation. A son of a citizen of Santarem said to us, with a dejected countenance. "You are fortunate, for you know the cause of your imprisonment, which I do not of mine; and I shall, perhaps, be sent for a soldier."

Meanwhile we soon procured our liberty. I asked the young Spaniard to draw up a petition in Spanish, as I thought he would express himself better in that language: I then translated it into

* It was not a mere passport, but a portaria, or order in the queen, signed by a secretary of state, to all magistrates and officers, to aid us in all things relative to our tours and researches into natural history, which was particularly specified. Such a portaria is in that country much more comprehensive than a mere passport; and the judges were bound in case of need to provide for our lodging and conveyance.

† Notaries.

into Portugueze, and asked a notary, who was one of the prisoners, to instruct me in the proper form. With this we applied to the juiz de fora, who referred us to the corregedor, and the latter demanded information of the two escrivaos who had taken us prisoners. The jailer now came to us, saying that the two escrivaos were very poor, that an unfavourable report from them would at least lengthen the affair, and, making the worst of the pointed knife, advised me to give them money. We therefore purchased a favourable report with a couple of crusades, upon which the corregedor liberated us; so that we remained only about eighteen hours in prison.

We had already met an incident which may also afford some insight into the administration of justice in this country. We arrived one morning at Cezimbra, where a notary appeared as usual, read the portaria, and took leave of us very politely Toward evening the count and myself on our return from a walk to Calheriz, had separated a little way from the town, the better to examine the country, as we could not here loose our way; but the count had scarcely entered the town when some officers of justice met him, and demanded his passport. He assured them he had it at the inn, whither they might conduct him and see it; but all he could say availed nothing, and he was taken to prison; where indeed he was placed in a decent apartment, but exposed to the curiosity of a multitude of spectators. Here he was examined even to his shirt, and two pistols being found in his girdle, he was declared a very suspicious person, though the portaria permitted him to carry all kinds of arms; nor till he was thrown into prison was a message dispatched to me to send the portaria. I did so, not doubting the count would immediately return; but with the utmost astonishment I heard the answer of the alcalde, that the juiz de fora being absent he could not decide upon this affair. Fortunately we had spoken with the juiz de fora, who was a good kind of man, at Calheriz, whither a servant was sent in the night with the portaria. Meanwhile I was informed, that if the servant did not return next morning, I must also go to prison. He returned at three o'clock, and brought positive orders immediate to liberate the count; but the officers of justi would not suffer him to go without paying th their fees, which the count gave them, declari he despised these men too much to trouble hi self any further about them. The alcalde wo also have kept the pistols, till the count declar that he would immediately send a messenger Lisbon with an account of the whole transactio

The road from Santarem to Lisbon passes first between the river and hills, which latter soon ascends; these are very sandy, and, bei covered with heath and pine-woods, form striking contrast to the charming banks of t river. On these hills is Cortacha, two le leagues from Santarem, a very large village market-town, with many new and neat hous situated, notwithstanding the badness of thes in a well cultivated country. The sandy hea hills terminate toward Azambuja, a small to containing from seven to eight hundred hous on a fine and well cultivated plain on the ba of the river. Two leagues farther, still pursui the river-bank, we came to a market-town cal Castanheiro, where is a good inn. Here we s nothing but corn-fields, olive-trees and garde Only half a league farther is Villafranca co taining about eight hundred houses, and si ated on the river, where it forms a considera landing place. Half a league beyond Villafran is Alhandra, containing four or five hundr houses. Here we left the river for a while, a ascended cultivated hills covered with oli trees, to Alveroa, consisting of about four hu dred houses situated two leagues from Lisb From hence we followed the river to Povos, small market-town containing two hundr houses At the parts where the river overflo its banks much salt is made. At the village Saccarem we passed a small river that falls in the Tagus on a bridge of boats. From t place we were accompanied by a continual su cession of walls of quintas with houses int spersed to Lisbon, where the traveller may p through several streets without knowing he in the capital. I do not know a city whose v cinity is announced at so great a distance.

* These examples shew how much precaution is necessary to protect a traveller from Portuguese justice; and that the alcaldes and escrivaos are a class of men among whom are many rogues. They are indeed generally complained and the juizes and the corregedors are every where acc of great partiality to persons of rank.

SECTIO

SECTION XIII.

urney to Algrave—Road through the Province of Alemtejo—Serra de Monchique—Cape St. Vincent's—Lagos—Villanova—Loule—Preparation of Thread from Albes.

N the beginning of September 1798 we return-
ed from the above extensive excursion through
e northren provinces to Lisbon, where we con-
ued till the beginning of February 1799.
e then set forward again, crossing the river to
outa, from which place, to Agua de Moura,
extremely wretched village, we passed over
ntinual heaths, and during the whole distance,
ich is five leagues, only saw one single house.
ua de Moura is situated on a brook, which
wever supplies the means of some cultivation.
e country now becomes more hilly, as far as
lma, two leagues from this place, and we saw
umber of cork-trees; more indeed than I re-
mber to have seen in any other part of Por-
gal.

Palma is a considerable estate of the Conde de
idos, who resides there some months in the
ar. The house is indifferent, nearly resembling
dwellings of the possessors of estates in Meck-
burg. The conde has another building near
house, in which are rooms and beds for tra-
llers of decent appearance, whom he receives
one night, the inns being at a great distance
m this place. The possessions of the conde are
oductive, and must be extensive, as they enable
proprietor to keep large herds of cattle on the
ths. Round the conde's residence are some
asants' houses, but rural economy seems in a
y backward state here, for neither the use of
g nor plants for fodder are known.

From Palma we passed over sand-hills covered
h heath and cork-trees to Val de Reis, a large
t very old and ruinous gothic-built house of
conde de Val Reis, with a small village.
e valley was cultivated like that of Palma.
From hence the road passes over heath-hills to the river of Porta de Lama, the banks of which are likewise cultivated. Then follow hills of granite-breccia, with traces of sand slate, instead of mere sand. Beyond these hills follows another valley watered by the Xarama, which here unites with the Sadaõ, and forms the navigable river Sado. In this valley is the village of Porto del Rey, near which is a very bad inn, where all travellers are usually obliged to sleep in one room. We travelled constantly through wastes covered with heath and cisti; only on high and dry situations appear the wild olive-tree, the kermes-oak (quercus coccifera), and the cistus Monspeliensis, which last begins in this place to be very common. Through the valleys, almost all of which lie east and west, a river generally flows, the banks of which are cultivated. All these rivers take their rise in Upper Alemtejo and fall into the Sado. In winter they swell astonishingly; we still saw the traces of their ravages, and of their fertilization, and found it difficult to pass some of them, as we met with very few bridges. They frequently render travelling in these parts wholly impracticable in winter. Messejana is a market-town, which still has its old walls like some places in Spain, especially in old Castile. The level of the country here rises, and is covered with corn fields, which continue to Pomoyas, a market-town a league farther. Here we came to the celebrated field of battle called Campo de Ourique*, a hilly and ill-cultivated country.

Leaving the town of Ourique to our left, we entered on a road that leads to Garvaõ, a village situated in a very pleasant valley. The moun-

* The battle of Ourique was the commencement of the Portuguese monarchy. Portugal, as far as it had then been conquered from the Moors, had been conferred on Conde Henrique, in consequence of his marriage with Teresa, daughter of the king of Castile. His son Dom Affonso Henriquez (or the son of Henrique), carried on war successively against his mother, the Castilians, and the Moors, and, on the 25th of July 1139, here gained a victory with two thousand men over five Moorish kings, who according to history were at the head of an army of two hundred thousand men. He now retained the title of king, which he had assumed before the battle, and called himself Dom Affonso the first. He was proclaimed king on the field of battle; but the real dignity and constitution were not settled till about six years after at Lamego, where an assembly of prelates, nobility, and commons was called by the king for that purpose, and the independence of Portugal on Spain confirmed.

tains

tains rise from thence to Amoreiras and San Martinho, two small villages, (though laid down in the maps as one,) on the declivity of a rather high chain of mountains, lying E. and W. before Serra de Monchique. We also saw round Martinho some very well-cultivated spots, and even fields sown with flax. On the summit of these mountains, we beheld the whole range of Serra de Monchique before us in its direction from E. to W. being considerably high, but not so full of peaks as the mountains of Cintra and Gerez. The indented ridge of these mountains divides Algarvia from Alemtejo.

A large but ill-cultivated valley follows the mountains of San Martinho. At length we continued our way between low hills, after which we climbed the spurs of the Serra de Monchique. This range consists of mountains thickly crowded together with short interruptions, formed of slate and sand-stone. The road winds along over these mountains, and is far from bad. The nearer we came to the highest part of the Serra de Monchique, which is called Serra de Foia, the deeper and narrower are the valleys; so that we saw nothing but an interminable desart without houses, men, or traces of cultivation. Leaving the summit of the mountain to the right; after travelling four long leagues through this desert, we arrived at the charming town of Monchique. Monchique is a considerable villa situated partly on the declivity of the mountain, where it is dispersed in a picturesque manner. By only ascending a little above the town the spectator may behold the whole coast of Algarvia with its bays and rivers lying before him like a map. On the summit of the Serra de Foia, he will see not only the whole of Algarvia, but also a great part of Alemtejo.

Round Monchique every thing is granite, as also on the Serra de Foia which entirely consists of it. On the north side only does the slate rise to a considerable height. The Serra de Foia is unquestionably the highest range of mountains on this side the Tagus, exceeding that of the mountains of Cintra, and being perhaps but little lower or even a little higher than the Serra Marão. The next mountains on this side the Tagus, in point of height, are those of Mertola.

The warm baths of Monchique are situated a ... e to the southward of the town, the road to ... lying over a mountain, which however may be avoided by going round it. They are ... the south declivity of this mountain. There ... four stone bathing-rooms, each prepared for ... or at most two persons; the water is let in ... out at pleasure by cocks. They are quite dar... being without windows, and the patient descen... into them down several steps. The water, li... that of Gerez, has neither taste nor smell, ... does the heat exceed 24° of Reaumur, which ... very inconsiderable. The springs take their ri... from a greyish granite, of which the whole mou... tain consists. The season for bathing is in spri...

At length we descended from these des... mountains, which now opened and embrac... broad valleys. Being desirous of seeing C... St. Vincent we quitted the road to Lagos, takin... that to the right, and proceeding to the villa... of Bem Safrim. The plain had here quite ... Algarvian appearance, and was covered wit... number of plants very rarely or never found ... other parts of Portugal. Between the slat... mountains we had left on our right, and ... limestone mountains on our left, we pas... through the villages of Bem Safrim, Budes, ... Raposeira, to Villa do Bispo, eight leagues fro... Monchique, as the nearest place to the Cape.

The villages here have a singular appearanc... They are large, stragglingly built on eminenc... and the churches, which are small and neat, ... situated at a distance from them. Such is t... Villa do Bispo.

Here we saw basalt in single mountains, s... rounded as at Lisbon by limestone mountai... but the basalt was blacker, more compact a... sonorous, than round Lisbon. Basalt is a r... stone in this pyrenean peninsula; I know ... other traces in Spain except the specimen in t... museum at Madrid, which was said to be fou... in Catalonia. The only parts of Portugal whe... it is found are those round Lisbon and Cape S... Vincent.

Of Algarvia I must here, for the sake of gre... er perspicuity, give a very brief and cursory ... count. This narrow tract of land is separat... from Alemtejo by a broken chain of mountai... consisting of sandstone and an argillaceous sla... granite only appears on the Serra de Fo... These sandstone mountains are arid and barr... They begin here beyond Villa do Bispo close ... the sea-shore on low hills, and continue as far ... the Guadiana. Here follows a chain of oth... limest...

limestone mountains, on the whole somewhat low, but rather steep, and only separated from the former by narrow vallies. These are also uncultivated, being covered with a quantity of loose stones, thickets of kermes-oak, and some other plants. Cape St. Vincent forms their commencement, and they end at Tavira. This mountain is at length succeeded by that narrow strip of cultivated land extending to the sea, on which most of the towns and villages of Algarvia are situated.

Toward Cape St. Vincent the hills constantly grow flatter, and that promontory itself is a desert plain, consisting of a grey limestone, so naked and rough near the point, that it is difficult to travel over it. In other parts it is merely covered with sand. Toward the sea the rock is every where fractured, and about fifty to eighty feet high, being of equal height with Cabo de Rocca, which it in general somewhat resembles. At the utmost extremity in this desert country is a monastery of Capuchins. Ships can approach very near the rock, and the monks assured us that sometimes in fine weather they speak with them. On another point of the rock, separated by a creek from the extreme end, is the small fort of Sagres, within which nothing is seen but the commandant's dwelling, the soldiers' barracks, and the works, which the commandant seemed unwilling to shew us, and even forbid our seeing. Without the fort are only a couple of houses. When the great earthquake of 1755 destroyed Lisbon, the sea here also swelled, and pouring from a creek over the land laid the country waste.

At Sagres a great quantity of fish and muscles are taken, and small fishing-smacks lie at anchor under the rock in the creek. Near Sagres grows in great quantities the esparto-grass (*stipa tenacissima*), a very useful vegetable, of which in Spain, especially in La Mancha, cords are made, and of which considerable quantities are sent from thence into Portugal for the same purpose.

To leave the Cape we were obliged to return a long portion of our former way through Raposeira and Budes, after which we turned to the right to Lagos; here we traversed the stony uncultivated limestone mountains, and afterwards at Lagos descended that tinely-cultivated declivity toward the sea. It was entirely covered with corn-fields, in which were a number of fig-trees in regular ranks, only here and there interspersed with olive and almond-trees. The figs serve for the ordinary support of the people, whose breakfast consists of bread, figs, and wine; their dinner concludes with figs, and their supper is the same as their breakfast, as we had already an opportunity to observe at Villa do Bispo.

The city of Lagos, five small leagues from Cape St. Vincent, is properly the chief town of Algarvia, though no longer the residence of the governor of that province. It is situated on a declivity close to the sea, on the west side of a large bay; but it is only of a moderate size, containing about eight hundred and fifty houses, three monasteries, and two parishes. It is surrounded by high old walls, which have only fallen in one place; and without the town is a small suburb. Many parts of this town have continued vacant since the earthquake of 1755, when it suffered much. Lagos has a corregedor, a governador, or commandant, and a garrison. The castle of Penhaõ commands the bay, which, when the wind is north or west, affords excellent anchorage even for a large fleet, though less favourable with an east wind, and not at all when it is south. Here lord St. Vincent cast anchor after he had gained his great victory over the Spaniards. A small part of the bay forms a harbour, which however only small vessels can enter. Another arm of the sea extends inland, but is only navigable for small boats, and over it is a stone bridge. The sea-coast is here flat and sandy, and continues so along the south coast of Portugal throughout the whole of Algarvia, whereas the whole western coast is always more or less rocky.

In the neighbourhood of Lagos, Cape St. Vincent, and other parts of this coast, a quantity of tunny-fish is taken and salted in May and June; but it is not so commonly eaten fresh, on account of its fat.

From Lagos to Villanova de Pertimaõ is a distance of two leagues, the road being circuitous in consequence of the creeks and small rivers, which at flood are full of water. Here we crossed the range of uncultivated lime-stone mountains. Toward Villanova the country becomes flat, is very well cultivated, and shaded with high olive and fig-trees, which here as at Lagos, grow in corn-fields. The town consisting of about five hundred, mostly small, poor houses, is surrounded by a high wall, beyond which

which is a small suburb, and is garrisoned by two companies. The river of Villanova flows close to the walls, is here considerably broad (next to the Guadiana, which is the largest in Algarvia) and discharges itself half a league from thence between high downs into the sea. Two considerable forts, St. John on the east side and St. Catherine on the west, cover the entrance. We only saw one ship in the harbour, of which the bar is dangerous and the sand-banks shifting. This harbour can therefore be but of little importance.

We passed the river in a boat, and pursued our way to Lagoa across a flat, pleasant, and extremely-well cultivated country. Lagoa is a market-town situated on a small lake, from which it derives its name, two leagues from Villanova. The soil is here somewhat sandy, and we saw pine-woods. Some writers erroneously place here the ancient Lacobriga.

From hence to Loule, a distance of six leagues, the road varies in the manner it usually does in Algarvia. At one time we crossed flat and well-cultivated tracts, where large high olive-trees, spreading fig-trees, and the charming carob-tree*, in the corn-fields, afford a pleasant shade; and at another time we climbed rough stony limestone mountains, without any traces of cultivation.

Loule contains about one thousand six hundred houses, and is situated in a broad valley surrounded by mountains of the limestone chain, which here attain to a considerable height. The Cabeça da Camara south-west of Loule, is one of the highest. The town is surrounded with high walls, garrisoned by two companies, and the commandant (governador) is a major. Here are three monasteries and a convent for poor ladies of family.

SECTION XIV.

Faro—Cultivation of the Fig Tree—Tavira—Remarks on Algarvia—Villa Real—Account of the Fishery there—Return from Algarvia through Alemtejo by Mertola, Serpa, and Evora.

FROM Loule to Faro is a distance of only two leagues. At first the road passes through a pleasant valley along a brook between limestone mountains, where large and beautiful carob-trees grow in the fields. Toward Faro the country becomes flat and sandy, being covered with heaths and cisti; but in the neighbourhood of the town the numerous gardens enliven the country, which is otherwise unfruitful.

The city of Faro is situated on a plain, being a league from the sea, and on the bank of the river Da Quarteira. The town is quite open, being built with considerable regularity, and tolerably broad streets; but chiefly consists of small houses. It is the see of a bishop, a governor, a brigadier, and a corregedor, contains two parishes, three monasteries, and one thousand two hundred houses. There is a handsome square, with some considerable buildings, situated on the narrow river, and on one side is a small citadel. Large ships cannot come up to the town, these being obliged to unload in the road or lower down the river, which after many windings forms the narrow entrance of the harbour, a league and a half below the town to the south-east, where it is covered by the fort of San Lourenço de Olhaõ on the east side of the river. Another narrow arm of the river, or rather of the sea, forms an island, on which is the sandy cape of Santa Maria. The country toward the sea is marshy, and overgrown with marine plants; on the opposite side it is flat and sandy, and at a

* The high and beautiful carob-tree grows in great numbers toward Loule, is a great ornament to this province, of which it is a native, and we found many bushes of it on the barren limestone hills. I consider this as the most beautiful of European trees; it attains to a considerable height, always forms a large wide shady vertex, and its beautiful feathered evergreen foliage, with small roundish leaves, gives it a charming appearance. The many pods that hang down from it have to us Germans a singular effect. It is also a useful tree; the wood is hard and red, the ripe fruit is very commonly used as fodder for cattle, and especially as mast for swine, though inferior to that of the ever-green oak. It is also eaten by men, but chiefly for amusement, and to excite an appetite.

distance

distance appear the mountains of San Miguel, which are rather high and steep, but well cultivated toward the base.

Faro still retains the greater part of the trade* of Algarvia, and as long as lord St. Vincent blockaded Cadiz, much traffic was carried on between this place and the fleet.

The road from Faro to Tavira, which is four leagues farther, continues always near the sea, and is uncommonly pleasant: only a few small spots near Faro are sandy, and a few limestone hills uncultivated. Elsewhere, especially in the neighbourhood of Tavira, the whole soil is exceedingly well cultivated, and adorned between the corn-fields alternately with olive, carob, and almond trees.

Tavira is a neat city containing one thousand four hundred houses, four monasteries, some neat and clean streets and considerable houses, of which the principal is the governor's palace. Old walls divide the city from the suburbs; the river Sequa, over which is a handsome stone bridge, flows through the middle of it, and small vessels come up as far as the bridge. The surrounding country is one of the pleasantest in Portugal; hills of the chain of lime-stone mountains crowd close round the town, which they inclose as it were with a wood of high shady trees, in whose bosom it seems to repose.

The road ascended the river, and was very pleasant, winding amid these charming hills, and in the upper part of the valley bordered by a thicket of oleander and Spanish reed. The tide comes a league above Tavira. The mouth of the river is a league to the south-east of Tavira. The entrance of the harbour is narrow, shallow, and unsafe, owing to shifting sand-banks, and the quantity of shipping is much less considerable than that of Faro. This entrance is defended by a small fort. Between Tavira and the sea are many salt-marshes. The fishery, particularly that of Sardines and Tunny, is considerable, the former of which we had an opportunity of seeing.

Tavira is the chief town of the small kingdom of Algarvia, where the governor of that province resides together with a provedor. The place of governor of Algarvia is one of the highest in Portugal. All the other governors of the province are under him; and as most towns have garrisons, and are or should be fortified towns, the government is military. This small kingdom (Algarvia) according to the last enumeration of the governor, the Conde de Val de Reis, in 1780, contained ninety-three thousand four hundred and seventy-two inhabitants, of which six thousand five hundred and twenty-one were husbandmen, and five thousand five hundred and seventy-five labourers. It lies close to the sea, and is well-cultivated; but this cultivation generally extends scarcely two leagues inland, after which follow desert hills. Here are more wells than in other parts, probably the remains of Moorish industry; that people having continued longer in this than in the other provinces. Oil is produced in great quantities, being considered as the best in Portugal, and exported. The wine of this province is white, contrary to the general custom of the country, but is good, and supplies a part of Alemtejo. Figs constitute the principal produce of Algarvia, but almonds are grown in considerable quantities, especially round Tavira, and are exported. The common people live principally on fish, and are very poor. The inhabitants of Algarvia are less refined and less polite than the rest of the Portugueze, but their shrewdness and sharpness of wit are celebrated throughout the country. They are also considered as the best mariners in Portugal; hence great numbers of them emigrate, and most of the boat-men at Lisbon are from this province. The inns are uncommonly bad, the whole house even at Tavira consisting of a small quadrangular room upon the ground, without windows or floors, with a stable in the neighbourhood.

From Tavira we went to Villa Real, a town built by Pombal, four small leagues from thence. In the neighbourhood of Tavira the country continues very pleasant, but round Villa Real is sandy and naked. This town is situated at the mouth of the Guadiana, which is here a broad and fine stream. It is built with perfect re-

* The most important produce exported from hence consists of figs, which the country people bring to town to the warehouses of the merchants who deal in that article. They are there thrown down in a heap in a building prepared for that purpose, where a syrup flows from them, which is used with advantage for making brandy. They are then spread to dry in the sun, in an open situation, where they are left a few days, in proportion to the heat of the weather; after which they are pressed into small baskets made of the leaves of the fan-palm, each containing twenty-eight pounds and sent off.

gularity,

gularity, the streets in which are the handsomest houses being on the bank of the river, and the smaller houses at a greater distance. All the houses are perfectly alike and well planned, and behind each is a square court with a back-door exactly similar to that in front. In each street, except those leading to the river, the houses are built alternately four with the front, and four with the back-door to the street. The pavement is extremely good, and in the middle of the town is a handsome square, in which the town-house stands. In short, nothing is wanting but inhabitants; for a deadly stillness reigns throughout the streets, a human figure is rarely seen looking out of the handsome houses, and without a company of soldiers the place would be quite empty. The greatest poverty every where appears. The country round the town is extremely sandy, the soil often consisting entirely of quick-sand; the downs are planted with fig-trees. This place is supplied with every thing, even its daily bread, from Ayamonte, which thus generously nourishes a town intended to effect its destruction; for such was the view of its founder.

On the opposite side majestically rises, proudly looking down on the hither side of the river, the elevated Spanish bank, and on its declivity the large Spanish town of Ayamonte with a number of handsome towers. A greater neatness and cleanliness instantly distinguish the towns of Spain from those of Portugal. Ayamonte was once the seat of great Moorish kings. In former times the tournaments of Ayamonte were much celebrated, and in Spanish poetry and romances the high sounding name and example of the Guadiana often occur. Not far from thence and nearer the sea is a well-built and neat market-town, called Figuerita, peopled by Catalonians whom Pombal drove away, and now flourishing by the emigrations of the Portugueze. It was easy to go over to Ayamonte with a passport from the juiz de fora at Villa-Real, the Spaniards at this time generally not being strict, which if they had been, the inhabitants of this place must have starved. By this channel much contraband trade was carried on with Portugal, especially in silk and fine cotton manufactures.

The situation of Villa-Real and the fishery on this coast are interesting subjects. A league from Villa-Real is Monte Gordo, now consisting only of a few huts, from which, however, the whole coast and the fishery take their name. Previous to the year 1711, the fishery was unknown in this part of the country. An inhabitant of Castromarim, named Antonio Gomez, first fished here for sardines in 1711 and 1712; he was followed by some Catalonians, who first built a few huts, and were joined by degrees by other Catalonians and Andalusians. These began to use better nets, and brought the fish to Ayamonte, where they were salted. At first the fishermen paid no duty at Castromarim, but afterwards they came to an agreement with the farmers of the customs, to whom the increase of the fishery was very beneficial, according to which they only paid about five or six per cent; whereas in other parts of the kingdom the regular tax amounted to thirty per cent. The fishery now increased very much, and in 1750 there were twelve large fishing-smacks belonging to Castromarim, and fifty to Ayamonte, San Lucar and the Catalonians; and in 1774, the number of the whole amounted to a hundred, fifteen of which belonged to Castromarim. The streets of huts extended a league from the mouth of the Guadiana to the old town of Cacela, and though many of the fishermen only remained here during the season, viz. from the 24th of August to the 25th of December, yet many others had settled there. It is true, the Spaniards enjoyed the chief advantage of this trade, but many Portugueze still derived the support from it; and, although this object might require the attention of the government, it did not follow that the whole fishery should be destroyed, rather than concede a small advantage to their neighbours.

Pombal took up this business hastily, and with despotic force, so that within five months Villa Real de san Antonio was built by his order, every thing that concerned the fishery and the fish trade transferred thither, and the huts at Monte Gordo burnt. Many of the soldiers in the troops at Tavira, who were present at this expedition, assured us they were exposed to the greatest danger from the rage of these fishermen. The foreigners were driven away, and lost together with their huts all their little property. This measure was exactly in character with the maxims of Pombal.

To all the inhabitants of Villa Real ten per cent of the duty on the fish caught was abated for some years, viz. from thirty to twenty per cent.

cent. (which however properly only amounted to between five or six per cent); on salted sardines nothing was in general paid, and nothing on exportation; but on the importation of foreign Galician sardines a heavy tax was laid. To prevent contraband trade, and enforce the payment of the duties, the minister employed much severity, and no mariner or fisherman was permitted to quit Algarvia without a passport from the chief inspector of the customs of the southern provinces or his delegate. To procure plenty of salt the minister ordered salt-pans to be dug at Castromarim, and the salt to be sold for nine hundred rees per bushel. Eight companies were now formed, each of which were to have six great fishing smacks with other small-craft. These companies were obliged to sell a thousand sardines for three hundred rees, if no other purchaser offered; for though Pombal was an enemy to monopolies, he constantly gave them birth. Most of the members of these companies engaged in them to flatter the minister, were ignorant of the business, did not usually reside at Villa Real, and were obliged to rely on their agents. A competition soon arose between these companies, who employed the same means to ruin one another, and the heavy duty imposed by Spain on foreign salt fish completed their destruction.

When Pombal fell, the losses, which the members of these companies had suffered, ceased. In 1777, from forty-eight fishing smacks the number had diminished to ten; but from this time to 1782, the fishery again somewhat increased, in consequence of the duty in Spain being taken off. It again immediately sunk on the duties in Spain being raised; but as on fish not salted no duty was now levied in Spain, they were all brought to Figuerita, where they were salted. In 1783, no less than eight hundred Portugueze fishermen emigrated thither, and in 1790, of three thousand fishermen at Ayamonte and San Lucar de Barrameda, two thousand five hundred were Portugueze.

From Villa Real to Castromarim it is usual to go by water up the Guadiana and a branch of that river on which it is situated; for by land it is necessary to make a great circuit of two leagues round another arm of the Guadiana, whereas this passage is performed in a quarter of an hour. The bank of the Guadiana on the Portugueze side is marshy, and some salt is made. Castromarim is a market-town surrounding a hill, on which is an old ruinous castle n t now fortified. Near Castromarim immediately rise mountains of the chain that divides Algarvia from Alemtejo, growing higher as they approach the north.

Here and there we saw cultivated spots, and passed through some villages before we entered Alemtejo. These mountains are the fore-runners of the Serra de Caldeirão, but the range of mountains which properly bears this name lies between Faro and Ourique.

We now entered Alemtejo and came to the village of Espiritu Santo, seven leagues from Castromarim. Two leagues from thence Mertola is situated on the peak of a steep mountain, by the foot of which the broad and fine stream of the Guadiana flows through a deep valley. The prospect is extremely wild and dreary, every where consisting of naked steep mountains, among which the river flows, and a small town enclosed within high walls, with neither field nor gardens, except a single quinta near the town on another mountain. From the bank of the Guadiana the approach to the town is by a very steep ascent. A brook falls to the southward of it into the Guadiana, and though so narrow that a man might jump over it, must be passed in a ferry. The Guadiana often swells very much, the mountains are covered with its sand to a considerable height, and even up to the town itself. On removing to a small distance from the valley of the Guadiana, we found here and there well-cultivated and even fruitful spots, which produce excellent wheat. Mertola has a governor who holds the rank of major, a juiz de fora, about three thousand inhabitants, and belongs to the corregimento of Ourique. An excellent road leads from hence to Beja, but is not entirely finished. The road from Lisbon into Algarvia passes through Beja to Mertola, where travellers embark on the Guadiana for Castromarim, which renders Mertola a lively place, the road by land being inconvenient.

We crossed the Guadiana to go to Serpa, a town seven leagues from Mertola on the opposite side of the river. A more extensive desert does not perhaps exist in Portugal; at first we only saw a couple of houses and some fields, then another house half way, but every where else till within a league of Serpa only hills and mountains; nor did we meet any man in this desert. At a distance to the eastward we saw many chains of mountains which join the Sierra Morena.

To the left of the road is the Salto de Lobo,

where the Guadiana forces its way between narrow rocks. This name, which signifies the wolf's-leap, reminded us of the horse-leap in the Hartz mountains in Germany, but the Bude is an inconsiderable brook compared to the Guadiana.

About a league before we arrived at Serpa, the prospect changed. The cistus gave place to pastures and fine woods of ever-green oaks, and close to Serpa are fruitful corn fields. Serpa is an open cheerful place, much more populous than Mertola, contains four thousand inhabitants, and shows considerable signs of thriving.

We again passed the Guadiana a league from Serpa, where it winds among mountains which are lower and more gentle than round Mertola. At Serpa we came to the great granite plain, which extends from thence beyond Beja and Evora as far as Montemor o novo, forming the best and most fruitful part of Alemtejo. The city of Beja is situated on a gentle hill in a fertile country rich in corn. It is a very old place surrounded with walls and gates, is the see of a bishop, a corregedor, and a governor.

Vidigueira, which is five long leagues from Serpa, is a small market-town, in an extremely charming country. On one side is the fertile plain, on the other immediately beyond and close to the town rise mountains, the valleys of which are adorned with quintas and orange-gardens, and a large gothic church on the fore-ground improves the gaiety of the scene. Every thing has a tranquil cheerful appearance, and the traveller is richly compensated for the deserts of Alemtejo. Here are about two thousand inhabitants.

Beyond the mountains the high fertile granite-plain continues, and to the left appears the Serra de Viana, consisting of low mountains in which were formerly silver mines. To the right is the Serra de Ossa, a fertile and, on one side, well-cultivated range of mountains, with a rich monastery of Paulists. Between this Serra and Evora we saw Evoramonte on a high hill. We perceived Evora at a great distance, as it is situated on an eminence. The nearer we approached this town, the worse was the cultivation.

Evora is the chief town of Alemtejo, and the see of an archbishop, a corregedor, a provedor, a juiz, &c. It is indeed surrounded by walls, which however are fallen down in many parts, but in other respects it is quite open. Coimbra, Oporto, and Evora, are the only towns throughout Portugal, where the passports of travellers are not demanded immediately on their arrival, while there no attention is paid to them. The town consists of narrow crooked streets full of angles, with high gothic buildings and a number of old gothic churches, by which it is much distinguished from most other towns in this kingdom, where the houses are indeed small and low. The monastery of Franciscans particularly deserves notice. The cathedral church is situated in the highest part of the town, and has twenty-five prebends, each with an income of five thousand crusades. Adjacent to it is the archbishop's house, and not far from that the shambles, an old Roman building, whose well-preserved corinthian columns are now connected by a plaster-wall. On the north side the aqueduct enters the town, and is commonly called the aqueduct of Sertorius, having been begun by him, though it is well known to have been built by John III.

Evora was once an university, and still enjoys that privilege, but, since the time of Pombal, has fallen to decay. It was formerly a very celebrated place. Evora is an old town, but has much dwindled since the fifteenth century, and now contains at most twelve thousand inhabitants, of which the enormous proportion of twenty-three religious houses may be the cause. Its ancient name was Ebora in the time of the Romans. Julius Cæsar constituted it a municipium and named it Liberalitas Julia. The Moors conquered it from the Goths in the year 715, but in 1166 it was taken from them by Gerald surnamed the Intrepid (Geraldo Sempavor.) This man got into the town in the day-time, and in the evening went upon the wall where he cut off the heads of two centinels, then descended to the gate, and let in some troops stationed near it.

On the north side of Evora the hills rise, being round the town adorned with gardens, and on their summits with ever-green oaks. The road from hence to Montemor o Novo, which is five leagues distant, passes over granite-hills partly covered with corn-fields and partly with fine woods of ever-green oaks and pastures, which give great variety to the prospect. From Montemor we returned to Lisbon.

THE END OF LINK'S TRAVELS IN PORTUGAL.

TRAVELS

THROUGH

GERMANY, SWITZERLAND, ITALY, AND SICILY.

BY

FREDERIC LEOPOLD COUNT STOLBERG.

SECTION I.

Journey to Düsseldorf—Description of the Picture Gallery at Düsseldorf—Floats on the Rhine described—Valley of Elberfelde and its Prosperity—Cavern of Leuchtenburg—Monks of La Trappe—Pempelfort.

WE set sail, with a favourable wind, on the Elbe, and, in one hour, from Altona we reached Haarburgh. Of Westphalia and Lower Saxony there is not much to remark. Many thanks are due to the regency of Hanover, for the culture bestowed upon these deserts. In the parts under this government we saw the half barren waste covered with beautiful fields of rye, good potatoe grounds, nay even wheat, peas, and barley; where the indolence of the inhabitants would scarcely have produced rye and buck wheat.

Near Bomte, where the Osnabrug domains begin, the prospect brightens. Between the towns of Bomte and Osnabrug, we saw the majestic oak, which has continued to be the subject of astonishment for centuries.

On the 6th of July, 1791, we remained at Osnabrug, and the next day proceeded to Münster; where we remained two days and a half, which we spent chiefly in the company of the Princess Gallitzin and the Baron of Fürstenberg*.

We left Münster early on the 10th, and the following morning arrived at Mühlheim on the Ruhr. Here, for the first time, during a journey of two and forty miles, we had a truly beautiful prospect. On each side of the valley, through which the meandering Ruhr pursues its course, we saw the bold projecting rocks, clothed with hanging woods: beyond them the mountains rose, covered with forests, and interspersed with plains of different elevations, all bedecked with rich and variegated fertility. We arrived at Pempelfort at two in the afternoon.

The famous picture gallery at Düsseldorf deserves particular notice; but as I am not a connoisseur, I cannot admire a picture that speaks to the eye only, and not to the heart. The most inimitable deceptions, whether of painting or poetry, if they place no living image before me, to me are equally uninteresting.

The Diogenes, seeking an honest man in the thronged market-place with a lantern at noonday, displays great invention. Rubens has given to the face of the philosopher the expression of bitter, but half-concealed irony. The crowd, different in sex and age, cannot conceive his meaning, and laugh at his folly. The malicious painter has introduced his own wife; yet certainly he did not mean seriously to characterize her as a fool. What various marks of folly has he communicated to the multitude! How perfectly does the philosopher appear the only man among them! The very spirit of Diogenes seems to have inspired the painter. He had certainly retired within

* Germany acknowledges the merit of this great statesman. He secured the rights of the peasantry, inspired the monks with industry and patriotism, gave order to the war department, awakened a general thirst for knowledge, and with unwearied perseverance laboured to gratify the noble craving. It was he that promoted the pure and benevolent love of science through the schools and seminaries, from the highest to the lowest degree.

within himself, and, deep in contemplation, had studied each countenance, before his magic pencil could so truly delineate this ample heritage of full grown folly. His action is necessarily confined to the moment; yet he artfully leads the fancy through many successive generations. Oh Rubens, hadst thou been present when Diderot, standing to view the picture, imagined himself the hero, and exclaimed to his guide, *C'est Diderot en Hollande!* i. e. *It is Diderot in Holland!* thou wouldst have immortalized the self-sufficient mien of the man on thy canvas! Diogenes would not have put out his lantern in his presence, but probably would have assumed an air of more keen and bitter satire.

Had Rubens read Milton's Paradise Lost, the painter would have soared beyond himself on the wings of the poet, would have added dignity to his Fallen Angels, and would more emphatically have imparted to them their inherent malignity. The victorious angel, in pursuit of Satan as he descends, bearing the flaming sword, and invested with the power of the Almighty, is not unworthy the Michael of Milton. This picture will ever remain the work of a great genius. Sir Joshua Reynolds tore himself from it with regret, and exclaimed, "Other pictures are excellently painted: here alone colours are made to speak."

The most famous picture in this great collection is the St. John in the Wilderness: by some ascribed to Raphael; by others to Andrea Sarpi. The noble figure of the youth, above censure, or rather inimitably beautiful and dignified, irresistibly attracts and fixes the attention; and, when at last you have left it, you are again and again brought back*.

The Assumption of the Virgin, by Guido, is one of the greatest ornaments of the gallery. Devotion, rapture, divine benignity, inspire and dignify the matron; and, in all their lustre, seem to bear her to her native heaven, which opens for her reception.

I did not see the Holy Family of Raphael; it was not in the gallery, but was sent to be engraved.

Rubens had certainly read Dante with attention. The noble and inventive genius of the poet inspired him, when he painted his Day of Judgement. Yet he is unequal to Dante, in picturing both the good and evil spirits. The rage of the one, and the rapture of the other, are more exquisitely described by the Florentine. The figure of the Judge of the world is beneath criticism. The figure of the saint in the fore-ground is noble: but how many thanks are due to the painter, for the chearful countenance he has bestowed on the rising negro? The idea of skeletons half clothed with flesh, and struggling into existence, is worthy of Dante or of Milton. They are well contrasted with the already risen; and appear like the sappy buds of the ash in spring, swelling into life.

Not only the falling deception of the burning lamps, and the glimmering matches on the ground, but the animated characters of the Wise and Foolish Virgins, by Schalken, rank this picture among the best in the gallery.

The Adoration of the Shepherds, by Rubens, is very fine. On one side, in the clouds, an angel is seen, with his hands folded on his breast; an angel such as Raphael might have painted.

The Mary of Medicis, by Rubens, drew our attention. In these noble, ardent, gentle, poetical traits, the physiognomist would discover the rank which a Mary de Medicis would hold in society.

Christ among the Doctors in the Temple, by Vander Werf, appears to me as worthy of the subject as a picture can be. Youth, beauty, benignity, grace, and wisdom, beam in the god-like boy. Sages, such as you might imagine Gamaliel and Nicodemus to have been are listening to his discourse.

No collection contains so many of the works of Rubens as this: but I am told his best productions are to be found in the towns of Brabant. The gallery is poor in pictures by the Italian masters; and not to be compared with those of Dresden. It is likewise deficient in Landscapes.

The Düsseldorf academy is furnished with many excellent casts, from antique statues. It

* The history of this painting is singular. One of the keepers of the gallery was retouching a damaged Landscape, in water colours, which was not without merit. That which he had supposed to be mere canvas he discovered to be coated with oil-colours. Curiosity induced him to proceed; and a most beautiful body began to be visible. He saw the hand of a master, washed away the water colours, and restored in full perfection the great work, that had so long remained buried in darkness.

likewise rich in engravings; and, were it not, e numerous drawings, by Raphael, which it ssesses, give it a value which few collections equal.

A timber float having been announced, we went Düsseldorf to see it; for which purpose we ed a boat, and rowed up the Rhine. The ay of the oars was seen from afar, and we esently discovered a swimming village; for ch is the appearance of the wooden huts that built on the float. Four of these floats go ery summer from Andernach to Holland. ch is about a thousand feet long, and a hun-ed and thirty wide. The number of floatmen four hundred and fifty. The rapidity of the eam, and the bulk and unwieldiness of the float ke the navigation dangerous. The passage, if od, will be from six to seven days; but, if the ter be low, and the wind violent and adverse, may be as many weeks. Several anchors are ried, and the float lies at anchor every night. e strong motion of the float drags them at , but this motion slackens, and the float at remains stationary. The worth of the wood which the float is composed is estimated at five ndred thousand florins. The toll it pays is vy. At Düsseldorf it amounts to a hundred sixteen pistoles: at Kaiserswerth, eighty toles: and the Prussian tolls are still more ere. The daily maintenance of the floatmen timated at upward of a hundred rix dollars. e pay of each man, for the whole voyage, is y five rix dollars. Having arrived at their ce of destination, they form themselves into ties, of seven each, club their pay, and then ot for the whole, and the losers are obliged to their way home. The good cheer of the tmen during the voyage delights and well re-them for their labour. We saw fat oxen the float, and were informed that one was ghtered daily. The cabin of the master is as cious as that of the captain of an eighty gun p. The wood of the float is chiefly for the of flooring and carpenters.

We next went to Elberfelde, which town lies small valley on the Wupper, which empties lf into the Rhine. The peculiar quality of waters of the Wupper maintains four popu-s towns; the principal trade of which is aching. The valley is about two leagues g, and the high hills on each side are covered with the beech and the ash, and skirted with corn fields, meadows, pastures, and gardens, in various and rich fertility. The four towns which the Wupper waters are Rittershausen, Wuppertelde, Gemark (or Barmen), and Elberfelde. Barmen is a colony of Elberfelde; of which it is the rival, both in industry and prosperity. The whole appearance of this valley delights the eye, and makes a deep and lasting impression upon the heart. Its various buildings, its swarming inhabitants, its meandering stream, now deep and silent, now rapid and shallow, its bold projecting rocks, hollow beneath, and loaded above with thick woods that shade the horizon, the honest, prosperous, and happy appearance of its people, some dwelling in neat towns, others in scattered houses that ornament the vicinity; these objects, individually and collectively, give unspeakable pleasure. Here indeed abundance every where reigns.

On our return from Elberfelde we went to Metman, a town four leagues from Pempelfort. Passing through corn fields that had been reaped, we entered a beech wood, and suddenly beheld an uncommonly wild mass of rocks that fixed our attention. Proceeding through a wide opening, we went into a cavern, into which light had two entrances, that were unperceived by us. We suddenly came to a deep precipice, with high rocks in our front; and they, like the cavity in which we stood, were loaded with trees, their sides were adorned with shrubs and ivy, and at their feet flowed the rapid Düssel. This cavern is called the Leuchtenburg. We returned through a narrow passage, which brought us to a projecting cliff, where, that we might the better look into the abyss beneath, we laid ourselves down, and each held the other in turn. This cliff is called Rabenstein (or Ravenstone.) From this we passed into a small grotto, called the Engels Kammer, or Angel's Chamber. and saw a black gulf on the other side, which people have named the Teufels Kammer, or Devil's Chamber.

Half a league from this there is a monastery of the religious order of La Trappe; of which there was only one in Germany, one in France, and one in Italy founded. The monks of this order renounce the use of speech; the prelate only, under certain restrictions, is allowed to infringe this rule. We saw the prelate, but he

shewed no inclination to admit us into the monastery. Government has appointed a spiritual commission to reform the rules of this monastery; but a veil of secrecy guards their proceedings.

Pempelfort is separated by a spacious electoral garden from Düsseldorf. Here the house of our friend Jacobi is roomy and well contrived; built for the convenience of a sage, who wishes neither to be incommoded by want of space, n incumbered by magnificence. He has laid o his garden in the English manner, but with degree of taste peculiar to himself. Trees, so single, others in clusters, ornament the gre lawn; through which the Düssel meanders, a forms a cascade.

SECTION II.

Duchy of Berg—Mühlheim—Cologne—Picture of the Crucifixion of St. Peter, by Rubens—Rheinmagen—Ems—Nassau—Schwalbach—Wisbaden—Mentz—Frankfort, and the Jew—Darmstadt—The Bergstrasse—Heidelberg—Bruch sal—Karlsruh.

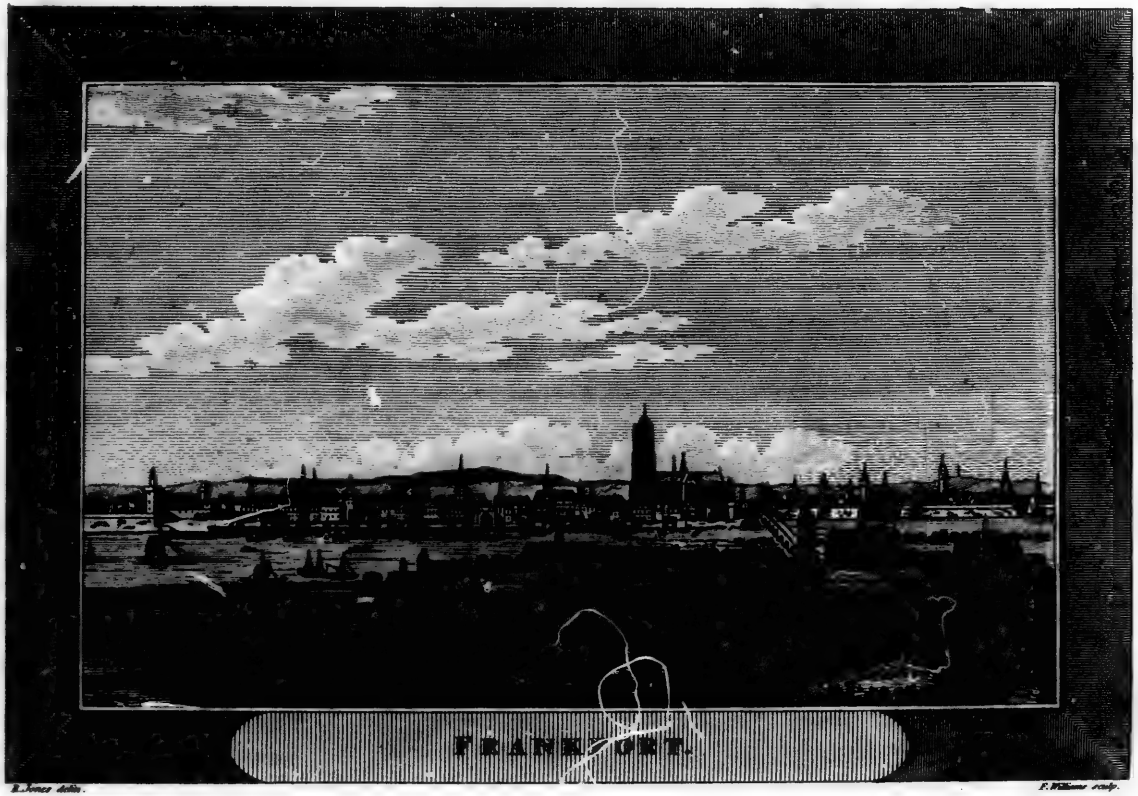
WE had only a short half day's journey from Pempelfort to Cologne, our road lying through a fruitful and well cultivated valley. The duchy of Berg appears to me to owe its prosperity to the constitution it enjoys under the government of the elector (now king) of Bavaria, and to the industry of its inhabitants, more than even to the goodness of its soil; which, from excellent cultivation is so productive. That land must be light which one horse can plough. The horses and cattle in this country are large and well fed.

At Mühlheim we crossed the Rhine, and soon arrived at Cologne. This ancient city is built in the old style, with high houses and narrow streets. The gothic cathedral is beautiful, and would have been one of the largest in Europe, had the immense work, which was interrupted before finished, been completed. Its grandeur is still considerable; and the unfinished part gives a picturesque appearance of gothic ruins.

In St. Peter's Church we saw a noble picture of St. Peter on the Cross, by Rubens, which the painter presented to his native city. It is said that this apostle, from humility, wished to be crucified with his head downwards; and this furnished the great painter with an opportunity of displaying his genius in what may be called the terribly beautiful. The blood, hurried toward the head, distends the veins; and, as the body is not outstretched, it is bent and foreshortened: in the execution of which Rubens has displayed his whole power. The mouth of the sufferer opens in such agony, and with so much truth, that it has a wonderful appearance reality. Various executioners are employ around him; one of whom, with a friend-li ferocity, is driving a nail through his foot, wh a Roman soldier holds him fast, with a plac diligence. The soldier's countenance would b speak our favour, were it not for the calm ma ner in which he attends to his horrible offic None but a Roman soldier could have harden his countenance to such an iron serenity.

From Cologne to Bonn the road is delightfu but after we had passed the latter, nature a sumed her highest charms. We now plain saw the seven hills, the summits of which, on t other side of Düsseldorf, had gradually seem to approach. The fertile plains throug which we passed abound with vineyards a orchards. Again our road brought us to th high banks of the Rhine, beyond which we still more lofty heights, terminating in the rock summits of the seven hills. On some of th heights are seen the ruins of old castles: in othe parts the daring hand of nature projects the over hanging fearful cliff, that seems to brave th shock of time. The last of the seven hills, whic is called Drachenstein (Dragonstone), appear to be the largest.

Between Rheinmagen and Andernach we be held the majestic course of the Rhine. Befor us lay the ancient town of Andernach, with it gothic wall and towers. As we determined t lay all night at Andernach we approached th shore, took a boat, and were rowed between hig hills that were clothed with hanging vineyard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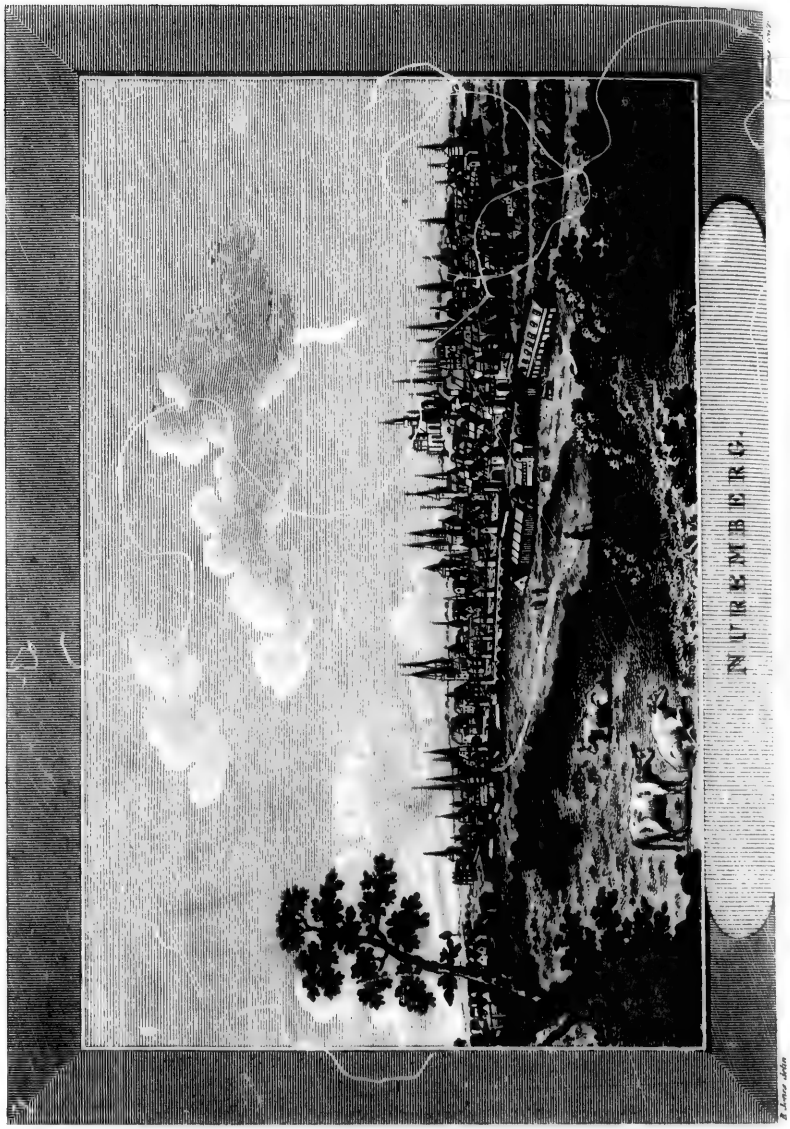
NUREMBERG.

We saw white insects in swarms fluttering in the evening air, and in swarms saw them end their short lives in the stream. We passed Neuwied, sailing between rows of tall poplar; and the wind being against us, we traversed the river, from shore to shore, till we came to Andernach.

Half a league from Coblentz we passed the palace of Schönbornlust, where the fugitive brothers of the king of France then resided. Coblentz is at present full of French emigrants; for they crowd the streets in parties, and hurry to and fro, some in carriages, some on horseback, and some on foot; so that their numbers seem endless. The cross of St. Louis is at every button hole.

The small town of Ems, famous for its mineral waters, lies in a deep narrow vale, that is watered by the Lahn, in the road between Coblentz and Nassau. Along this river, and between the mountains, lies the road to Nassau, which is situated in a fertile valley and surrounded by rocks. On one of the hills stand the ancient ruins of the castle of Nassau, from whence that famous house derived its title.

Schwalbach and Wisbaden, both celebrated for their mineral waters, are seated among these mountains, which are interspersed with fruitful plains. There is a beautiful prospect about a league from Wisbaden, from which a long course of the Rhine, the entire city of Mentz, and the pleasant islands that surround it, are seen. Mentz is two full leagues from Wisbaden.

We entered the ancient and beautiful city of Mentz over a wide bridge of boats. Though so much nearer its source, the Rhine is more spacious here than at Düsseldorf. The palace called La Favorite, with its vast garden, stands on the shore where once the old Carthusian monastery stood; as well as two nunneries, which have been demolished. The revenues of these foundations are paid to the university. The elector purchased the deserted monastery from the university, which possesses about four millions of florins. At Mentz we became acquainted with Count Von Stadion, a young canon of great talents. All the parts round Mentz, which abound in corn, fruit, and wine, probably are more indebted for these productions to the industry of the inhabitants than to the goodness of the soil, which is light and sandy.

The parts round Frankfort appear to be in the same predicament. They are embellished and fructified by the Main, to the beneficent waters of which they are wholly indebted. A part of Frankfort is well built, especially the principal street, which is called the Zeile. The Jews, who are numerous, are confined to live in one street, which is very long, narrow, and irregular. Their houses are separated, in back and front, from the rest of the citizens by a high wall, built far above the first floor. Every evening, about ten or eleven o'clock, both ends of this street are shut up, and no Jew, without particular permission, is suffered to quit this prison, during the time of divine service among the Christians.

The road between Frankfort and Darmstadt is very sandy. At Darmstadt we visited the celebrated English garden; and on the 8th of August passed the Bergstrasse, (a noble chain of mountains) that extends from Darmstadt to Heidelberg, which is one of the most pleasant and remarkable roads in Germany. It is seven miles long, and grew more beautiful as we approached Heidelberg. To our left lay the lofty uninterrupted chain of mountains. Opposite to these the Melibokus rears its head, on the top of which the late landgrave built a white watch tower. We had seen this tower some miles before we came to Mentz. It may be seen from Pirmacenz on the frontiers of Lorrain. The ruins of old castles, built in the feudal ages, are seen on the other mountains. The wine in these parts is called Bergsträssler (Franconian.) It is cooling, and resembles the small kind of Rhenish, or the wine of Saxony.

Heidelberg lies behind a hill, round which we travelled, and had a view of the Neckar, with the town built on its banks. Heidelberg is situated in a small valley, and part of it is built on the declivity of a hill, with the old castle much above it, though far from the top. The old counts Palatine and electors, cut in stone after the ancient German manner, are placed in deep niches between the windows. A deep moat, planted with trees, surrounds the castle; but a large part of one of the vast round towers is fallen, and lies in ruins on the side of the moat.

We continued our journey on the following morning through Bruchsal and Durlach, and arrived at Karlsruh in the afternoon. Bruchsal is a well built town, where the bishop of Spires resides in a beautiful palace, and where there is a salt

a salt work. About a league from Durlach a small brook, rushing from the top of a hill, divides the circle of the Rhine from the circle of Swabia.

Karlsruh is regularly built. The town contains about a third part of a large circle; the centre of which is the palace. The streets are at equal distances, and terminate in the right line walks that lead to the garden, and the wood; forming, with these walks, the half of a circle, and having the appearance of a spider's web.

SECTION III.

Reach Pforzheim—Stutgard, and Description of its Academy—Esslingen—Gisslingen—Ulm—Biderach—Ravensburg—Tetnang—Lindau, and its Bridge—Lake of Constance—Mörsburg—Lakes of Constance, Zell, and Ueberlingen—Abbey of Reichenau and Relics there—John Huss and Jerome of Prague—City of Constance.

FROM Karlsruh the road led us back to Durlach, and afterwards, through delightful meadows, to Pforzheim. The people were busy about their second hay harvest. In these fruitful parts, the grass is mowed three times each season. Pforzheim lies on the Ens, in a very pleasant valley. In the territory of Baden the fertility of the earth and the industry of the inhabitants seem to vie with each other.

Würtemberg does not appear to be so fruitful, though equally well cultivated; neither are the roads there so charming as in Baden.

The military academy at Stutgard, was invested with the privileges of an university by the emperor Joseph II. In the upper class the sciences that appertain to the former faculties are taught. The number of tutors is one hundred and forty-three: instruction is amply communicated; and very few seminaries are equal to this, either in scholastic or military science. Day scholars included, the number of students is about five hundred; of which nearly three hundred board in the house. They are well maintained, well fed, and well clothed. Their uniform is blue with black trimmings. They are daily obliged to bathe in the garden in summer: and in winter in a capacious house bath. Each scholar has a small plat of ground to himself. The collection in natural history is a good one; and, if the students desire it, they have able masters to instruct them not only in the sciences but in the arts: several good painters and engravers have been educated here.

The roads of Würtemberg on the way to Ulm are excellent. The districts beside the Neckar, are as fertile as they are delightful. The small town of Esslingen lies on this river; which waters a beautiful valley that abounds in pastures, fruit trees, and fruitful fields.

Among the hills Hohenstaufen rises in circular beauty, which may remind the German patriot of its noble antiquity. This was the cradle of our kings and emperors, from the Swabian line: a line equally renowned in history for its genius, its courage, and its misfortunes.

From the valley near Gisslingen the road constantly ascends as far as Ulm. How much higher must the source of the Danube be than that of the Rhine! When a few leagues from Ulm the Glaciers of Switzerland may be perceived; indeed they may frequently be seen to the distance of forty leagues. The count acquaints us that he saw the Glaciers from the same parts, and likewise from the tower of the cathedral. This cathedral, as well for its size as for the height of its gothic towers, is one of the largest in Germany. From these towers the course of the Danube may be traced to a great distance. This river, though so far from the ocean, has a character for greatness, which shews it to be the first river in Europe*.

From Ulm, proceeding along the Danube, its

* Ulm is a fortified city in the circle of Suabia, and the principal town in the circle, where the archives are deposited. There is a good college in this city; and in the cathedral there are sixty-three copper vessels full of water, ready for the extinguishing of fire. There are four hundred and one steps to the top of the steeple. It is one of the largest and best places in Germany; and the town house is a handsome edifice. The trade of the inhabitants is principally

its junction with the Iller takes place. Right before the town of Biderach a lovely valley draws attention; and at some leagues distant from Ravensburg the high tops of the mountains of Switzerland appear.

Leaving the vineyard heights, that surround the valley which lies to the right of Ravensburg, and the other side of the lake of Constance the hills of Bregenz are seen, beyond which lay the much higher summits of the distant Glaciers. Proceeding through Tetnang, and, travelling through forests and meadows, the prospect becomes more extensive. Here the lake of Constance may he seen, as it were, approaching the mountains of Bregenz, and likewise those of Tyrol, Appenzel, and Glaris, crowned with eternal snow. No person can form any idea of the beauty of the prospect, who has not seen the large lakes of Switzerland, with their surrounding mountains. Approaching the charming lake, at length appears the long beautiful bridge, which is three hundred and fifty paces over, and which unites the well built town of Lindau with Terra Firma.

Constance is the largest lake in Germany, and indubitably one of the most beautiful in Europe. Mörsburg, which is situated beside the lake ten leagues from Lindau, is the seat of the bishop of Constance.

From Mörsburg it is a pleasant passage over the lake to Constance; but, as the wind was unfavourable (says Count Stolberg,) we were three very pleasant hours on our passage. The lake is about seventeen leagues long, and from three to five broad; and the clear green transparency of its waters, with the changeable aspect of its shores, give a combination of charms to its prospects which are seldom seen. The mild, fertile, and gently rising shores of Swabia are adorned with three imperial towns, Lindau, Buchhorn, and Ueberlingen, beside the little town of Mörsburg, with various villages, hamlets, abbeys, and monasteries.

The Tyrol mountains lie in a circle to the south east, in the form of a half moon; scarcely leaving room, on a small slip of land, for the little town of Bregenz: on both sides of which their feet advance into the lake, and their summits rise to the clouds*.

The populous shores of Switzerland are steeper and grander than those of Swabia. Behind them tower three successive rows of mountains, opposite to each other, as if in order of battle; and, by their various directions, divide the cantons of Switzerland and the county of Tyrol from each other. The artillery of heaven reposes, with aweful threats, upon their cloudy summits. Between them lies the Rheinthal, (*i. e.* Rhine valley,) through which the most beautiful river in Germany takes its course, and pours its waters into the lake; whence, more voluminous, they again pursue their way. The Alpstein, a rocky mountain of the canton of Appenzel, rises in all its terrors, here and there covered with snow, and often emerging from among the vagrant clouds, but seldom entirely visible. More distant, and still more lofty, more daring, and more steep, are the mountains of the canton of Glaris. If, while the Alpstein delights, yet terrifies the imagination, a person would here repose, superior promontories again attract his attention; and these do but conceal the still higher Glaciers, which cannot be seen from the lake†.

The north-west side of the lake of Constance is divided into two parts by a broad slip of land. They are called the lakes of Zell and of Ueberlingen, after the little town of Ratalfazell (or Zell) and Ueberlingen; though they are part of the principal lake, except that the lake of Zell communicates only with the lake of Constance by the course of the Rhine. Each of these small lakes is adorned with an island.

cipally in linen, fustians, hardware, and wool. This town is thirty-six miles W. of Augsburg, forty-seven S. E. of Stutgard, sixty-three N. of Munich, and two hundred and seventy-five W. of Vienna.

* The Tyrol is a hundred and fifty miles long, and a hundred and twenty broad. It produces as much corn and wine as the inhabitants have occasion for. Here are rich mines of gold, silver, and copper, and it contains twenty-eight cities and large towns, two bishopries, forty-eight convents, twelve hundred and thirty churches, three hundred and fifty-five castles, and one hundred and twenty thousand inhabitants, who never change the fashion of their garments, and are a very industrious set of people, but extremely obstinate. It is bounded on the north by Bavaria; on the east by Carinthia and the archbishopric of Saltzburg; on the south by part of the territory of Venice, and Trentino; and on the west by Switzerland and the country of the Grisons

+ Count Stolberg was so enraptured with the lake of Constance, that he was inclined to prefer it to all the lakes of Switzerland; for, sixteen years before, he travelled on foot over the thirteen cantons, the country of the Grisons, &c. and visited all the principal lakes of this noble country to the number of four and twenty.

The Switzerland shore, is only half a quarter of a league from Thor; and two leagues on the lake of Zell, is the small island called Reichenau. Here is a rich benedictine abbey, under the government of the bishop of Constance. This place is of great antiquity, and boasts of the relics it possesses; among which is an emerald, an ell long, about half as broad, and twenty-nine pounds weight! The monks say it was a present from Charlemagne. Whether this pretended emerald be a piece of green glass, of vitrification, or of spar, says the count, I leave the naturalist to determine; the precious jewel was valued by the monk at three millions, yet he did not forget to detail the poverty of the monastery.

Opposite to the island is Arenenberg, on the Switzerland side, in the district of Thurgau; which belongs to the eight old cantons. This hill is not high, but pleasant from its beech woods, its rivulet and charming prospect.

The council house here has, among other curiosities, the arm chair in which the emperor Sigismund and Pope Martin V. of the family of Colonna sat. Here the people shew the place where in 1415, John Huss, and two years afterward his friend Jerome of Prague, who was at first more timid, but who became no less courageous, were burnt. Here in a house are the effigies of John Huss, carved in stone, with the date of the year 1415. Perhaps he lived in this house, when the emperor granted him a passport to conduct him safely to Constance.

Constance, or Kostnitz, is one of the oldest cities in Germany. It was a free imperial city, was in alliance with the dukes of Austria, was often obliged to take part with the confederates, and was again brought back to its former alliances under the emperor Maximilian. John Huss and Jerome of Prague were burned here, although a hundred years afterwards, it was one of the first to declare in favour of the doctrines of Luther. It has, however, lost part of its former grandeur*.

The island of Meinau, which is a full league from this place, lies between the lake of Constance Proper and the lake of Ueberlingen. It is six hundred paces from the shore, and seems to rise like a little hill out of the water. This small island contains all that man could wish; and the desire of living here, apart from the world and its turmoils, might be excited in a very lively degree.

SECTION IV.

Schaffhausen—The Fall of the Rhine—Eglissau—Zürich; its Government, Rank, and Military Force—Population—Orphan House—Cathedral—Arsenal—Societies and Customs of Zürich.

ABOUT a league from Schaffhausen the Rhine passes through a valley among woody shores, after having refreshed itself in the lake of Constance. The top of a hill, in the forest over this stream, divides the German empire (there no longer German) from Switzerland half a league from Schaffhausen. No longer German!

The Rhine near Schaffhausen is very beautiful, and flows over beds of rocks. In former times there certainly were warehouses here, for merchandize brought down the stream, from Bunden, Lindau, Constance, and other parts. The goods were unloaded here, because of its vicinity to the fall of the Rhine. From these the town took its name. In the Switzerland, Swabian, and Austrian dialects the word Schaffen signifies to buy and sell.

The fall of the Rhine is an object so grand and magnificent, that no description can do it justice. Here the broad stream, among bold cliffs, overgrown with trees, collects its waters in a prodigious mass; which, though disturbed, here and there rises in circles of translucent green:

* Constance is an exceedingly old place; it is supposed to have been the Vitodurum or Gaunodurum of the ancients. It was taken by Attila, and afterwards possessed by the old French kings; and in their records it is called Villa regia Dugoberti regis. It is at present a well-built place, is populous, and has a considerable trade. Its fortifications are strong, and its public buildings very magnificent. Here is likewise an university, which was translated from Friburg in 1677. It is thirty-five miles N. E. of Zürich, and sixty-two from Ulm.

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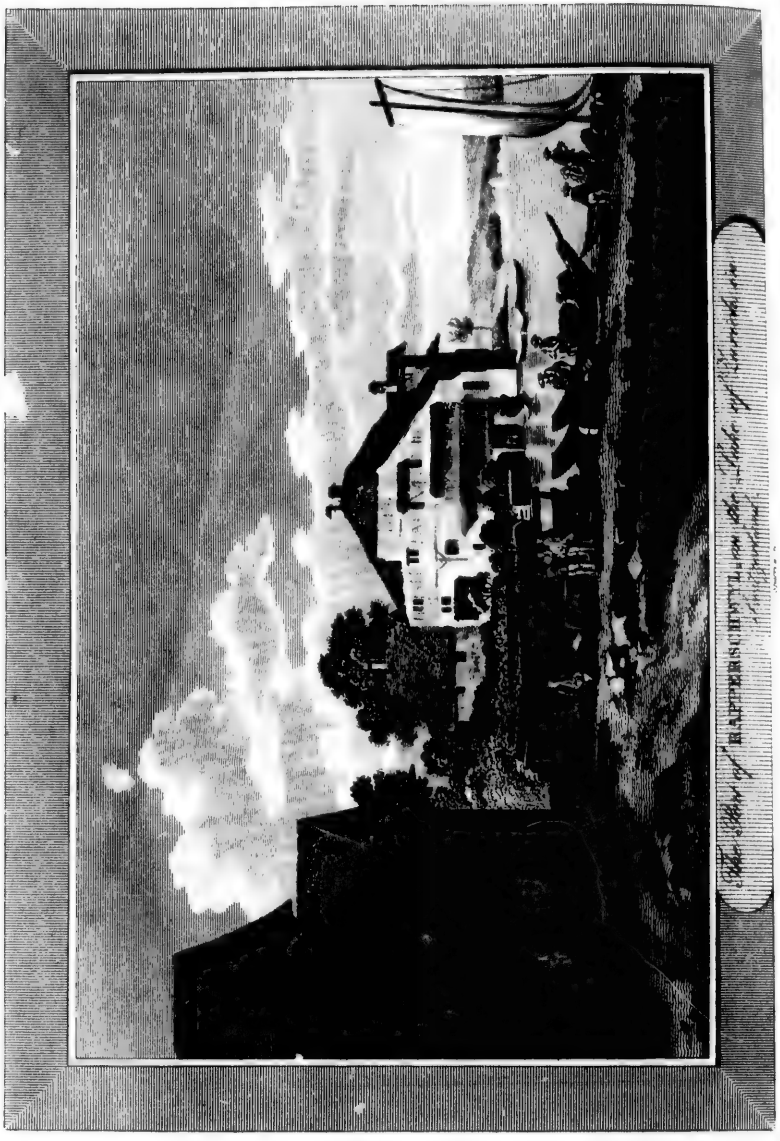

green; and, with thundering din and raging impetuosity, dividing itself into three unequal cataracts, dashes headlong against the rock below, that daringly resists the ungovernable fury of the torrent! Daring and dignified, yet not unchastised; as the deep cavities in its bed, and its perforated sides, too plainly shew. On the lowest of these high shores, to the right of the waterfall, in the territory of Schaffhausen, stands a thread mill. Opposite to this, in the district of the canton of Zürich, on a very high rock, is built the castle of Lausen. A stranger is first taken beside the thread mill, where he is suddenly surprized, and his astonishment pleasingly yet terribly excited. He is then led, by a small winding path round the foot of the hill, to a circular basin of the stream; and, being there placed opposite to the waterfall, he learns that the cataract, at which he has been amazed, is formed only by the shores and a rock that projects out of the stream, which constitutes about a fifth part of the waterfall. Here he perceives the whole stream compressed between its rocky shores and three insulated cliffs. He is then taken into a small boat, passes the cataract on the dancing waves, and is landed on the side of Zürich. Here, below the castle of Lausen, is a scaffolding built over the waterfall. He is obliged to wait a short time till a small door is opened, the key of which is kept in the castle, standing immediately over the stream, and listening to its thunder. He then looks down upon the terrific gulph. The imagination, overpowered, is dreadfully persuaded that it shall be hurried into the deep. No possible idea can be formed of the force of the water, or of the restless violence with which it rushes. The poet Lenz standing here, struck his thigh, and exclaimed, "*Hier ist eine Wasserhölle! i. e.*" Here is a water hell." After a fall thus rapid the water is projected back to a great height, forming a cloud, white and dense as the smoke of a forge, which conceals all beyond it. Every bush on the rocky shores is dripping: when the sun shines the colours of the rainbow play in the froth and the rising vapours.

The town of Schaffhausen was first admitted into the league of the confederates in 1501; before which it was an imperial town, whose burghers had ever been bold and ardent in the cause of freedom. Its constitution is a mixture of aristocracy and democracy*.

Eglissau is a municipal town of the canton of Zürich, and is situated in a small valley on both sides of the Rhine, which, winding among narrow rocks, pursues its rapid course in a right line, rolling its waves among leafy hills, till it again takes a curve, and again concealed by the rocks is lost to the eye. The little town of Eglissau is uncommonly pleasant; its houses denote the active benevolence of freedom. The whole taxation of the citizens, an inconsiderable rent excepted, consists in the tythes of their corn and wine. These tythes effectually amount to a tenth of the produce, and are collected in kind, for the maintenance of the clergy, and the municipal officers. They originated in the church tythes, which were abolished at the reformation, when the magistracy took upon itself the support of the schools and clergy. The same beneficent marks of prosperity which distinguish the town are visible in the country. The people, well fed, well clothed, laborious and cheerful, live in roomy, clean, and airy houses. Their fields have the appearance of gardens; by which they are the more strikingly contrasted with the wild beauties of surrounding nature.

Zürich is a charming place, situated at the side of a lake. Some public roads were made several years ago for the advantage as well as for the convenience of the inhabitants. Zürich is wealthy by the wisdom of its œconomy. It expends great sums for the benefit of the country. Its buildings and public institutions are becoming the dignity of a free town. Patriotic simplicity ornaments the regulated welfare of the happy burgher. In theory, the government of the town is that which the ancients called aristocratic, but which the moderns continually confound with democracy. The burghers have equal rights, and the officers of administration are chosen by their fellow citizens from among such as are supposed to be most capable. The government of the canton is an oligarchy, which the moderns unjustly call aristocracy, for the country people are excluded from all share in the administration. The municipality consists of thirteen companies, one only of which is noble. Twelve men are chosen from each company, and constitute the great council; these again choose

* Schaffhausen is twenty-two miles N. by E. of Zürich, and thirty-nine E. of Basil.

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the little council, which is composed of fifty men, who are added to and complete the great council. The small council is most respected, and may be considered as a more select body. To the half of the small council the administration of affairs is committed, and in six months the other half comes into office; so that in half a year the first burgomaster yields to the second. The election is annual; but the custom is to re-elect the same members. The commission of some crime only can exclude a member of the great council; but each member of the great council has a right, when any one of the little council has been guilty of a misdemeanor, to propose another. The proposition having been made, the votes are collected, and he who has a majority is chosen. Such is the confidence which these people place in their council, and on which the calm of the city depends; for, as they trust all the administration to the little council, it was wise to subject the powerful members thus annually to the superintendance of the great. Alliances, war, and peace, depend upon the collective voice of the citizens; but they cannot assemble without first having been summoned by the burgomaster. People that are truly free do not feel the necessity of interfering upon all occasions. They know that the mind of the mechanic is deficient in the knowledge necessary for the administration of public affairs. This discretion, confirmed by the happy experience of undisturbed felicity, originates in the custom which continues the members of the great council in office for life; though, for form's sake, they are annually chosen. This annual choice is no more than a solemn ratification. Actions for debt are determined by the municipal court. The ecclesiastical court consists of laymen and divines. Every other kind of suit, between burgher and burgher, comes before the little council; with an appeal, however, lying to the great. In dignity Zürich is the first canton, though Berne is much more powerful. To Zürich, as to the canton that has the right of convoking, all foreign affairs must come. It annually issues mandates to assemble the deputies from the other cantons at Frauenfeld, which is the chief town of the bailiwick of Thurgau. They meet in the middle of July, and continue to sit six weeks. The burgomaster of Zürich has the precedence, and opens the assembly. This venerable assembly decide on all the important affairs of the thirteen confederated cantons. Here all internal differences are assiduously appeased. Here all the complaints against landammans (high bailiffs) or governors are heard and determined. Foreigners likewise have a right to appeal to this assembly; yet it is very difficult, and almost impossible, for a foreigner to become a burgher of any canton. At Zürich the first year of every century a foreigner is made a burgher; but his descendants cannot be of the council till the century following.

The church tythes, which consist of the tenth of the annual produce of the harvest and the vintage, constitute the only tax which is levied on the farmer. The state collects these tythes, and maintains the clergy. It likewise often assists those communities that erect churches, though communities are expected to erect and maintain them at their own expence. Ten thousand florins were lately paid to a community from the treasury of the republic.

The obligation which the country people are under, to sell their wrought manufactures to the burghers of Zürich, is more oppressive than this inconsiderable tax. This restraint affects the wholesale more than the retail trader; for the latter could only furnish the shops at home, but the others might supply foreign dealers.

The state possesses certain domains, the farming of which encreases its revenue. The burghers are obliged to pay five per cent. for all goods manufactured in the town: an easy tax, which generally falls upon strangers who trade with the place. The trifling revenues are more than sufficient in a country where the public officers receive no salaries; where no soldiers are maintained; and where, notwithstanding, forty thousand men, trained and armed, can, in twenty-four hours, be brought into the field; which is about a fifth part of the army of the whole confederacy.

The youth are trained to arms. All the males are exercised every Sunday in the afternoon, and no one dare marry till he can produce accoutrements and arms that have been proved. Those who serve in foreign countries are so many experienced warriors for Switzerland. In the democratic cantons, beside the pay of the soldier, each father of a family receives a crown a year from France: this is not paid in the aristocratic cantons.

Some years ago, the assembly of the canton of Schweitz

Schweitz, in a menacing manner, wished to raise their pay with France; which being remonstrated against by the high bailiff, he was accused of corruption and heavily fined. The canton sent threateningly to its citizens to return from France, and France, justly holding itself no longer bound by its former engagements, the people of this canton found themselves glad to send their youth to France again on less advantageous terms.

In the aristocratic as well as in the democratic cantons of Switzerland, far from an army of mercenaries, they have no standing army; and where, as in the democratic cantons, each citizen is armed, there the rights of the people are sufficiently secured against the innovations of government.

The territories of Zürich extend, on both sides of the lake of that name, about four leagues and a half. House after house, village after village, continually meet the eye. The population of the shores of the lake, not including Zürich, is estimated at twenty-two thousand.

As well here, on the lake, as in the interior part of the country, the culture of their fields, gardens, and vineyards is attended to with extraordinary care, though most of the inhabitants round the lake are manufacturers. The beauty of their churches, their neat and roomy houses, the good condition of their cattle, and, above all, their own cheerful and friendly countenances, denote their happiness. Some of them live by fishing, which, as well as hunting, is free throughout Switzerland; but those who reside near the lake depend most on their trade with Zürich and with their neighbours in the canton of Schweitz; which supplies the canton of Zürich with corn that is purchased in Swabia. The grain of Zürich is insufficient for its own consumption: its population, the mountains excepted, being estimated at between four and five thousand souls to the geographical square mile.

The Orphan House is a large and noble building. It stands in the finest quarter of the town, open on all sides, and on high ground near the Limmat. The children live in roomy and lofty chambers, and consist both of orphans and the children of poor old persons still living. The number is not fixed, but varies according to circumstances: none but the children of burghers are accepted. They are instructed in the christian religion, reading, writing, arithmetic, drawing, geography, and the history of their own country. Health blooms on their cheeks, good humour and satisfaction beam in their eyes. Indeed, so much care is taken of their health, that, though they admit children of a year old, and though life at this period is so precarious, only two children have died in four years. The present number of the children is ninety-two; and the numbers of the boys and girls are nearly equal.

The cathedral of Zürich was built by Charlemagne; whose effigy, well cut in stone, is placed over the door.

The people of Zürich have an old custom, which they have probably derived from the wisdom of their ancestors. If married people, in spite of remonstrance, persist in a desire to separate, they are confined for some weeks in a chamber of the council house, in which there is nothing but a small bed, a stool, and a table. Their food is served on one dish, with one plate, one knife, one fork, and one spoon. Change of place, privation, and the sociality that arises from the necessity of mutually aiding each other, have frequently, before the time of probation has expired, so reconciled them to each other, that they have renounced all thoughts of parting, and have lived peaceably together till death.

SECTION V.

Town and Country of Zug—Account of Lucerne—Anecdotes of William Tell—Remarkable Inscriptions—Town and Lake of Sempach—Canton of Berne—Thun—Valley of Hasli—Numerous Waterfalls—Herdsmen of the Alps—Valley of Grindelwald.

LEAVING Zürich, with the lake on the left, and the forest of Sichl and the Jütlyberg on the right, a steep road leads to the Albis, which joins the Jütly. On this hill drivers usually stop to give their horses breath. On the top of it is a place called the high watch, which is one of the

heights from which fire signals are given: a practice common in Switzerland, on any extraordinary occasion; by which the confederates are warned. No sooner is one fire seen than the next is lighted; and in a few hours all the watch heights in Switzerland are in a blaze: so that, within four and twenty hours, all the levies of the confederates are under arms. From the top of the Albis the descent is sudden and steep, and forms, with the opposite hill, which is covered with pine trees, a beautiful but narrow valley. From this place may be seen, though at the distance of five or six leagues*, the Rigi, the first hill of the nearest Alps†, or the Alps proper, lying near Küsmacht in the canton of Schweitz.

The town of Zug gives name to the seventh and least of the cantons. It is distinguished from the other democratic cantons by having a town; for the inhabitants of the others, from their love of freedom, and after the manner of the ancient Germans, do not choose to live in towns surrounded by walls. The people of Schweitz, Uri, Unterwald, Glaris, and Appenzel, have no towns.

The administration of public affairs, in the canton of Zug, is partial. There is a general assembly of the town; and likewise the individual general assembly of the three villages, Baar, Egeri, and Mentzing. In these four general assemblies, which are democratic, all foreign affairs, of war, peace, and alliance, are determined. Those resolutions in which the villages are agreed are likewise binding to the town; but should the assemblies divide, two and two, the opinion in favour of which the town declares prevails.

The Ammann, who is not here, as in the other small cantons, called Landammann, is chosen in the town; not by the assembly, but by forty counsellors. To this council the town sends thirteen deputies, and each of the three villages nine. It is a standing rule, that the Amman must be a native of the town, or of one of the villages. If of the town, he holds his office three years; if from a village, only two years. The council of forty likewise appoint the high bailiffs, who govern those villages that have no share in the public administration of affairs. The subjects of the state, except some small taxes to the high bailiff, pay only the church tythes.

The people of Zug are held to be the most reasonless of Switzerland. Their general assemblies are often tempestuous, though seldom stained with the blood of their citizens. The town is built under a mountain, and on the north-east side of a lake; both bearing the same name. The lake is four leagues long, and one broad. Its situation, between the Alps and other high mountains, is inexpressibly beautiful. The wine of the canton of Zug is very acid, while that of Zürich is both mild and powerful.

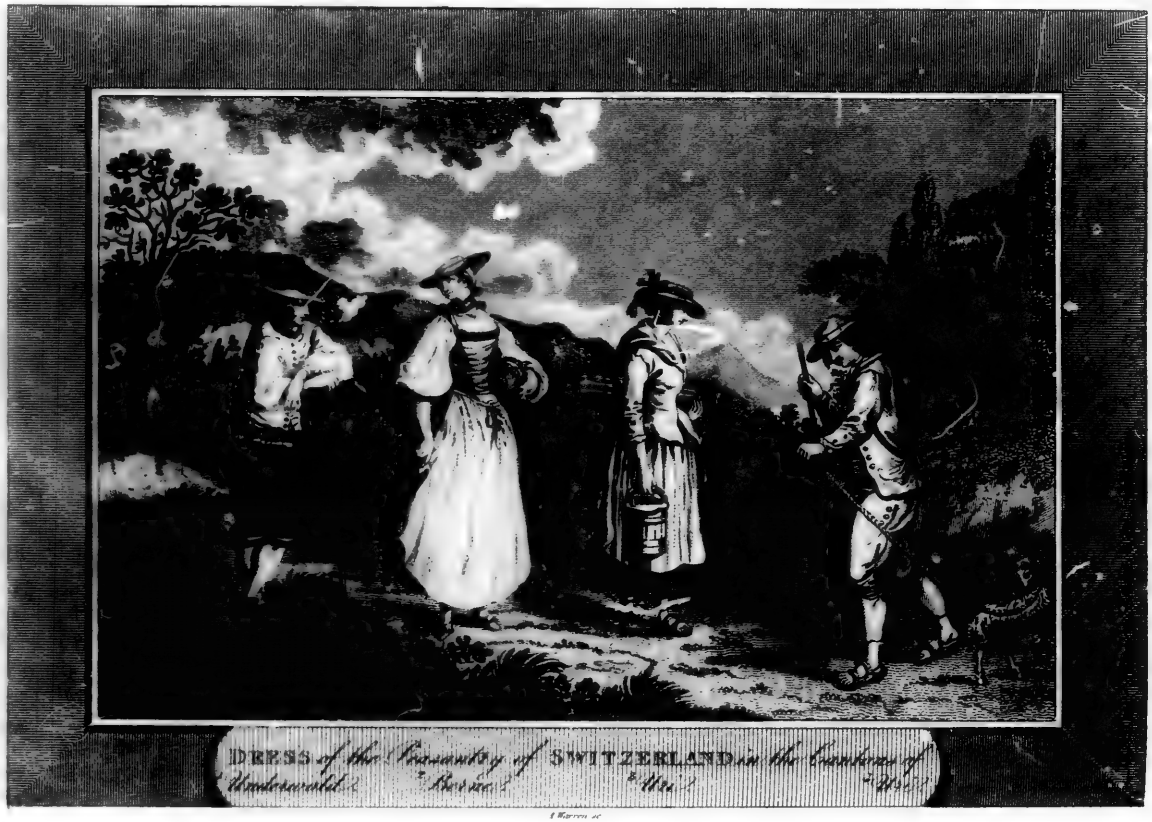
The canton of Lucerne is uncommonly productive. The fertility of the soil, the mildness of the climate, the gentle breezes from the hills, and the frequent morning mists, maintain their verdure a great length of time. Every where are beheld fruitful valleys, clothed with luxuriant herbage, and various flowers.

The people of Zug and Lucerne are very handsome, both in face and form. Freedom and openness of manners characterize this noble and beautiful people; who, among their mountains, friendly, dignified, and unaffected, exercise that virtue, which the Romans and Greeks supposed was only to be found in cities, and which they called urbanity, but which the moderns, having apishly imitated, have from courts called courtesy. The unenslaved shepherds are free in their advances, because they cannot suspect where there is nothing to fear. They approach with a grace; for, as they want for nothing, they ask for nothing. They love, and are beloved by strangers.

No town in Switzerland is so charmingly situated as Lucerne. Lovely hills, mingled with groves of pine and other trees, overlook the town and the neighbouring shore of the lake of the four Walstädte. The Reuss pours its waters into the lake with its accustomed impetuosity. It is navigable, and, by means of the Aar, maintains a trade between Baden and Switzerland; and passing to the Rhine; and might open a more valuable intercourse with Holland. From its situation, which is much more convenient than

* It must be observed, that Count Stolberg makes use of the German modes of measurement. A German mile is from six to eight English miles.

† In the ancient and generally received phraseology of Europe, those mountains which are eternally covered with snow are called the Alps; but not so in the dialect of Switzerland, where every hill has that appellation, on the tops of which even flocks and herds may feed.



DRESS of the Peasantry of SWITZERLAND in the Canton of Underwalden

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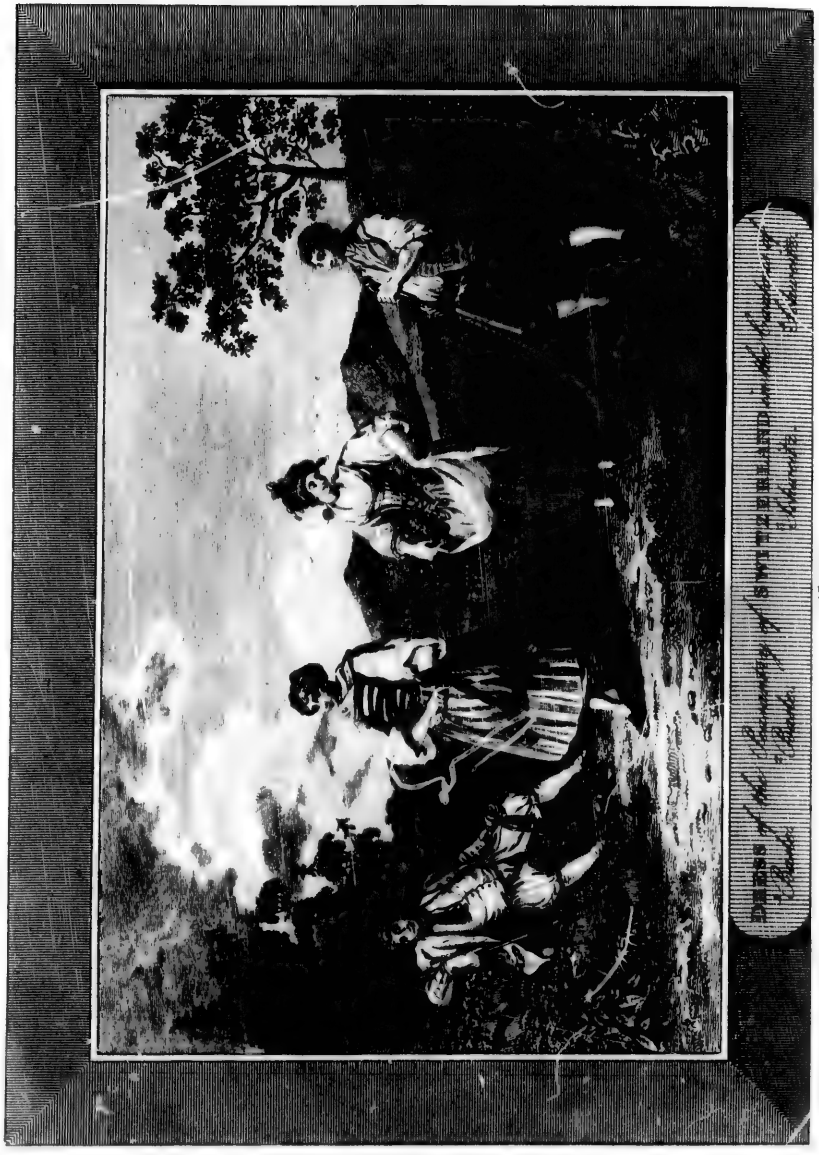


that of Zürich, and from those advantages which are denied Geneva by its jealous neighbours, Lucerne might be the first commercial town of Switzerland; but, like most of the catholic cantons, Lucerne is deficient in industry.

The town of Schweitz lies between its two rocks called the Haken: it is the chief place of the canton of the same name. Some leagues along the lake the land forms a cape, at the point of which there was a prodigious rock, which fell into the lake, and where, at some distance from the land, it now stands erect like a watch tower.

Altorf is the chief place of the canton of Uri, where the general assembly meet on the first Sunday in May. The canton of Uri is divided into ten confederacies; from each of which six of their burghers are chosen, as counsellors. These sixty counsellors, as in the other democratic cantons, enjoy their office for life. Once in two years two Landammanne are elected; each of which has his year of administration. To the one in office is added a deputy, called a Statthalter. The general assembly enacts, alters, and repeals laws, forms alliances, and makes war and peace. This constitution is common to all the democratic cantons.

The people of Uri have two colleges*, the members of which are counsellors; and two courts of justice, civil and criminal. An appeal lies to the general council; but, in this case, a citizen is added to each counsellor. The general assembly takes no cognizance of legal proceedings.

Each youth of Uri enjoys the right of citizenship at fourteen. The number of armed citizens is above three thousand; but this is not the whole amount of men able to bear arms. The fruitful valley of Liniver, which lies beyond the Gothard, and is inhabited by Italians, is subject to Uri. Three other Italian districts, Riviera, Pollenz, and Bellenz, are subject to Uri, Schweitz, and Unterwald; as likewise are Meynthal, Mendris, Lugano, and Locarno, to the eleven other cantons. Appenzel only has no part in these districts.

The democratic burghers, who are all country people, pay scarcely any taxes: the same may be said of the inhabitants of the small cantons, and of the country of the Grisons and Valais.

The people of the valley of Liniver, near the Gothard, from which the Reuss runs down a precipice under the Devil's Bridge, are so far dependant on Uri, that the inhabitants have an appeal from their own court to the canton. Yet they have their small general assemblies, though all that relates to foreign affairs must be subject to revisal at Uri.

Bürgli is half a league from Altorf in the valley of Schacher. Here lived William Tell; but gratitude and reverence changed his cottage into a chapel, where mass is solemnly said, and from which the people go in procession. Like the two other chapels of Tell, it is adorned with images, from holy writ and the history of Switzerland. Under each image is a verse. The following lines are over the entrance:

Allhier, auf dem platz dieser Kapell,
Hat vormals gewohut der Wilhelm Tell;
Der treue retter des vaterlands;
Der theure wrheber des freien stands!
Deme zum dank, Gott aber zur ehr,
Ward diese Kapelle gesetzet her:
Und selbe dem schutz befohlen an
Sanct Wilhelm Röchli, und Sebastian †.

On each side likewise are the following:

Sind wir gerecht, einig, und gut,
So steht die Freiheit sicher gnug ‡.

Dankbar gedenket an jene zeit
Da ihr seid worden gefreite leut §.

In the chapel, over the altar, the dial plate of a clock is painted, with a hand, which is significant of concord, pointing to the hour one; under which are these lines.

Die freiheit wird sein von langer daur
Wenn allzeit Eins zeigt diese uhr ‖.

The constitution of Lucerne, relatively to the town, is more an aristocracy, or rather an oligarchy,

* It must, however, be observed, that these institutions are political, not academical.

† On the place where this chapel stands formerly lived William Tell; the true saviour of his country, the honoured author of its freedom. In thankfulness to him, and in honour to God, this chapel was built. It is dedicated to Saint William of Röchli, and Saint Sebastian.

‡ Let us be just, united, and virtuous, and our freedom will be secure.

§ Thankfully, and for ever, remember the day that made you free.

‖ Freedom will endure so long as it shall be one o'clock by this dial.

oligarchy, than that of Zürich, where each burgher has an equal share in the government. The great council in Lucerne consists of a hundred persons. From these thirty-six men, who must be patricians, are chosen for the little council. There is an appeal from the little council to the collective council. The members of both councils hold their places for life; and it may be said, from the practice of filling up vacancies, that, in the little council, these places are in a certain manner hereditary. The chief magistrates are the two Schultheisse, or mayors, one of whom always sits at the helm of the state. They are chosen for life, and one presides this year, another the next. War, peace, alliance, and new taxes, cannot be incurred without the consent of the assembled citizens.

The peasants are very happy: they pay nothing but tythes in kind, and half a florin annually from every head of a family to the high bailiff. The country people enjoy a free trade, and, in this respect, are not, like those of Zürich, dependent on the town.

This is the most powerful of the catholic cantons, and can bring twenty thousand armed men into the field. The revenue of the state does not consist of above seventy-four thousand florins; of which there is an annual surplus, which is employed for the general good.

On the shore of the lake of Sempach stands the old town of that name; where, in 1386, the famous battle of Sempach was won, by three hundred confederates, against Leopold duke of Austria, and the flower of his army. Arnold von Winkebried, of Unterwald, here broke the phalanx of the Austrian army; opposing himself to their spears, and, by seizing as many as he could grasp, made an opening for his troops: thus willingly devoting himself to death, that he might secure the victory to his fellow warriors.

Sempach, though dependent on Lucerne, enjoys privileges so great that it may well value itself on its freedom. In ancient times it belonged to the counts of Lenzburg, then to those of Kyburg, and afterwards to the counts of Habsburg. In 1333 it allied itself with Zürich, Berne, Basle, Soleure, and St. Gall. After the battle of Sempach it appertained to Lucerne. It has its own magistrates, an extensive jurisdiction, and considerable privileges. From three of its citizens, chosen by the town itself, the council itself elects its Schultheiss.

The lake of Sempach is two leagues long and half a league broad; where there is a considerable fishery, the revenue of which is collected by one of the council of Lucerne for the state.

The canton of Berne is limited by the cantons of Lucerne and Soleure. A good soil, industry well directed, and freedom enjoyed, under a government wise, mild, and limited by fixed laws, raise the people of Berne to a degree of visible prosperity. An acre of meadow land is frequently sold for a thousand rix dollars.

The houses of the country people of Berne are remarkably roomy and neat; and they themselves are well clothed, well fed, cheerful, and strong. Their cattle are large, in good condition, and sleek. The men are well formed; indeed the beauty of both sexes is remarkable.

The town of Thun is built at the end of the lake of Thun, at the mouth of the Aar: its situation is charming. The lake of Thun is about five leagues long and one broad: in many places the depth of its water is a hundred and twenty fathoms. On the left shore are three cascades springing from rocks; viz. the Stampfbach, the Jungfraunbrunnen, and the Beatusbach. The last flows out of a cavern on the Beatusberg. The Breitklavenberg on the right, and the Harderberg on the left, limit the lake, affording only a passage to the Aar, which, a league from this place, flows out of the lake of Brienz, coursing through both the lakes. The Great Eiger, the Little Eiger, and the Jungfrau rise covered with everlasting snow, and higher still the Schreckenhorn, whose rocky summit appears continually covered, during the summer, with two shining snow balls. This summit is always inaccessible, and, in the fame of its height, contends with Mont Blanc in Savoy. The shores of the lake are covered with numerous villages. On the right side the southern mountains rise over the little village of Leissingen; and, for the space of six weeks in winter, conceal it from the sun.

The lake of Brienz is three leagues long, and not quite so broad as the lake of Thun. Verdant mountains surround it on all sides, some of which gently rise, till at a certain height they become steep; some set their bold rocky feet in the green waves, while the summits of others exhibit immense cliffs. Here are many fine waterfalls, the most beautiful of which is the Giessbach.

ach. It passes from a cliff in the rock among ines, and, after twelve different descents, rushes into the lake.

Brienz is a large village, the houses of which, after the general manner of the uplands in the anton of Berne, are built with the trunks of ines stripped of their back and laid one above he other, and roofed with shingles. These roofs re almost flat, and others of them, like the cabins n the Alps; stones are laid to prevent the wind rom carrying them away. The village church built on a small separate rock.

It is three leagues from Brienz to the valley of Hasli; which is sometimes called Ober Hasli, (Upper Hasli,) though there is no Unter Hasli, (Lower Hasli,) in existence. Here are several aterfalls. In this valley stands the village of Meyringen, shut in by high rocks, and secluded, it were, from the whole world. There are re outlets or roads between these rocks: one eading to Brienz, another over the mountain Brüning to Lucerne, a third over the Engelberg Unterwald, a fourth over the Grinselberg to Valais, and the fifth over the Schedeck to Grindelwald. According to tradition the inhabitants of the valley of Hasli, which is about leven leagues in length, came originally from weden. In 1333 the inhabitants shook off the oke of John baron of Weissenburg, and, with grant of great privileges, submitted to the can- on of Berne. They appoint their own council, he members of which are called Gerichtässe; nd from one of three burgomasters, chosen by themelves, the government of Berne appoints their andammann; who exercises the power of a high ailiff, and remains in office six years, but is bliged to give an account of his administration wice a year to the high bailiff of Interlaken. Meyringen is the chief place of the valley. Here re seen several water-falls, *viz.* the Alpbach, the Dorfbach, the Mühlenbach, and the Reichenbach*.

As the traveller approaches the upper region of the mountain the pines begin to be few. The normous rocks extend to the Wetterhorn, at the foot of which stands the Rosenlauer glacier. The last height is very difficult to climb; and the road downward to the Grindelwald is steep and not without danger; there being sometimes precipices, sometimes falling beds of flat slate, and at others short slippery grass.

The lowest glacier stands half a league from the parsonage house, but the difficulty of ascending it is great, it being through a defile almost impassable, from cliffs, flints, and snow. Here "Jacobi," says Count Stolberg, "discovered a spacious hall of ice, which I entered with him; but the clergyman" (of the place, who accompanied the count as his guide) "entreated us to leave it, and persisted in departing from a place where, two days before, there had been none of the ice which we beheld." The people of the Alps are all of them persuaded, that the glaciers continue seven years to increase, and seven years to diminish. The pastor, who has lived here these eight years, has observed it continually decrease. The rock which stands at the foot of this glacier is called the Fischerhorn. The white Lutschina rises out of the glacier, and the black Lutschina from a higher glacier at Scheideck. Their waters mingle in the valley of Grindelwald.

From this place it is four leagues in descent to the valley of Grindelwald, and beside the Lutschina into the valley of Lutschina, from which the road leads to the still deeper vale of Lauterbrunn. The verdant valley through which the Lutschina runs is narrow and very populous.

The Staubbash, near the village of Lauterbrunn, is a waterfall, which rushes down a wild rocky declivity, nine hundred feet high, which is overgrown with brushwood. Here the full stream rolls tempestuously. As it falls the pillar of water disperses into a fine rain, which does not descend perpendicularly, but yields a little to the wind. It then meets with a projecting scaffold of rock, and a part runs down its side in single streams, while another part dashes below in clouds, and covers the green turf with its spray.

* The Reichenbach is one of the most beautiful waterfalls in Switzerland. A lofty current tumbles through the rocky cliffs in broad sheets, and with a thundering din, while the green mountain, far and wide, is covered with its spray. It will take a traveller nearly an hour to reach a bridge which is thrown over the rocky gulph. Here, from above, he beholds the Reisenbach rush, and sees it foam below.

SECTION VI.

Historical Sketches of Berne—Government and Constitution of Berne—General Prosperity of the Canton—Arsenal—Hospitals—Orphan-House—Cathedral—Air—Granaries.

BERNE was founded in the year 1191, by Berthold V. duke of Zähringen. The dukes of Zähringen were statthalters of the German empire, in a part of Swabia and Switzerland. The character of the times impelled the little nobles and free burghers to seek a secure refuge against the enterprizes of the great nobles and their restless fief holders. This town was particularly esteemed a place of safety and of rendezvous for the small nobility. It was built on a spot which nature had fortified; the Aar flowing on three of its sides. Berthold gave the town new laws and privileges, which were confirmed by the emperor in 1218; so that it was, even then, a free imperial town. At the death of Berthold it retained its own government, being neglected by the unstable power of the empire.

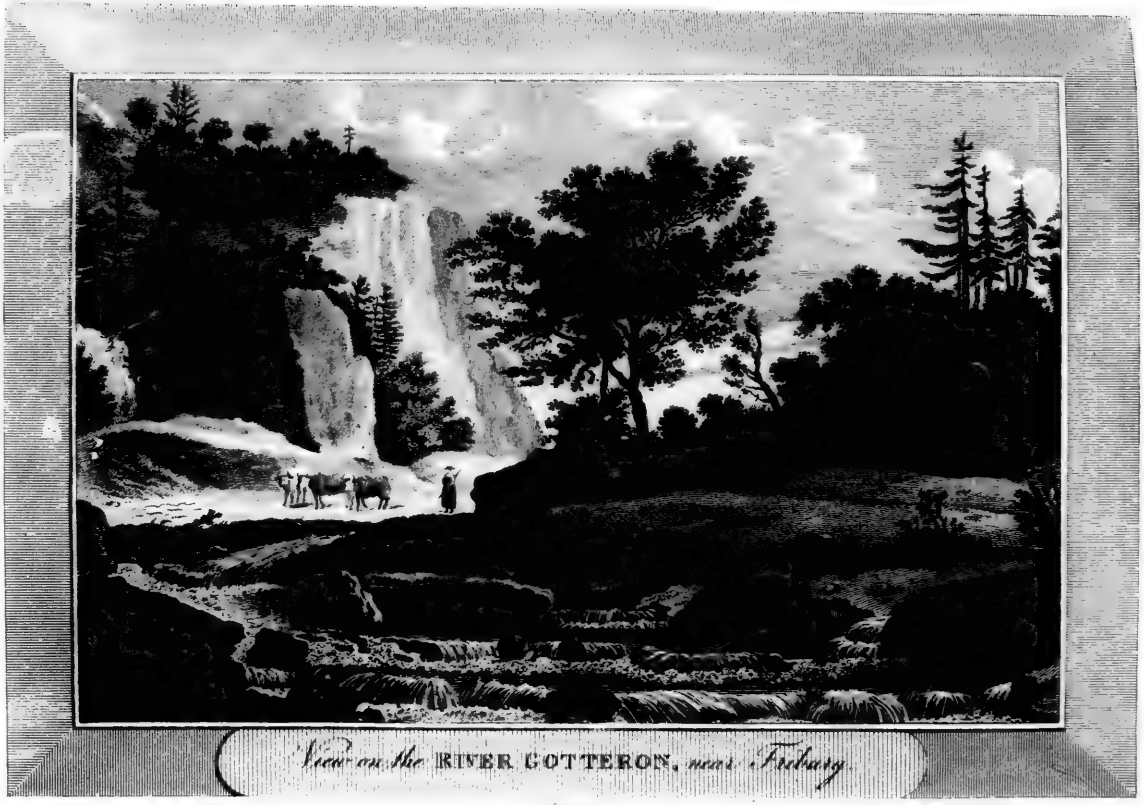
The territory of Berne was divided into four parishes. The nobles ruled the little state, and with their wealth and blood frequently defended its possessions, freedom, and security. The burghers gradually became warlike: their short wars did not hinder them from cultivating their land and collecting its produce, though they were exercised in arms, and thus rendered habitually courageous. The youth of Berne frequently, and perhaps too easily, provoked to the field, inflamed by their increasing love of war, took castle after castle. Enemy after enemy was attacked, and the laws of war annexed the conquered districts to the state. Small communities sought the protection of Berne; which strengthened itself as much by its prudence as by its fortune in war; making alliances with inferior states against the mighty fief holders, who, in the middle ages, were the common foe of growing cities.

Soleure was always the true friend of Berne. Freiburg, although its sister, was always its rival, and frequently its declared enemy. It allied itself against Berne with the jealous counts of Kyburg, Grüyeres, Arberg, Nidau, and Neufchatel. The allies, between twenty and thirty thousand strong, encamped before the little town of Laupen, which, with its district, Berne had purchased, and had first erected a bailiwic. Rudolphus of Erlach, who had served the counts of Nidau, but had deserted them to fight for his country, was the leader of the little army of Berne; which, with the aid sent by Schweitz, Uri, Unterwalden, and other allies, amounted only to five thousand men. The proud counts and their arrogant cavaliers despised the feeble foe; but the prodigious spears, wielded by the nervous arms of the small army, unhorsed the mailed knights. The allies against Berne left three thousand dead on the field. A new victory gained over Freiburg, by which it was in imminent danger, increased the courage of Berne.

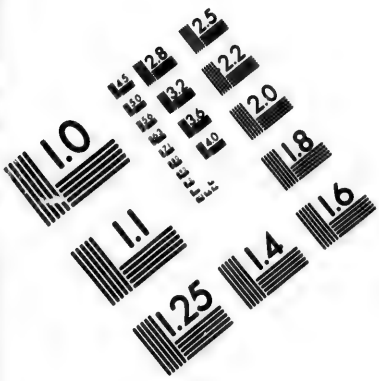
Lucerne and Zürich had entered into an alliance with the three first cantons, and these allies having taken Glaris and Zug by force of arms, communicated to their inhabitants the full rights of liberty; when, in 1353, Berne was received into the confederacy, where it then assumed the second rank, which it has ever since maintained.

While the confederates were acquiring new fame against Austria, at Sempach and Näfels, the people of Berne attacked the counts of Kyburg, who sided with Austria, in Thun and Burgdorf; both of which places were ceded to them at the peace. They likewise conquered the counties of Nidau and Buren. By various means, partly by the bestowing the rights of citizenship, and partly by the conquest of feudal knights and barons, they possessed themselves of the upland valleys of the Alps. These new conquests greatly increased the power of Berne.

When Frederic duke of Austria fell under the bann of the empire for supporting Pope John XXIII. against Martin IV. the people of Berne, instigated by the emperor Sigismund, attacked Aargau, and obliged Zosingen, Aarau, Brug and Lensburg, with their appendages to surrender; and these now form one of the most fertile districts in their possession. They and their allies



View on the RIVER COTTERON, near Freiburg.



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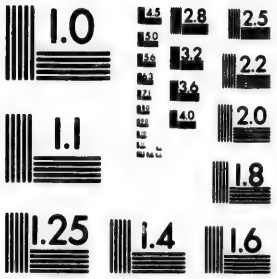

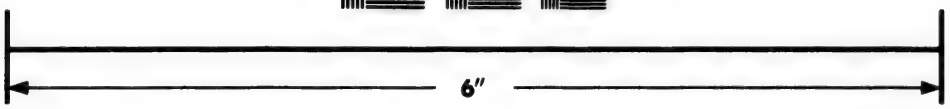

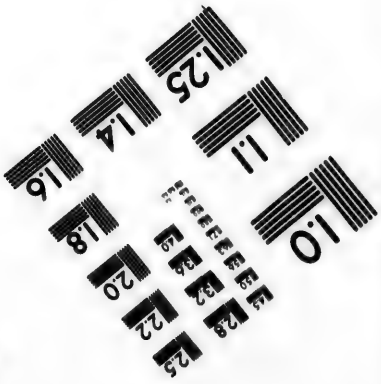

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allies likewise conquered the country of Baden: and Sigismund, glad to weaken his enemy, for a sum of money, confirmed them in the possession of these territories.

The canton of Berne, by a series of successes and purchases, at different times greatly increased their territories and power. It must, however, be admitted, that the canton of Berne, in ancient times, took advantage of the counts their neighbours; and, in modern, of the people of Savoy; to increase their territories: but for many years it has been animated by a different spirit. It is now honoured by all the powers of Europe, and beloved by all the cantons; and it will be difficult to furnish an example, from the history of mankind, where more moderation and love of justice have been seen, than they have shewn to their allies of every description.

With respect to the government of Berne, the most ancient chronicles of the republic shew that, in former times, the whole municipality was occasionally assembled; but such an assembly does not prove any stated or active power. In simple ages men were not so lightly fearful of subtle conclusions. An original paper, so early as 1294, mentions the two hundred. The council of two hundred formerly actually consisted of that round number; but it was gradually increased, till it was sometimes above three hundred. A law therefore was made, which limited the number to two hundred and ninety-nine. No candidates were to be elected till there were eighty vacancies; but here too corruption crept in. Young men who aspired to this honour found old counsellors, who had no longer any hopes of enjoying the office of high bailiff, whom they secretly pensioned to resign their places, in order to make the eighty vacancies, that they might be elected. Hence the law now is, that the vacancies of living counsellors must not be numbered: there must be eighty counsellors dead before there can be any new election. Each candidate must be twenty-nine years of age, dating eight days after baptism. Hence, in families who hope their descendants may be counsellors, they have the males christened immediately after birth. Elections generally happen once in nine or ten years; and any young man who is at this time a minor, if it be but for a few days, must wait till the next election.

Every burgher of Berne has the right of being elected to the highest dignities; but few have the hope; for the little council, which consists of twenty-seven members, and the sixteen, who are annually chosen from the great council, propose the members of this great council; so that they continually circulate among the powerful families. In the collective great council, of which the small council is a committee, all power centres, but in different bodies. The executive power is entrusted to the little council, the legislative to the great. The little council assembles every day, Sunday excepted: it first examines every matter, which is afterwards laid before the great council. All current affairs are in its disposal; as likewise are most of the church benefices, and the inferior of the lay employments. It pronounces sentence in criminal causes, except over the burghers of Berne.

The members of the little council are elected in a very complex manner. On the death of any one member, the remaining twenty-six assemble: twenty-six small balls are put in a box, three of which are gold. The members each draw a ball. Those who draw the three golden balls nominate three electors from their own body. Seven other electors are chosen by the great council. These ten electors nominate a number of candidates, not more than ten, nor less than six. The collective council then give their votes. Those who have most votes in their favour draw four balls, two of which are gold, and two are silver: one of those who have drawn the golden balls is elected, by the plurality of votes of the collective council.

The little council consists of two advoyers, two treasurers, two bannerets, seven counsellors, and two secret counsellors. The two advoyers preside in the collective council and in the little council. They are elected by the collective council. They hold their office for life; though the collective council has the right to remove them. The reigning advoyer has the seal of the republic lying before him: he never gives his vote till it is demanded; nor has he any vote, till, the numbers being equal, it becomes necessary for him to decide. The two treasurers and the four bannerets constitute a college, or committee, of finance. The bannerets are only a year in office; the treasurers may be continued for six years. Each banneret is likewise a high bailiff.

The bailiwics are divided into four classes, according

according to their importance and revenues, and are frequently very lucrative. No man can be high bailiff of the first class above once, twice of the second class, and three times of the third and fourth, and the latter must be at intervals. The high bailiff continues in office six years, and each annually lays his accounts before the committee of finance. Their power is very great. To them is the police, the execution of the orders of the council, the disposal of the public money, and the corn granary, the appeals from the small courts, and the power of pronouncing sentence, when complainants bring their causes before them, entrusted.

The revenues of the state are not large; yet sufficient for a republic, the rulers of which have most of them no salary, and the rest very little, and which maintains no standing army. These revenues consist in some domains, the tythes, a certain small ground rent, the sixth part of the allodial fines of the fiefs in the Pays de Vaud, the tenths of those inheritances in this same country which do not descend to the next heir, certain trifling tolls, and the monopoly of salt. Of this monopoly no one complains; for it is sold cheaper by the government than it could be afforded by the trader.

The people are regularly trained to arms, and annually mustered. They are divided into twenty-one regiments of foot, each two thousand strong, and four companies of jagers, or light horse, and eighteen of dragoons. Beside these the persons who hold estates that confer titles of nobility raise several companies of horse. No soldier, whether of horse or foot, dare marry till he has first provided himself with uniform, arms, and accoutrements. This is the dress of the bridegroom. The dragoon must provide himself with a horse; but this is no great difficulty, since, as a farmer, he must keep many horses.

The arsenal is well stored: it contains above a thousand cannon, many mortars, muskets for sixty thousand men, and sufficient arms for the cavalry. There are three companies of cannoneers, and one of bombardiers for the artillery. The arsenal is likewise remarkable, to a traveller, for its ancient Swiss and Burgundian armour. The prodigious two handed swords and long spears are dreadfully cumbrous. The banners of Burgundy, and the ropes with which the Swiss were to have been bound, are preserved and exhibited in a truly republican spirit. There is also the wooden image of William Tell in the act of shooting the apple from the head of his son. The building, however, is a bad one, and does not correspond to the greatness of its destination.

The hospitals are both of them beautiful: one is called the Insel, (or Island,) because of its detached situation. The sick of all nations are here carefully nursed and dressed in roomy apartments; from which there is a full prospect of the great chain of distant glaciers. Equally remarkable is the other great hospital, which much rather resembles the palace of a prince than the abode of the poor: yet not the least convenience is sacrificed to magnificence. The front gives the impression of greatness, which idea is much increased by the motto, "CHRISTO IN PAUPERIBUS:" *i. e.* "To Christ in the Poor." The court is a verdant lawn, planted with trees and numerous flowers, and a fountain is in the centre. Fifty persons, some of them poor, others sick, are here supported: beside which others are lodged and maintained at a small expence. There is likewise in this hospital a separate part for poor travellers: in the evening they are supplied with bread, wine, and a bed; in the morning they receive a breakfast, which is usually bread and wine, and a small supply of money.

In what is called the Orphan House, which is not intended for orphans only, but for other children of the burghers, forty boys, for the small annual sum of thirty six dollars, are fed, clothed, and instructed in the christian religion, reading, writing, arithmetic, German, French, Latin, Greek, history, geography, mathematics, singing, and drawing.

The Cathedral is one of the finest and largest I have seen, says Count Stolberg. Before it is a spacious walk of trees on a bold and elevated terrace, which commands a prospect of the whole town, of the windings of the Aar, and especially of the great chain of glaciers. The money for building this cathedral, like as for building St. Peter's at Rome, was collected through all Europe: for which purpose the pope granted his indulgences.

The Granaries are well built, and are an ornament to the town; and the use to which the government puts them is deserving of praise. Corn is collected here in great quantities, not, as in

Geneva, to oblige the baker to purchase there, to prevent the price being excessive. Berne often furnished neighbouring states with corn, some few years since it generously assisted eneva to its own loss.

The air of Berne is so healthy that the register for centuries proves, that one man in three attains the age of seventy. This sanity of the air is ascribed to its high situation, the neighbourhood of the glaciers, and the curvings of the rapid Aar.

SECTION VII.

ake of Bieler—Peter's Island—Vallangin, and Neufchatel—Chaux de Fond—Grandson—Yverdon —Meillerie—Vevay—Lausanne, its Government and Public Buildings.

THE lake of Bieler is thus called after the town and republic of Biel, which is situated the east shore: it is four leagues long, and one road, and is surrounded by the canton of Berne, e principality of Neufchatel, and the bishopric Basle. This lake has its peculiar beauties. mong hills that gently rise from the shore, e meadows, pasture land, corn fields, vineyards, d woods, intermingled with unceasing variety. umerous small towns, villages, and hamlets, ove the population of this distinguished coun-y.

In the middle of the lake the Peter's Island ses; its verdant shores crowned with trees, and the west declining with hanging vineyards. his island belongs to the rich hospital in Berne: e purveyor of the hospital inhabits the house, nder the shore, in which Jean Jacques Rousseau, r a short time, resided. In his chamber every rner and plank was scribbled over by travellers, all languages.

The county of Vallangin and the principality f Neufchatel, united, are ten leagues in length, nd five in their greatest breadth. They are supposed to contain forty thousand inhabitants. In 707 their race of princes became extinct, and he inhabitants chose Frederic I. king of Prussia, r their prince, as heir to the house of Chalons, fter having stipulated for their reciprocal rights. he representative of the king swore to leave their ights, liberties, and customs, written and unritten, unmolested; and the representatives of he country, in return, took the oath of allegiance.

This little country has great difference of limate; the south part, toward the lake, enjoys very mild air, and wine, with every kind of rain, and fruit, are produced here; but the seasons of the north, on the contrary, including a part of Mount Jura, are rude, and the lands with difficulty produce oats and barley.

The Chaux de Fond is a valley about two leagues long, is divided into eleven parts, and, exclusive of the villages, is every where scattered over with houses. Here, under the wing of freedom, inhabit industry, order, art, and prosperity. Here the inhabitants are maintained by their manufactures and the excellence of their pastures. The number of these inhabitants is about three thousand, four hundred of whom are watch-makers. Each part of the watch is made by its particular workman; which increases the accuracy of the work and the dexterity of the artist, and lowers the price of the watch. From ten to sixteen thousand watches and many clocks are annually made here. Sixteen hundred women are supposed to be employed in the lace manufactory.

The town and bailiwic of Grandson belong in common to Berne and Freiburg. In 1476 the town was taken by Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, who, contrary to his pledged faith, hanged a part of the garrison and drowned the rest; but soon afterward he was defeated by the Swiss, at the same place, and lost his camp, his baggage, and his artillery. This battle was the harbinger of the victory of Murten, by which he was humbled; and of the battle of Nancy, where the restless warrior lost his life.

Yverdon is among the oldest towns in Switzerland. It is one of the four towns of the Pays de Vaud which are called *Les quatre bonnes Villes, i. e.* The four good Towns: these are Moudon, Yverdon, Morges, and Nyon. They have considerable municipal rights, with a little and a great council, consisting of thirty-six persons,

the president of whom is a banneret. There is an old castle in Yverdon, with four towers, which was built in the twelfth century by Conrad, duke of Zähringen. In this town there is a society that collects voluntary alms for all the poor, to prevent begging, and keep the country free from the dirt, disorder, and immorality of mendicants. The town is built at the south end of the lake of Neufchatel, in a charming situation.

Meillerie in Savoy, famed for its rocks, is a little village, pressed as it were between the waters of the lake and the rising mountain. The rocks, which are a part of the mountain, are perpendicular to the lake, and leave but a small space between the cliff and the edge of the lake. The inhabitants of Meillerie have neither corn fields nor vineyards. Before and over their houses are numerous tall poles, loaded with grapes as excellent as those of the Pays de Vaud; but they are not in sufficient quantities for the making of wine, and are therefore eaten. Few of the inhabitants are wealthy enough to keep a cow: they chiefly live on the produce of their walnut trees, the oil of which is expressed from the nut; and on their chesnuts, which they barter for corn. Their principal food is chesnuts, fish, and potatoes.

Vevay is an old town. In the itinerary of the Emperor Antonine it is mentioned by the name of Viviscum; and the Germans still call it Vivis. It is the next town in rank, of the Pays de Vaud, to Lausanne, and is even more pleasant than the latter, by its situation and the mildness of its climate. Like the other towns of the Pays de Vaud, it has a great and a little council, with many privileges. It contains one church, which is very handsome; the square towers of which may be seen at a great distance. The town is well built, and inhabited by wealthy citizens. About the distance of a cannon shot to the east another little town is built, called La Tour de Peyl, which appears to make but one with Vevay.

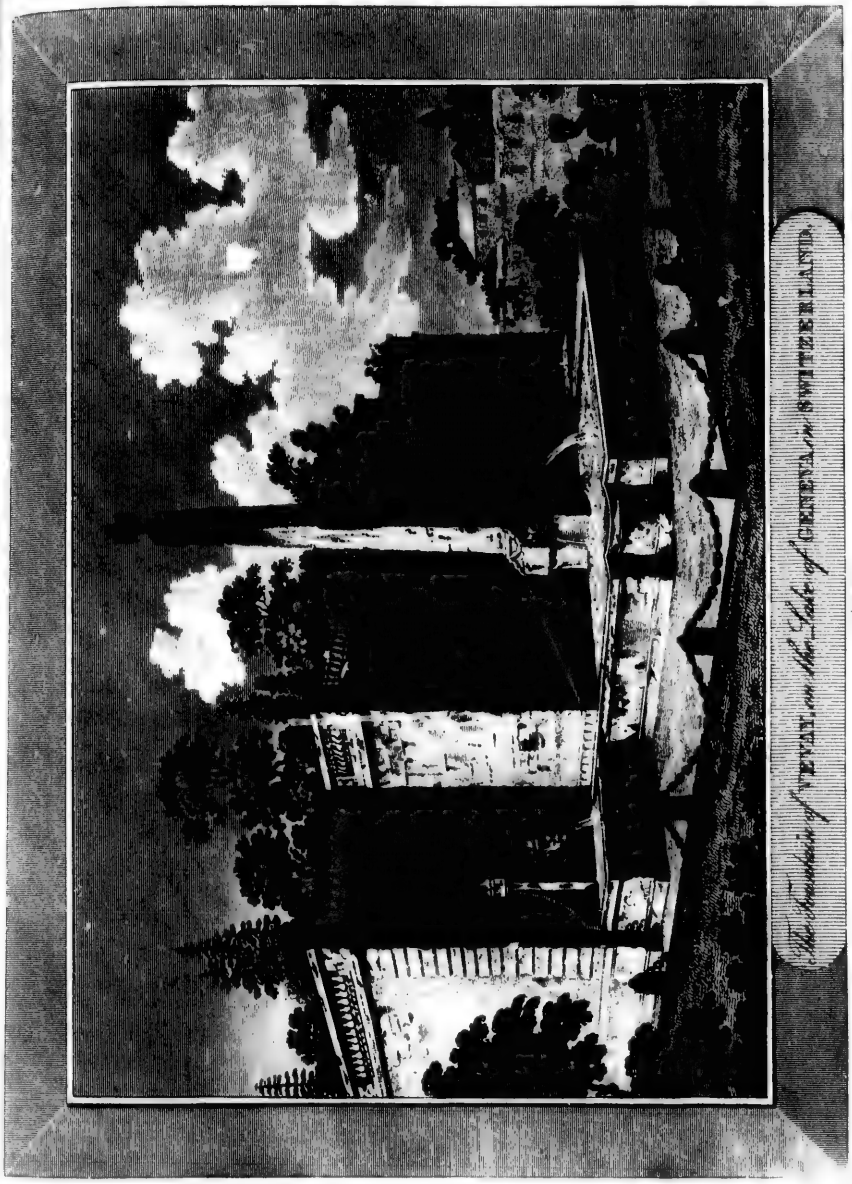
Lausanne is the largest town of the Pays de Vaud, and is built on a rising height, a short half league from the lake of Geneva. The houses are handsome, but the ground upon which they are built is so unequal that three horses are generally obliged to be harnessed abreast to draw a coach up their steep streets. In the times of the Romans it was called Lausonium or Lausanna, but it is supposed to have been built lower than that time, and nearer to the lake. Lausanne enjoyed great privileges while under the jurisdiction of its bishops, but they have much been extended under the government of Berne. Lausanne elects its own burgomaster, five bannerets, the little council, the council of sixty, and the great council of two hundred. The town holds its own upper and lower courts of justice. The government of Berne has reserved nothing for itself, except the rights of sovereignty, of arming soldiers, coining money, and that best of rights the right of forgiving. The cathedral is very beautiful, though built in the gothic style. Facing the church there is a walk planted with trees, from which there is a beautiful prospect toward the lake. The hospital is large and magnificent. In this country the benevolence of the inhabitants is greater than the necessities of the poor. This fine building is almost tenantless.

SECTION VIII.

Geneva, and brief History thereof—Government, and State of Manners—Population and Extent.

THE city of Geneva, with its small territory, lies between the confines of Switzerland, Savoy, and France, and is built on the beautiful lake which takes its name. The Rhone flows through the city, where it forms an island which is covered with houses.

Geneva was converted to christianity in the third or fourth century; but was afterwards more than once shaken and overrun by the northern invaders. Some of the kings of Burgundy chose it for their residence: it next fell under the jurisdiction of the kings of France. Charlemagne granted the town considerable privileges. It afterwards became a part of the kingdom of Arles



Arles, and after that of Burgundy. The Burgundian race having become extinct, Geneva was incorporated, by Conrad II. with the German empire, in 1032. Its bishops gradually became more potent, and accumulated their claims, which its ambitious counts disputed with them. The people at length acknowledged the bishops as their sovereigns; but the people possessed considerable privileges. They annually chose a syndic, and a treasurer; and these appointed a council. The people were consulted in the imposing of taxes and in forming alliances. Neither the bishop nor the magistrate could undertake any thing of importance unless they were assembled; and each, at coming into offices, made a solemn oath before the syndic, by which he promised to leave the privileges of the city undiminished. About the middle of the fifteenth century the number of the council, under which the presidency of the syndics held the administration of public affairs, was fixed at five and twenty, and a superior council of fifty was instituted, which, in certain cases, was to be associated with the former. This was the origin of the great council of two hundred. In 1526 Berne and Freiburg renewed their alliance (which had been interrupted) with Geneva; and from this period it may be truly estimated to have become a free state. In 1535 the council of two hundred admitted and countenanced the doctrines of the reformers, and Freiburg renounced its alliance. The following year Calvin came to Geneva. This man, whose thoughts were as ardent as they were profound, communicated order both to church and state. By his advice, in 1559, the academy was founded; a seminary which has produced great men in every science. After great and violent contentions for many years, Geneva was acknowledged as a free and independent republic by the king of Sardinia, in 1754, and the boundaries of Geneva and Savoy were accurately determined. The state now paid off the remainder of its debts, and it appeared to have attained that chief of blessings, peace at home and with all the world. The fire, however, though smothered was not extinguished. A partial enjoyment of the blessings that result from freedom occasioned, as usual, dissatisfaction, in a city in which there was an equality of rights, but a great inequality of wealth. In 1762 the democrats excited new commotions, in consequence of the decision of the council, on two of the works of Jean Jacques Rousseau, *viz.* his "Emilius" and his "Social Contract." These works were both forbidden, the former from religious, the latter from political motives. The council knew that Rousseau had fled from Paris to Geneva by reason of the trouble he was likely to receive on account of these writings. From Geneva he went to the mountains of Neufchatel, and held a correspondence with his friends in Geneva; who presented a remonstrance against the decision. They demanded that the affair should be examined by the council general; that is, by the assembled citizens. The council, on the contrary, maintained that their demand was unconstitutional. The partisans of Rousseau were called Remonstrants; the friends of the council, the Negatives. M. Tronchin defended the Negatives in "Lettres écrites de la Campagne;" which was answered by Rousseau in his "Lettres écrites de la Montagne;" by which the party of the Remonstrants was still more inflamed. In 1765 the citizens rejected all the counsellors who were named as candidates for the election of new syndics, and the election did not take place. The magistrates demanded aid of their three allies, France, Berne, and Zürich. These powers sent plenipotentiaries, and twenty-four commissioners were chosen from among the citizens. They decided in favour of the council; which so provoked the citizens, that, in a general council, they rejected the decision of the mediators. The court of France sent troops on the confines of Geneva, and prohibited all trade with the Remonstrants. The ambassadors from the interfering states published a proclamation for the restoration of order, under the title of *Prononcé*. To this the citizens paid little attention, held the menaces of the foreign plenipotentiaries in contempt, defied their magistrates, and obliged the government so to compromise these disputes as to give the power into the hands of the popular party. This compromise was effected on the 11th of March, 1768. Some years afterwards open war broke out between the Remonstrants and the Negatives; the Remonstrants twice flew to arms, and in the spring of 1782 several of the members of both councils who were suspected by them were imprisoned; and, aided by the natives, they seized on the gates and the ramparts. While in this state of commotion, France, Sardinia, and Berne,

Berne, sent their troops into the city, and a new conciliatory plan was devised, which was accepted by the little council, the great council, and the council general, on the 4th of November, that year, which promised permanency, by the guarantee of the interfering powers. In 1789 fresh disturbances broke out; the government called in the regiment from its barracks, but the burghers found means to avoid the soldiers, and still continued their tumults: the regiment, after it had been twenty-six hours under arms in the middle of winter, abandoned its posts; and the burghers having now become masters, a new convention was made, by which the people regained the right of election, and obtained the establishment of a city militia. The true constitution was thus once more restored, and the burghers would have remained tranquil had not their imaginations been disturbed by the French revolution. Some of the burghers ardently desired that Geneva might become incorporated with France. The inhabitants were excited to arms, and were joined by the inhabitants of the country of Gex, which belongs to France. The insurgents had almost gained possession of the city, but were however prevented. An accommodation once more took place, by the confirmation and extension of the privileges of the people.

The government of Geneva, being now firmly settled to the mutual satisfaction of all parties, exercises its functions with justice and impartiality, for the benefit of the republic: and their civil code is laconic, unambiguous, and simple; and where this code is insufficient the Roman code is consulted. This little state, which probably contains more knowledge and wealth than comparatively any other in Europe, is less troubled with lawsuits than any other. At present they only enumerate five advocates who really practise, and seven attorneys. Whoever would have a perfect idea of the justice administered in this city must read the excellent work entitled, "Etat civil de Génêve, par François André Navillc, Citoyen de Génêve."

The manners of the people here are likewise comparatively pure. The young men are well informed: the education of the women is no less carefully attended to; and they are as celebrated for their real merit as for their charming manners. At Geneva it is almost become proverbial to say, "Happy the children who have a woman to instruct them."

There is an excellent law of the republic which deserves notice. If a son does not pay his father's debts, which the law cannot oblige him to do, he is excluded from the enjoyment of every public office. The same prohibition extends to all who have not paid their own debts.

The corn chamber is an useful institution. Its duty is to take care that a certain quantity of corn shall be always in the granary; and the state has the exclusive privilege of selling corn to the bakers: it sometimes gains; but it is much oftener a considerable loser. This regulation is necessary in a city whose small territory is insufficient for its own consumption; and those who imagine that this privilege ever degenerates into a monopoly, in Geneva, are neither acquainted with the people nor their government.

The number of the people, according to the accounts delivered in, anno 1790, was twenty-six thousand one hundred and forty within the walls, and nine thousand without; amounting in all to thirty-five thousand one hundred and forty souls. The whole territory of the republic consists of three square leagues and seven hundred ells, allowing twenty leagues to a degree.

SECTION IX.

Savoy and Savoyards—Chamberry—Hannibal—Laneburg—Passage over Mount Cenis—St. Ambrosio—Rivoli—Plains of Lombardy—Assassinations—Turin, its Origin, Situation, Plan, Streets, Palaces, Buildings, Arsenal, and Sluices—La Superba—Alessandria.

ABOUT a quarter of a league from Geneva the duchy of Savoy begins. The country is fruitful, and surrounded by mountains at some distance; yet the valley soon becomes narrow, and appearances change. The Savoyards, whom Count Stolberg saw at a fair in a valley at Frang[illegible] were

ere poor but joyous, and did not belie their haracter; loud mirth, yet not riotous, rang hrough the valley, and brightened in their faces. uyers and sellers appeared with their wares, nd seemed satisfied with their bargains, and ith each other. The horned cattle, which this air was for the purpose of vending, are a large ne breed, though not so fine as those of Swit-erland. The goats are extremely beautiful, the wine very large, sleek, and all of them black.

Chamberry, the chief town of the duchy, con-ins about thirteen thousand inhabitants. Not-withstanding that many of the nobility winter here the town is ill built; but its fruitful neigh-ourhood, and the orchards which shade the alleys, make it very pleasant. The industry ith which the fields of Savoy are cultivated is onderfully contrasted with the uncleanliness of eir inns.

The little town of Laneburg stands at the foot f Mount Cenis, in a wild situation, built with aterials dug from the rock, and roofed with ate; which, that the wind might not carry way, is overlaid with stones. In ascending the ount, the road is steep and very uneven, being ill of large stones. The descent from Mount enis is one uninterrupted zig-zag. Steep as e mountain is on the side of Savoy, it is still uch steeper and much higher on that of iedmont. The Semar, a rivulet which takes its e in the lake on the mountain, dashes down mong the rocks, and forms an uncommonly eautiful cascade. It then rushes through a high alley, and separates Savoy from Piedmont. At usa it falls into the Dora, which is mingled ith the Po at Turin. Here the charms of avoy take a kind of solemn farewell of the raveller; being separated from Piedmont by ocks of a strange appearance, and thundering ataracts. The road, for some leagues, is over steep and stony path, full of short turnings, aving high rocks on one side, and on the other eep precipices.

At Susa the valley becomes narrow, and forms he celebrated pass of that name; which is rengthened by the fortress of Brunette, com-anding two vallies, and standing opposite to he fortress of Briançon, on the confines of rance.

Between the little towns of St. Ambrosio and ivoli the vallies widen, and many ruins of an-cient castles are seen among the mountains. The parts around are fertile and pleasant. Rivoli is overlooked by a royal castle, built on a hill.

Turin is only two leagues distant from Rivoli. The road is in a straight line, uncommonly spa-cious, with a ditch on each side, that is planted with a row of large elms.

The extensive plains of Lombardy, the fer-tility of which have been famous for these thou-sand years, begin on this side Rivoli. It was to these plains that Hannibal pointed, as a recom-pense to his army, for the labours of their march, and as the seat of future victory, for which the hero was the guarantee. They extend over Piedmont, Milan, Mantua, and the Vene-tian territory, as far as the Adriatic. The lands are excellent, and mulberry trees are frequently planted among the corn. At some distance high hills are seen, which are clothed with vineyards and fruit trees.

The Piedmontese are justly accused of a pro-pensity to drunkenness, and of being scandalously rapacious, which induces them to commit mur-der in cold blood. It is strange, that, in so ac-tive a government as that of Sardinia, no decisive regulations should have taken place, sufficient to redress this evil. How conspicuous does this make the character of nations! Among the inha-bitants of Savoy, under the same government, the traveller is in perfect security; while on the plains of Piedmont, and in the very neighbour-hood of the metropolis, a man may be murdered at an inn, or on the high road.

Turin is one of the most beautiful and most ancient cities of Europe. From history we learn that Taurasia was the chief city of the Ligurians, and the first which Hannibal took after his passage over the Alps. Some centuries afterward, under the reigns of the Cæsars, the Romans sent a colony to this place; and gave it the name of Augusta Taurinorum. The situation of Turin is uncommonly beautiful, and, as most travellers have remarked, very much resembles that of Dresden. Immediately facing the gate, which takes its name from the Po, there is a bridge over the river, that neither corresponds with the beauty of the city nor the dignity of the stream. The Po Street, which leads to this gate, is hand-somely built. The plan of Turin is a noble one. The streets are in right lines, and the gates and the houses are built in a good style and taste; though

though the streets, in proportion to the height of the houses, the Po Street and the New Street excepted, are not sufficiently spacious. In the Po street there are handsome and lofty arcades on both sides of the way. The outside of the castle is not very promising; but the apartments are very magnificent. In the picture gallery are several fine paintings.

Between the castle and the principal church the chapel of the holy handkerchief is built; which relic the city believes itself to possess. The chapel is entirely of black marble. The capitals of the pillars, and the large silver candlesticks, by which alone the building is lighted, are gilded. The entrance inspires holy solemnity. The supposed genuine handkerchief, which is considerably large, is only publicly exhibited at the beginning of a new reign, at the marriage of the prince royal, or when any person of great rank arrives at Turin and makes the request. Here is a chalice of extraordinary value, set with jewels, said to be the richest in Italy: it is made in a good taste.

The celebrated palace of the duke of Savoy, the façade of which is built with pillars of the Corinthian order, stands near the castle, than which it is a much finer building. Next to this the palace of the prince of Carignan is the handsomest.

The arsenal, which is still to be enlarged, is a fine and uncommonly capacious building, including five courts. The halls are supported by heavy pillars, similar to those of gothic churches. Round each of these pillars a thousand musquets are ranged in an ornamental manner. Pyramids are erected between them, on which horse pistols are piled with great elegance. In the midst of these halls is one of a large size and circular form, the walls and pillars of which are ornamented with trophies of ancient armour, ranged in military pomp. The arsenal contains arms for a hundred and twenty thousand men. The cylindrical ramrod for artillery is not yet in use: the ramrods here are all of iron. In an adjoining chamber are a considerable number of small light arms, which from being very wide at the muzzle are called tromboni, as resembling a trumpet. The king has forbidden the use of them, they being destructive and easy of carriage, and are therefore well adapted for the banditti, for which reason they have been all bought up. They are capable of being loaded either with balls or with cartridge shot, with which, by scattering, they make dreadful havoc. There is a cannon foundery, and likewise a chemical laboratory, annexed to the arsenal.

On the banks of the river, near the city, is the beautiful royal castle of Valentin, which the king granted to his chamberlain in chief, as a summer residence. The garden annexed to it is applied to botanical studies.

Sluices are carried through the streets, to cleanse them, by means of a canal, which receives its waters from the Dora. These sluices flow through drains into the Po, in consequence of which the city is always clean. There are many large squares here, among which that of St. Charles is the most spacious and beautiful: the buildings are handsome, and it has extensive arcades on each side.

Two short leagues from Turin is the height on which the church called La Superba is built, and is one of the most beautiful places of Italy. This height overlooks the plains of all Piedmont as far as the utmost limits of the Alps and Apennines*.

There is a large building annexed to the church which is inhabited by twelve canons, who are provided for as a part of the establishment. The whole has a striking appearance of grandeur and magnificence. The church is in the form of a Grecian cross, that is, a cross the length and breadth of which are equal. It is ornamented with a cupola, on the sides of which two small towers are built. The royal sepulchral vault is under the church; in which the coffins are granted and richly ornamented. A singular custom is here established, that the king who died last is to be buried in one particular grave, out of which his predecessor is to be removed. The canons have an excellent library, which is particularly rich in the writings of the fathers, and is well provided with classics and the works of modern authors. From the top of the cupola is seen one of the sublimest spectacles in nature: the plains of Piedmont, the meanders of the Po, the

* The church was built in 1706, in consequence of a vow to the holy virgin, made by Victor Amadeus II. when the French was besieging Turin, to induce her to assist him to raise the siege. This help was sent him in the person of the great Eugene, who led the imperial forces, and in that of the prince of Anhalt, who commanded the Prussians, who

hole shining circ's of the snow-covered Alps, d after these a rang: of the Apennines.

La Veneria is the principal country palace of e king, andis situated about two leagues and half from Turin. The royal family always re- ain here fifty days in the spring of the year. he church is beautiful: the palace contains andsome apartments, and the garden is very rge, but entirely laid out in the French taste.

Turin is very populous: the streets are full of eople, though the court, the greatest part of e nobility, and many students and professional en, to the number of three thousand, are absent. In winter the number of inhabitants is estimated at nearly one hundred thousand.

Alessandria is a tolerable town in the Piedmont district of Milan, which in 1703 was ceded at the treaty of Turin by Austria to Savoy. It was built toward the end of the twelfth century by the citizens of Milan, Cremona, and Placenza, as a place of refuge against the emperor Frederic I. The town Alessandria in 1178 was named after Pope Alexander III. The town has a considerable trade, particular in cotton, silk, and the merchandize of the east.

SECTION X.

istorical Sketches of Genoa—Struggles for Freedom—Its Contentions—Territories—Manufactures —Population—Palaces—Hospital—Pavia, its City and University—City of Milan, Cathedral, Ambrosian Library—Lodi—Placenza—Parma—Reggio and Modena—The Bucket—Bologna—Population and Institutions of Bologna—Particulars concerning the People and City of Bologna.

THE city of Genoa is of very high antiquity, and of very doubtful origin. The Italians ll it Genova. It was early allied to the Roans, and, in the second Punic war, was deroyed by Mago, the brother of Hannibal. An ncient inscription proves that it afterwards beame a Roman municipal city. When the Ostrooths overran the Roman empire this city fell nder their jurisdiction, but was again recovered y Belisarius, It was afterward laid waste by e Saracens and Lombards. Charlemagne was e last who took it; and he restored it to its anent freedom. His son Pepin gave it to Adhear, a Frenchman, with the title of Count; but e Genoese shook of the yoke in the eleventh entury, and appointed consuls. Even in these mes the city was surrounded with walls, and ivided into six parts, with a tribune over each ivision. Quarrels soon took place among the itizens, who chose a foreigner to be their poesta, or chief magistrate; but, weary of this ey appointed a governor, and afterward elected Doge from the nobility and the citizens. They ere induced, however, by new disturbances, to ut themselves under the power of Charles VI. f France. In 1409 they broke the chains with hich they had fettered themselves, put the rench garrison to death, and subjected themselves to the marquis of Montferrat. In four years afterward they recovered their liberties, and once more elected a doge: but they soon became tributary to the duke of Milan; and again in 1436 regained their freedom. In 1458 they once more subjected themselves to the French; and in three years the people asserted their former rights, and re-instituted the doge. They once more offered themselves to Lewis XI. who replied that, if Genoa were his he would consign it to the devil. After this the city was torn by intestine divisions, by the factions of the Guelphs and Ghibelins, and by the contests between the families of Adorno and Fregoso. The emperor of Germany, the kings of France, and the dukes of Milan governed it in turns; and it was on the brink of destruction when the naval hero, Andrea Doria, one of the greatest men Italy ever produced, snatched it from the arms of France, and once more restored it to its freedom. It was in his own choice to have been the monarch of his country; but he nobly declined the sovereign rule. In 1684 it was bombarded by the French, and obtained peace only on the most humiliating conditions.

It was our intention to have followed Count Stolberg in his excellent account of the constitution of Genoa; but as that republic no longer

longer exists, it being united with the French empire; as mentioned in the note, we forbear to touch upon it, since it has undergone such alterations as to the wisdom of Napoleon seemed meet*.

The territories of Genoa contain ninety German square miles, allowing fifteen miles to a degree; and its population is estimated at four hundred thousand souls. The country is mountainous and sterile, the people laborious and hardy. Their grain is insufficient for their own consumption; but this is amply compensated by their vineyards and their orchards of excellent fruits. The silk manufactory is so extensive that the raw silk produced in their own territory is an insufficient supply: they are therefore obliged to purchase more from the Two Sicilies and Piedmont. The oil produced at the presses of St. Remo is acknowledged to be the best in Europe.

From the multitude and beauty of its palaces the city deserves, and has obtained the epithet of *La Superba*, or the magnificent. The streets, which are kept clean with remarkable care, are many of them uncommonly narrow; and as the town is exceedingly populous, the throng is very inconvenient. The houses are from five to six stories high, and some of them even seven and eight. The palaces are forty-four in number, most of which are built in a noble style. Its situation, on the shore of the Mediterranean, is certainly one of the grandest and most beautiful in the world. The number of its inhabitants is supposed to be eighty thousand.

The red palace of Brignole is a fine building, well furnished with excellent paintings; among which Christ driving the Money Changers and and Sellers of Doves out of the Temple, and Christ with the Tribute Money, are beautiful and expressive. The palace of the doge is grand, but not to be compared with the palaces of many private persons. The pillars are daubed over with paint, and the marble is concealed. The whole building appears rather to pretend to grandeur than to possess it. Fronting the staircase in the court are marble busts of Andrea and John Andrea Doria, which are ill executed.

The great hospital has been built by the grandees of Genoa. Its marble pillars, its handsome staircase and avenue, and the greatness of the whole excite admiration. The sick of every nation and of every faith are here admitted, and the number of them in winter frequently amounts to sixteen hundred. The hospital is ornamented with about seventy statues of persons who have made donations; and the kind of rank which these statues maintain among each other is remarkable. Those who have bestowed fifty thousand livres of Genoa have each a marble bust; those of a hundred thousand have a whole length statue; and those who have given a greater sum are seated.

From Genoa the Count took the road to Pavia, which was called Ticinum by the Romans. When it was the seat of the Lombard kings, it is probable that, in proportion to the times, it was a more considerable city than it is at present. The number of its inhabitants is computed at about thirty thousand. Pavia is noted for its university, which was founded by Charlemagne. The divines of this university are famous for their rectitude, their zeal, and their talents. The number of students amounts to about twelve hundred. There are six different colleges, in which students are instructed gratis. The collegians are distinguished by the colour of their robe and by an embroidered ornament, which they wear upon

* Under pretence that the Genoese were incapable of protecting themselves from the depredations of the Barbary powers, a treaty was concluded October 20th, 1804, between the republic of Genoa and Salicetti, the French minister, upon the part and in the name of his government. By this treaty Napoleon acquired possession of all the naval means and resources of the republic. The arrangements, however, made by the treaty were of a temporary nature; for several circumstances seem to point out that Napoleon had determined to annex Genoa to the French empire. The particular geographical situation of the Genoese territories seems to have been a primary motive to this measure. That republic, extending along the gulph to which it has given name, was interposed between Piedmont and the Mediterranean; and as this latter country had been united to France, the incorporation of Genoa became necessary to complete the arrangement. As a mark of policy, it has been suggested, but with what truth we pretend not to vouch, it was determined, that the proposal should originate with the senate and the people of Genoa, and that Napoleon should seem to accede to the general wishes and entreaties of the republic. Accordingly the senate, after due deliberation, resolved that an address should be presented to Napoleon, praying that he would allow the republic of Genoa to be permanently united to the French empire. To this address he listened with attention and with favour; and afterwards addressed the doge and the deputies in a speech, in which he enlarged upon the importance and the necessity of this union to the republic of Genoa. The annexation of Genoa to France took place in the spring of 1805.

the right shoulder. The revenue is annually twenty-four thousand and it possesses a very fine b The air, which is not healthy th is particularly unhealthy in Pa summer.

The whole country between I is one entire flat. Milan is a v which was founded by the Gauls dred years before the birth of Ch chief place of the Insubri; and Polybius, was of a considerable of Trajan it was numbered amon cities of the Romans, and in it t at that time, flourished. Milan of many of the emperors after th empire. About the middle of t it was laid waste by Attila. It w ed by Belisarius. It again fell i the barbarians in 539. After C driven the Lombards out of M covered its prosperity, under The inhabitants rebelled again Frederic I. and insulted the em her on an ass. and, placing her ward the tail, leading her thr Frederic marched against them v city was obliged to capitulate, emperor took an indignant and for the insults that had been c wife. The inhabitants, with t behind their backs, were obliged fig, with their teeth, from unde ass, and the city was laid in r the city was rebuilt, and soon rec importance. The city is suppo hundred and forty thousand 1790 the people of Austrian M amounted to one million three thousand.

The cathedral was built by G Visconti: it is exceedingly large Peter's at Rome, and St. Paul esteemed the largest in Europe. you enter is very grand, and th like many others, disfigured by The treasury of the church i value: the silver, gold, pearl

* The emperor totally demolished the only excepted; he gave orders that it

the right shoulder. The revenue of the university is annually twenty-four thousand Dutch ducats; and it possesses a very fine botanical garden. The air, which is not healthy throughout Milan, is particularly unhealthy in Pavia, especially in summer.

The whole country between Pavia and Milan is one entire flat. Milan is a very ancient city, which was founded by the Gauls about four hundred years before the birth of Christ. It was the chief place of the Insubri; and, in the time of Polybius, was of a considerable size. In the age of Trajan it was numbered among the municipal cities of the Romans, and in it the sciences, even at that time, flourished. Milan became the seat of many of the emperors after the division of the empire. About the middle of the fifth century it was laid waste by Attila. It was again recovered by Belisarius. It again fell into the hands of the barbarians in 539. After Charlemagne had driven the Lombards out of Milan, the city recovered its prosperity, under the archbishops. The inhabitants rebelled against the emperor Frederic I. and insulted the empress, by tying her on an ass, and, placing her with her face toward the tail, leading her through the city. Frederic marched against them with an army, the city was obliged to capitulate, and the enraged emperor took an indignant and terrible revenge for the insults that had been committed on his wife. The inhabitants, with their hands tied behind their backs, were obliged each to take a fig, with their teeth, from under the tail of an ass, and the city was laid in ruins*. In 1171 the city was rebuilt, and soon recovered its former importance. The city is supposed to contain a hundred and forty thousand inhabitants. In 1790 the people of Austrian Milan and Mantua amounted to one million three hundred and ten thousand.

The cathedral was built by Giovanni Galeazzo Visconti: it is exceedingly large; and, after St. Peter's at Rome, and St. Paul's at London, is esteemed the largest in Europe. The aspect as you enter is very grand, and the church is not, like many others, disfigured by false ornaments. The treasury of the church is of inestimable value: the silver, gold, pearls, and precious stones which it contains, are supposed to render it the richest in Italy, that of Loretto excepted.

The library of St. Ambrosio was founded by Charles Frederic Borromeo, archbishop of Milan, and nephew to the great Carlo Borromeo. The number of books is very great. Here are above fourteen thousand manuscripts, and about forty thousand volumes of authors in print. The manuscripts, which constitute the richest part, are kept in an apartment by themselves; and among them is a Latin version of Josephus, which is said to be thirteen hundred years old. The books are kept in a spacious gallery, which has windows only on the top at both sides, and which is yet very light. By this method much room is gained. The library is open four hours every day, for the use of the public. It is likewise decorated with many noble pictures. In a hall of the library plaister casts are kept of the principal statues of the ancients.

The seminary, the Helvetian college, the large hospital, the archiepiscopal palace, and the duke's palace are worthy the attention of travellers.

Lodi is not the ancient Laus Pompeia, which owed its foundation to the Gauls, and to which the father of Pompey led a Roman colony, for that town was destroyed by the people of Milan in the twelfth century. When Frederic Barbarossa had razed Milan to the ground he built the present Lodi on the Adda, with a fortress upon a height, which in itself is scarcely visible, though the most commanding in these level plains. The town is well built. Büsching tells us that, in 1773, it contained above sixteen thousand inhabitants. It is situated about half a mile from the ancient town, which is now called Lodi Vecchia. It is at Lodi and in the neighbouring country, which is called after it, that the celebrated cheese is made, which has unjustly obtained the name of Parmesan. The country between Milan and Lodi is every where one continued level. The horned cattle are generally of a dark red colour; the sheep are large, entirely white, and with hanging ears; the swine are all black.

The town of Placentia (now Placenza) was founded and a colony sent to it, in the year 569 of the Roman æra, under the consulship of P.

* The emperor totally demolished the city, three churches only excepted; he gave orders that it should be burnt to the ground, likewise that it should be ploughed up, and the land be sowed with salt.

Cornelius Scipio and Tiberius Sempronius Longus. It was burnt during the second Punic war by the Carthaginians, and rebuilt by the Romans. In the time of Cicero it was a municipal city. Placenza, as a city, is not so beautiful as its situation would promise, when viewed from the Milan side of the Po; it rather appears in a state of decay.

The country of the duchies of Parma and Placenza is not quite so flat as that of Milan. The fertile lands appeared to be well cultivated. The roads, however, are never safe by night. The city of Parma is very ancient: it was founded by the Etrurians, and was afterwards in the possession of the Gauls. A Roman colony was sent to this place a hundred and eighty-four years before the birth of Christ. Parma was the native place of Cassius, the brother-in-law and friend of the great Marcus Brutus, and the first who joined him in the conspiracy. This city contains about forty thousand inhabitants.

Reggio was founded by the Romans in the year of Rome 565. The father of Marcus Brutus was murdered here, because of the hatred borne him by the father of Pompey. The town is not well built, but contains about seventeen thousand inhabitants. It is the chief place of the duchy of Reggio which is united to the duchy of Modena. The whole country between Parma and Modena is well cultivated. The fields are separated from each other by rows of large trees, round each of which a vine plant clings.

Modena is a handsome city. The chief streets are spacious and in a right line. The houses are beautiful, and so flat roofed that the roofs cannot be perceived from the streets. Lofty arcades projecting from the houses give the town a noble appearance, and afford the foot passenger a dry as well as a shady walk. The population of the city is about twenty thousand, and of the two duchies of Modena and Reggio taken together three hundred thousand. In the cathedral the bucket is kept which the people of Modena took from the people of Bologna, and carried with them as a proof of their victory.

Not far from the city of Modena there was formerly a ferry over the Panaro; at present there is a magnificent bridge. The Panaro separates the territories of Modena from those of Bologna. From Modena to Bologna both sides of the road are planted with large mulberry trees. The fields are separated from each other in right lines by elm trees. The land is fruitful; and, immediately round Bologna, we met with many well cultivated kitchen gardens. In this mild climate the vegetables of summer and of autumn are seen in great plenty ripening at the same time. The city of Bologna is pleasantly situated on the river Rene. It is a very ancient place. In the times of the original Etrurian inhabitants its name was Felsina, and it was the chief place of the Etrurian confederacy. Theodosius the younger founded the university that is here. Bologna coins its own money, on which the word *Libertas* is impressed. The city of Bologna is supposed to contain seventy thousand inhabitants; and, next to Rome, is the principal of the states of the church.

The grand institution for the encouragement of the sciences and the fine arts, which was founded in 1712, is an enormous building, which contains above forty apartments, with many halls under them, and a provision for the support of the arts and sciences, rich beyond all that I have ever seen, says the Count. The cabinet of natural history is not only amply provided with the wealth of nature, in every division of her three kingdoms, but the specimens are peculiarly fine, especially the fossils.

The library contains above a hundred and twenty thousand volumes, not including the numerous and valuable manuscripts, which fill an entire apartment. Besides which those apartments that are dedicated to study are furnished with a library for each science. The hall of anatomy is large, and well supplied with all parts of the human body, which are admirably imitated in wax. The large and valuable collection of philosophical instruments which belonged to the late lord Cowper was purchased in 1790 by some private citizens of Bologna, and presented to the institution.

Next to Rome there is no city in the world so rich in excellent paintings as Bologna. Here we find noble specimens of all the great artists of Europe, and the master pieces of those painters who formed themselves in this school. Of about two hundred and fifty churches, there are few which do not contain some of the works of these great artists, and many are full of them.

There are two small square towers in the city, which are named after the noblemen at whose expence

quence they were built, Asinelli and Garisendi. The height of the first is three hundred and seventy-six feet, and that of the town of Garisendi a hundred and thirty. The latter stands so obliquely that the top is nine feet from the perpendicular. The people of Bologna esteem this a wonderful effort of architecture, although probably it is nothing more than a consequence of the sinking of the ground.

Here, as in many parts of Italy, the men wear cloaks; and the women, as in Modena, have them of black sattin. At a distance from several of the gates arcades are built, as walks. The young gentlemen exhibit themselves frequently in this city as so many Phaëtons, in their high carriages; in which they drive standing, and have servants behind.

SECTION XI.

Florence; its Picture Gallery, Statues, Museum, Palaces, Paintings, Churches, Library, and Benevolent Societies—Pisa; its mild Air, Tower, Cathedral, Houses, and Exchange—Sienna; its Cathedral and Library—Rome—Thermæ of Dioclesian—Fontana del Aqua Felice—Church of Santa Maria Maggiore—Triumphal Arches of Constantine and Titus—Manners of the People of Modern Rome—Description of St. Peter's Church.

THE city of Florence, which in the time of its freedom was one of the most populous in Europe, does not now contain more than seventy-four thousand inhabitants. Its site on the Arno is beautiful; and its four large bridges give it a grand appearance; but it is not well built: the streets are narrow and crooked. The Florentine gallery contains pictures of the greatest masters, but they are not their best performances. It is better provided with ancient statues; for it contains the finest productions of antiquity. The hall abounds with statues of many of the ancient emperors and empresses, the famous Venus de Medicis, an Apollo, the Roman slave, the wrestlers, and the dancing fauns. A colossal head of Alexander dying is of the highest beauty.

The museum of the Grand Duke is a very ample and remarkable collection from the three kingdoms of nature. The anatomical preparations, in wax, are executed with great powers of deception. Here are a vast number of specimens of birds, which are equally well preserved, and in all their natural attitudes. It is likewise admirably rich in insects and shells; and their mineralogical collection is exceedingly ample. The new palace of the grand duke, called the Palazzo Pitti, from its former possessor, is noble in appearance without, and magnificent within. It is most remarkable for its fine collection of pictures.

The church of St. Lawrence is famous for being the burying place of the family of the Medici. There is a fine library belonging to this church, the books of which are all chained to the tables, but may be reached with convenience. The number of books does not appear to be considerable, but it contains some choice manuscripts.

Here is a noble institution, which does honour to Florence, and which originated in the age of liberty. A community, which is called La Societa della Misericordia, which consists of all ranks of people, make it their duty to afford aid to the poor and helpless of the city. After enquiring into the diseases of the sick, they either take them to an excellent hospital or into their own houses. Any person, meeting with an extraordinary misfortune, may depend upon receiving succour from this community. When the society assemble, or when any sudden accident calls a number of them together, they appear in masks: partly from prudence, to conceal themselves, and partly not to put the poorer members of the society to the blush, by the difference of dress in the more wealthy. They afford their aid, when necessary, unasked. When a distressed person meets with any accident, though he have never belonged to the society, he is made welcome. Similar societies, which are called *confraternita*, are common in the towns of Italy.

Pisa is well deserving of notice, and is remarkable for the fine air it enjoys. The road is pleasant,

sant, and sometimes leads by the banks of the Arno. The land is cultivated with extreme care, and planted with numerous olive and mulberry trees. Pisa must have been built some centuries before the destruction of Troy. It became one of the principal cities of the Etrurians. On the decline of the Roman empire, it obtained its freedom; which contributed, with its situation on the Arno, to raise it to a high degree of power and rule. The people of Pisa took the islands of Sardinia and Corsica from the Saracens, the town of Palermo in Sicily, and likewise of Carthago. It greatly aided the crusaders, and themselves raised the siege of Alexandria in Egypt. Afterwards its liberties received a most deadly wound in the war it waged with Genoa. In this war Pisa lost twelve thousand men, forty-nine gallies, its haven, Porto Pisano, and the navigation of the Arno. From this time the commerce of Pisa greatly declined. After the last struggle to recover its liberty, Pisa declined so fast, that from a hundred and fifty thousand, its inhabitants were reduced to about fifteen thousand.

The famous tower of Pisa, which is swayed fifteen feet from its centre, has a noble appearance: it is the belfry of the cathedral. In this church is the famous Campo Santo, which consists of a spacious corridore within a court, the figure of which is an oblong square.

The houses of the city are ancient; the streets, however, are wide; and, on one quay, there are some noble palaces. The exchange consists of very handsome high arcades, built with stone, which on festival days are illuminated.

Sienna lies high among the Apennines, between hills that are planted with olive trees. This town is indebted for its cool summers to the height of its situation; but its winters are often severe; at least they are thought so by the Italians. Its circumference is computed to be a German mile, yet the number of its inhabitants is only seventeen thousand. It formerly contained a hundred thousand people. The cathedral is an excellent gothic building, of white and red marble. The front is perfectly gothic, and covered with numerous carved images. The pavement within the church is of great beauty: it represents stories from holy writ, in mosaic work; and is covered with boards, which are removed when strangers come to visit the church. Here is what is called the library; but in which the only books now remaining are about thirty large folio volumes of church music, which have belonged to the cathedral more than three hundred years. They are decorated with finely illuminately figures, painted by a monk.

The entrance into the city of Rome is through La Porta del Popola, and is very grand. This gate is likewise is called Porta Flaminia; for here the Flaminian way began.

The Thermæ of Dioclesian are in this city. The wood Thermæ may be easily misunderstood: it may be supposed to mean nothing more than warm baths; but the baths were properly not more than accessory. The chief purpose of what was called the Thermæ was to form a place for the exercise both of body and mind. The plan and its execution exceed all expression. Here in one row of buildings, all in harmony with each other, there were four half circular halls; which were intended, two for philosophers, one for poets, and another for orators. A Greek and a Latin Library, a building for boys to play at ball in, the warm baths, three spacious open places, one for wrestlers, one for the casting of the discus, the third for throwing the lance, and a large bath for swimmers. At the two corners were two round temples. One of these temples, which constituted but a small part of the whole, is now become the church of the Bernardines. The whole wall is ancient. The place which was destined for the wrestlers is now become a Carthusian church, built in the form of a Greek cross. The large bath for swimmers is dried up, and is now the garden of the Carthusians. The Bernardine cloister, many large granaries of the Pope, and a great laundry, take up the remainder of the place which was formerly set apart for these buildings.

Near these Thermæ is the beautiful Fontana del Aqua Felice; so called after Sixtus the Fifth, whose proper name was Felix. This pope restored the ancient aqueducts, and likewise the fountain of Aqua Julia, that was erected by Agrippa.

The church of Santa Maria Maggiore was built in the middle of the fourth century, during the pontificate of Pope Liberius, on the ruins of the temple of Juno Lucina. Within it was entirely of the form of the ancient basilica, or court of justice; a form which was chosen by the Christians for two reasons: first, because of their

their dislike to the Pagan temples; and, secondly, because the form of the basilic best corresponded with the church service, and the liturgy of those times.

Not far from the Colosseum are the ruins of a temple, which was dedicated to Phœbus and Diana. It rested on two semi rotunda, the back parts of which touch each other.

The triumphal arch of Constantine is in good preservation; and, for the most part, it is embellished with statues and bassi relievi of ancient times. Over the triumphal arch there is the figure of the hero, as a conqueror, in bronze, in a chariot with four horses.

The triumphal arch of Titus is much celebrated. Here are seen the river Jordan, one of the seven-branched candlesticks of the temple, and a table with the shew-bread, carried in triumph. In the hollow of the arch above is the apotheosis of Titus. The Jews to this day do not pass through the arch, but on one side.

On the right of the triumphal arch of Titus are the ruins of the Temple of Peace, which appears to be the largest of those that were erected by the Romans.

The education of the daughters of the nobility in modern Rome is wretched. Indeed, from the bad education of the women, domestic virtues, and with them the domestic happiness of the higher ranks, are injured; and the poison of these vices sheds itself among their inferiors; whose passions, without this concomitant, are violent to excess. It is dreadful to hear, that, in Rome, the population of which is estimated at a hundred and sixty-eight thousand persons, there are annually about five hundred people murdered I do not believe, says Count Stolberg, that, in all Germany, fifty men perish by murder within the same period. The people of Rome cannot be justly accused of robbery. A stranger is no where safer, but is more frequently plundered in most of the great cities of Europe. The Roman stabs his enemy, but does not rob. Anger is his stimulus; and this anger frequently lingers for months, and sometimes for years, till it finds an opportunity for revenge. The passions of the people of Rome are frequently roused, by playing at *mora*, though the law severely prohibits this game; and, if they are disappointed at the moment of their revenge, they wait for a future occasion. Jealousy is another common cause of murder: it being with them an imaginary duty to revenge the seducer of their wife, their daughter, or their sister, on the seducer. The catholic religion, ill understood, encourages the practice: the people being persuaded, that, by the performance of trifling ceremonies, and inflicting of penance, they can wash away the guilt of blood.

All the assiduity of the present Pope* is not sufficient to reform the police; the faults of which originate in the constitution of Rome. Many churches afford a sanctuary to the pursued culprit. Foreign ambassadors likewise yield protection; which extends not only to their palaces, but to whole quarters of the city, into which the officers of justice dare not pursue offenders. The ambassadors, it is true, are obliged to maintain a guard; but who is ignorant of the mischief arising from complicated jurisdiction? Many cardinals seek to derive honour by affording protection to pursued criminals. Could we find all these abuses collected in any other great city, many men would be murdered, though not so many as in Rome; but robbery would be dreadfully increased, which is here unknown.

A sense of the ancient grandeur of Rome is not yet quite lost to the people. When the Queen of Naples was last here, and at the theatre, she was received with great applause. Self-forbearance induced her to make signs to the people to cease their loud clapping, and their shouts of welcome. The people took this very ill; and, the next day, a person of my acquaintance, says the Count, heard one orange woman say to another, "Did you hear how the foreign queen despised our people last night? She must surely have forgotten that many queens, before now, have been brought in chains to Rome."

To enter into a particular description of the various antiquities, remains of amphitheatres, &c. within the city of Rome, would naturally lead us into a detail of ancient history, which our limits would not admit; we shall therefore conclude our account of this celebrated city with a

* This account was written by Count Stolberg on the 3rd of January, 1792; and these matters still continue the same. What effect the government of the new king of Italy may have upon these practices we presume not to say.

description of St. Peter's church, which we are the rather inclined to, because of its magnificence, and because the Count seems to have passed it over, almost in silence, from other authentic documents.

The far-famed church of St. Peter is situated on the west side of the river in Trastivere, and is greatly admired, both for its dimensions and its architecture. That the reader may have a good idea of the building, we need only to mention, that St. Paul's Cathedral at London is built after the same model. The length of the outside of St. Peter's, including the portico, is seven hundred and twenty-two English feet. The length within, not taking the portico, or the thickness of the walls, is five hundred and ninety-four feet. The breadth of it from the north side of the cross to the south side, or from the north to the south door, on the outside, is four hundred and ninety feet. The breadth, from the north to the south door within is four hundred and thirty-eight feet. The breadth of the body of the church is eighty-six feet eight inches. The height of the body of the church is an hundred and forty-four feet. The outward circumference of the dome or cupola is six hundred and twenty feet. The circumference of the dome within is four hundred and forty-nine feet ten inches. The breadth of the front of the church is four hundred feet. The height from the pavement to the top of the cross which is over the ball is four hundred and thirty two feet. The circumference of the ball is twenty-four feet six inches. The height of the statues which are on the cornice of the front is eighteen feet. The body of the church, as well as the cupola, is sustained by large square pillars, like those in St. Paul's, but have the advantage of being incrustated or overlaid with marble, as well as the walls, which is however so tarnished by the smoke of the lamps and candles that the plain stone in St. Paul's looks full as well. The great altar is directly under the cupola, being a kind of pavilion supported by four wreathed brazen pillars, adorned with foliages, and strewed with bees, which are the arms of Pope Urban VIII. Over every column of the altar is an angel, brass gilt, seventeen feet high, with the figures of children playing and walking on the cornice, the height of the whole being ninety feet; and about the altar are an hundred silver lamps perpetually burning. The inside of the cupola is ornamented with mosaic work, representing Paradise, the Eternal Father, and many other figures; and in the corners below are the four Evangelists of the same kind of work, admirably well executed. On the inside of the four square pillars which support the cupola are erected gigantic statues of St. Veronica, St. Helena, St. Longinus, and St. Andrew; and under the pedestal of each statue is an altar, with a beautiful picture of each saint. These statues and pictures are placed here in regard to certain relics which are kept in the vestries belonging to these altars or chapels, as they are called; as, first, the handkerchief, which, according to tradition, St. Veronica lent our Saviour as he was carrying his cross to Mount Calvary, and still retains the print of his face*. 2. A piece of the *real* cross of Christ. 3. The top of the lance wherewith Longinus pierced our Saviour's side, sent as a present by Bajazet, emperor of the Turks, to Pope Innocent VIII. And, 4. The Head of St. Andrew. Under the high altar there is a stair case which leads to the chapel where, it is said, part of St. Peter's body is kept, and to the other holy places in the vaults of this church. An old wooden chair, supposed to be St. Peter's, enclosed in brass, and supported by four doctors of the Roman church, whose Colossean statues are of brass gilt, is not one of the least ornaments of St. Peter's; the chair, with all its furniture, having cost seven thousand five hundred and fifty Roman crowns. The riches and beauty of the chapels and altars round the walls of this church can never be expressed: the gilding, carving, embossed work, statues of brass of marble, are all disposed by so wise and happy a contrivance, that the abundance does not cause the least confusion. Among other admirable pieces, the Dead Christ, of alabaster, by Michael Angelo, is said to be a stupendous work; the two wreathed pillars of alabaster brought from Jerusalem by Helen, the mother of Constantine, and erected at a side altar, are much admired; the altar-piece representing St. Michael, in mosaic work, shews such a vivacity of colours and exact proportions of all the parts and lineaments of the body, that it passes for a wonder of its kind; the Martyrdom of St. Sebastian, the Visitation of the Blessed

* One of these handkerchiefs is kept at Turin: which is the right one we shall not attempt to determine.

Virgin, the Crucifixion of St. Peter, the fall of Simon Magus, and a thousand other historical pieces, are exquisite performances. There are also a great number of tombs of popes, cardinals, and other persons of distinction; particularly those of the emperor Otho II. Charlotte, queen of Jerusalem; and of Adrian IV. the only English pope. The tomb of St. Peter serves for an altar to say mass on. The tombs of Urban VIII. Paul III. Alexander III. the countess Matilda, who gave her estate to the church, are works of a finished beauty and magnificence: nor does the tomb of Christina, queen of Sweden, who voluntarily abandoned the glories of a crown for a religious retirement, fall short of the rest. The inside of St. Peter's is adorned with above a hundred columns of the finest, and for the most part, antique marble, with some of brass. Here are also an infinite number of excellent paintings, the master-pieces of the most celebrated pencils; with several other curiosities of art and nature, which can never be too much admired or applauded for their magnificence. The sacristy of this church, and that of the Pope's, contain also a vast variety of sacred utensils in gold and silver enriched with precious stones, as crosses, shrines, chalices, pontifical tiara's, mitres, priestly habits, and ornaments that are inestimable. If we look upon the building only, exclusive of its rich materials and furniture, the church of St. Paul in London, is very little inferior to that of St. Peter. Some think St. Paul's is to be preferred to it, since the latter is not encumbered with chapels on the sides, as that of St. Peter's is, which greatly obscure the prospect of the building. That spacious court in the front of St. Peter's indeed, surrounded by a piazza of two hundred and eighty-six fine marble columns, adorned with a prodigious number of statues, gives it some advantage over that of St. Paul's. Here are two fine fountains playing in the middle of the area, which are no small addition to the beauty of it: from whence is an ascent to a lofty portico before the church by twenty-four steps, and from this porch the church is entered by five doors, one of which, called the Porta Sancta, is opened only in the Jubilee year. The porch in the front is eighty-five feet high, and supported by pillars three fathoms in circumference, the vaulted roof gilded and beautified with stucco work, and on the architrave is the following inscription: "In honorem principis Apostolorum Paulus Quintus Burghesius Romanus, Summus Pontifex Anno 1612." Over the porch are the statues of our Saviour and the twelve apostles, and in a balcony here the popes are crowned, in the view of all the people. The two principal doors of the church are above forty feet high and covered with brass, on which are represented our Saviour, the Virgin Mary, the crucifixion of St. Peter, the decollation of St. Paul, the coronation of the emperor Sigismund by Eugenius IV. and the re-union of the Greek and Roman churches. The building of this church was began by Pope Julius II. from a plan laid down by the famous architect Bramante Lazari, and continued by Michael Angelo, under the pontificate of Paul III. nor was it finished till the time of Pope Paul V. so that it was an hundred years in completing.

SECTION XII

Torre degli Schiavi—Aqueducts—Fountains—Museum of the Capitol—Pyramid of Cestius—Visit to La Riccia—Albano—The Church of Lateran—The Obelisks of Rome—The Pantheon, its Antiquities, Grandeur, and Beauties—Pillars—The Museum Pium Clementinum—The Palazzo Borghese.

ABOUT half a league from Porta Maggiore, (formerly called Prænestina, also Labicana,) on the east side of the city, there is an ancient round half fallen building; which appears to have been erected about the second or third century after the birth of Christ, and to have been called (but for what reason does not appear) Torre degli Schiavi; *i. e.* the Tower of Slaves. This structure is a sepulchre. The cupola is very flat, and covered with grass and brambles. Some remains of a wall denote an enclosed place, that formerly stood facing the sepulchre. Perhaps combats of gladiators were given here in honour of the persons whom they interred.

Nothing

Nothing attracts the notice of the traveller more forcibly than the long row of grand aqueducts, which formerly were extended far beyond Tibur, the present Tivoli, to this place, and by which water was brought to the city. The beautiful arcades of the lofty wall, over which the water ran, rise high in the air. The work was begun by Claudius and finished by Nero. Six aqueducts met together at the Porta Prænestina: one of them was subterranean, and proceeded from the river Anio, now the Teverone. The greatness of the work of the aqueducts, of which there were several, was very astonishing, because the Romans, probably to prevent the too quick course of the water, did not build them in a continued right line, but frequently with large windings. Time, and still more effectually perhaps the barbarians that have successively taken and ruined Rome, has rendered these aqueducts useless, except the three which still remain, and which three continue to supply several of the fountains that adorn the city, and afford its inhabitants water.

In the large place called Navona, which occupies the space where the Circus of Alexander Severus formerly stood, there are three fountains. That in the middle is large. On a rock, which is perforated on four sides, the emblems of the four principal rivers of the world are lying: the god of the Danube as a giant; the Nile, with his head covered, in allusion to the unknown sources of the stream; the Ganges; and the Rio de la Plata. Vast streams pour from their urns into the large bason, and supply the pipes of other fountains.

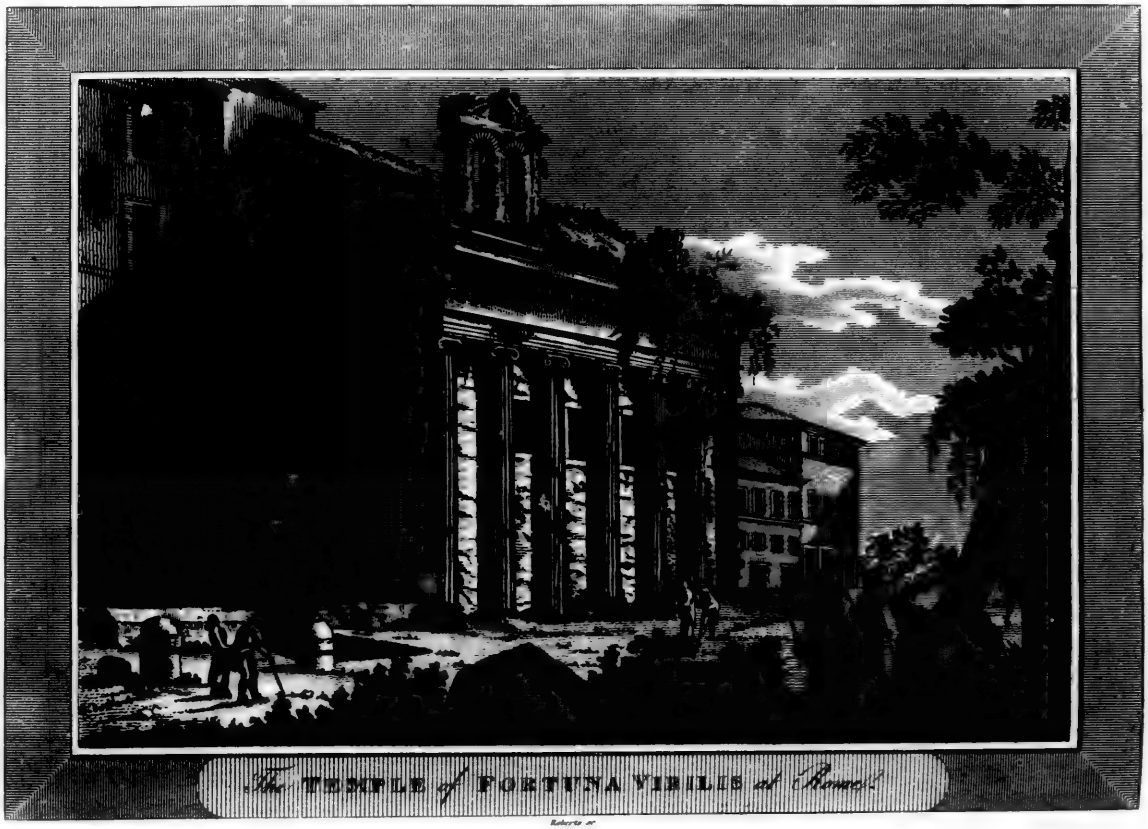
The Fontana de Paolo gushes through three wide outlets, near the church of Pietro in Montorio, on the hill Janiculus. This fountain is the most copious in Rome. It is provided with water by the aqueduct which Augustus built. By command of Pope Paul V. it was repaired and embellished.

The Museum of the Capitol contains one of the richest and finest collections of antiques that have been formed. The palace, in which the master-pieces of art are contained, is one of the three buildings of which the modern Capitol consists. There is a gallery round the court, which is walled without, and within is supported by pillars, and in which there are many remarkable antiques. To enter into a description of the immense quantity of antiques which are here preserved in six large apartments and a long gallery, would far exceed our limits. We shall, however, describe only the more remarkable. There is a gallery round the court, which is walled without, and supported by pillars within, in which there are many remarkable antiques. Here are two large Egyptian statues of the goddess Isis, which merit attention on account of their great antiquity. Here is also an ancient Roman altar, in which Claudia is represented in basso relievo, drawing the ship containing the Cybele with her girdle*. Claudia is represented on this altar in the act of drawing the ship in which the statue of Cybele is seated. On one side of the altar is a Phrygian bonnet, and on the other a shepherd's crook, and a crotalum. The shepherd's crook is indubitably a symbol of Atys, the shepherd beloved by the goddess.

The pyramid of Cestius, who lived in the time of Augustus, may give us an idea, in

* The history of which is as follow: In the time of the second Punic War, the Romans were terrified, by a passage in the Sybilline books, which said that their foreign enemies could not be driven back, nor overcome, till the Idean Mother, that is Cybele, the mother of the gods, should be brought from Pessinus to Rome. The senate sent to Attalus, king of Pergamus, hoping to obtain the goddess through his means. The ambassadors, on their journey, consulted the oracle of Delphi, which foretold them a favourable reception from Attalus; but advised them, when they should have brought the goddess to Rome, to place her in the house of the best man in the city. Attalus received the ambassadors in a friendly manner, conducted them to Pessinus in Phrygia, (Liv. xxix. 10, 11.) and presented them with a holy stone, which the inhabitants called the Mother of the Gods. Valerius, one of their train, was sent by the ambassadors with the intelligence that the goddess was coming; and requesting them to seek the best man of the city to receive her. The senate were not a little embarrassed by the message of Valerius. How were they to discover the best man in the city? This would have been a victory, said Livy, which they would each individually have prized beyond all the honours and dignities that the senate or the people could bestow. Publius Scipio Nasica, a kinsman of the first Scipio Africanus, was adjudged to be the best of the Romans. He was still a youth when he was commissioned to go, with the principal women of the city, to Ostia, at the mouth of the Tiber, and receive the goddess. The ship having struck on the sands, from which it could not be released, Claudia, as a different historian relates, took her girdle, tied it to a rope which was fastened to the ship, and drew the vessel to the land. By this miracle she vindicated her chastity, which had before, according to Livy, been doubted.

miniatur



The TEMPLE of FORTUNA VIRILIS at Rome.

Roberts sc

The TEMPLE of FORTUNA VIRILIS at Rome

Remains of the TEMPLE of CONCORD at Rome.

miniature, of the wonderful Egyptian pyramids; which, without doubt, are the most ancient, as they certainly are the most durable, monuments of architecture. This of Cestius is a hundred and sixty palms or spans high, a hundred and thirty in breadth at bottom, and is covered with large stones of white marble. We learn, from the inscription, that the building was completed in three hundred and thirty days. The passage has been cut in modern times. It is small, and a person must go with his body bent to reach the burial vault; which is twenty-six palms in length, eighteen in breadth, and nineteen in height. The sarcophagus has been removed. On the side walls are traces of Arabesc painting; and above, on each of the four sides, a hovering genius with garlands of flowers. These genii are in good preservation, and the drawing of them free. The only entrance into this burial place is from above, as in the Egyptian pyramids. A stone was removed at a tolerable height up the pyramid, to give entrance; and the dead were brought down into their cells through oblique dark passages. One side of the pyramid is concealed by a part of the Aurelian city wall, which surrounds it; and the whole building can only be seen at a distance from the city. Facing this pyramid there is an open place, which is the burial ground of the Protestants.

In a little excursion from Rome to La Riccia, (the ancient Aricia,) which is about three German miles from Rome, the Count informs us that the Campagna di Roma is very naked, destitute of trees, and ill cultivated; and in which little is to be met with except the monuments of the ancients. The eye long continues to follow the aqueduct which was carried from there to Tivoli, but which, in various places, is fallen to ruins. Many of the sepulchres of the ancients are on the road, and have more or less fallen to decay. They particularly point out the direction of the ancient Appian way; on each side of which, according to the custom of the ancients, who erected these monuments on the road side, many are now standing *.

Albano is a small insignificant town, yet is much visited and inhabited in autumn and the beginning of spring, by the principal Romans, who have villas here. High old walls, which appear to surround a kind of court, are supposed to be the remains of the barracks in which the Roman soldiers lived. Pompey and Clodius had country houses here; as afterwards had Tiberius, Caligula, and Domitian. Many great ruins of the villa of the latter are at present to be seen in the Villa Barbarini. They extend as far as Castell Grandolfo, and to the banks of the Alban lake, on which Domitian used to represent his Naumachia†. Ruins of an amphitheatre, and vast terraces supported by Arcades are the principal objects. The district of Albano was so called from the ancient town of Alba, which was much older than Rome, and which the Romans destroyed about six hundred years before the building of Albano.

La Riccia is one of the oldest towns in Italy. About eleven hundred years before Christ its inhabitants were driven out by the Pelasgi and Œnotrii united. Near La Riccia there is an ancient monument, which some have supposed to be the sepulchre of the Horatii and Curiatii.

The gate which leads out of the city of Rome to the ancient suburb was built by Dolabella, the son-in-law of Cicero, in the year that he was Consul. Not far from this place is the church of Lateran, the oldest church in Rome, and probably the most ancient in Christendom. This building was founded by Constantine; and was originally built in the style of St. Paul's church at Rome.

Facing the Lateran stands the largest and most ancient obelisk. It was brought to Rome by Germanicus, and is supposed to be of the time of the ancient Egyptian king Rhamses‡, who was a powerful conqueror.

Another obelisk, which stands in front of the council house, on the Monte Citorio, is said to be of the age of Sesostris‖.

To the son of Sesostris, Pheron, who is said to be Pharaoh, the oppressor of the Israelites,

* This custom gives us the true meaning of so many ancient inscriptions, which begin with the words "*Siste viatorem, viator.*" It was rational to address the passenger on the high road: but it is absurd, or at least thoughtless, to begin inscriptions of modern monuments, erected in bye places, with the words, "Stop, Passenger."

† Naval engagements.

‡ Perhaps that Rhamses who reigned in Egypt 1808 years before Christ.

‖ Sesostris reigned in Egypt 1722 years before Christ.

whom the power of God by the arm of Moses destroyed, the obelisk is ascribed, which stands before the church of St. Peter. It is the only one which contains no hieroglyphics*.

The obelisk which was on the Piazzo del Popolo is ascribed, by Pliny, to a much later king, Semneserteus; in whose time Pythagoras visited Egypt, Pythagoras was contemporary of Cyrus and Solon†.

Beside these four principal obelisks, there are seven others that ornament different places of Rome.

The Pantheon is the only monument that has withstood the ravages of time, or rather of the barbarians, who so often desolated Rome. It was built by Agrippa after the battle of Actium, and consecrated to Jupiter the Avenger, whose statue was placed in the principal niche over the entrance. In the other six niches were statues of other gods. The architrave rests on sixteen large columns of *giallo antico*, or yellow African marble, the chapiters of which were of the bronze of Syracuse. The cupola is perfectly hemispherical. The light falls entirely from above, through a circular aperture, which is twelve ells in diameter, and has a clear and pleasant effect. In the wall between the niches there were tabernacles, with frontispieces supported by small columns of *giallo antico;* which, as well as the niches themselves, now serve for altars. The brazen gates, which formerly were embellished with bassi relievi, notwithstanding that they have been robbed of their ornaments, are beautiful in their grandeur. The whole architrave, with its posts and entablature, are of the noblest architecture. The columns of the portico bear deep traces of conflagrations; to which calamity Rome was so frequently subject. The emperor Phocas granted the Pantheon to Pope Boniface IV. by whom it was consecrated as a church. By degrees it was embellished with statues and pictures. The church is now called the Rotunda, and is dedicated to the Holy Virgin and all the martyrs.

There are several columns erected at Rome as monuments of the fame of different persons. The pillar of Trajan was erected on the Forum which bore his name. Trajan's statue was removed by Sixtus V. from the top of this pillar and that of St. Peter placed in its stead. The pillar of Antonine was erected, by the senate, to the emperor Marcus Aurelius Antoninus. The same pope likewise removed the statue of Marcus Aurelius Antonine from the top of this pillar and put in its place the statue of St. Paul.

The Museum Pium Clementinum is certainly beyond all comparison the most beautiful collection of antiques now in existence. At first it only occupied some apartments on that side of the Vatican which, from its extensive prospect has been called the Belvedere. Clement XIV enlarged the place, because he improved the rich collection. The present pope has built two new galleries and two charming rotundas in addition, and adorned it with numerous master pieces. In this museum is likewise a gallery of paintings.

The Palazzo Borghese is one of the largest and most magnificent palaces of Rome. It contains two galleries; one of which belongs to the prince Borghese, and the other to his uncle prince Aldobrandina. In the first, which is very spacious, are many beautiful pictures; as there are likewise in that of the prince Aldobrandini.

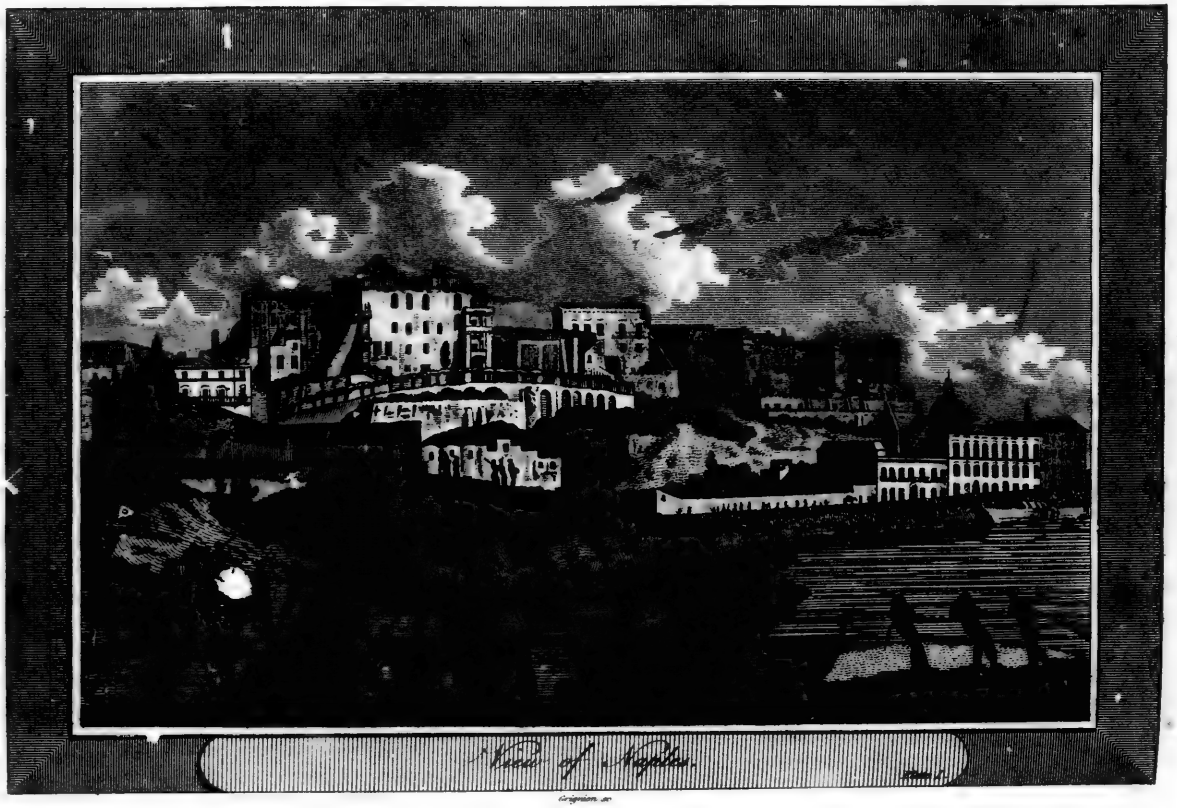
SECTION V.

Journey to Naples—Gaeta—Naples—The Lazaroni—The Hill and Grotto of Posilipo—Tomb of Virgil—Pozzuoli—Palace of Capo di Monte—Church of St. Januarius—Solfatara—Vesuvius—Description of an Eruption—Discovery of Herculaneum—Lake of Agnano, and La Grotta del Cane—Monteleone—Mileto—Oppido, and dreadful Effects of the Earthquake in 1783*—State of Calabria—Begnara—Scylla—Messina in Sicily—Palermo—The Sirocco—Girgenti—Syracuse.*

THE road towards Naples leads through pleasant districts. The road is good, the canal broad and clear, and different lateral canals drain a part of the Pontine Marsh. The drai

* This was Amenophis III. of Profane history, who reigned in Egypt 1596 years before Christ.

† About 560 years before Christ.



ing of this marsh has been begun by the present pope, Pius VI. and those verdant fields are contemplated with delight which, for ages, had been covered with stagnant water. Parts that are the most humid are either converted to pasture or planted with trees. The Apennines rise on the left, and on the right is a prospect of the sea. Much, however, remains to be done before this road from Rome to Naples will be passable at all seasons of the year; and which must be passed if a carriage be used. The air of this part is very dangerous in July, August, and September. Farther on the country is extremely delightful and amazingly fertile. Pears have been gathered on the 24th of December, and sent as a present to the pope. Thus do productive harvest and the flowery spring shake hands together, in a country, such as the much-loved Fenelon sang of his abbey in the south of France,

Où le ciel sercin nous donne
Le Printems, après l'Automne;
Sans fair place à l'Hyver.

Where Spring succeeds to Autumn, each serene;
And icy Winter dares not intervene.

The fortress of Gaeta, (formerly called Cajeta,) is high, and built on a circular rock on a promontory on the sea shore. There is a small isthmus, by which this promontory is connected with the winding coast, on which the long and narrow suburbs of Gaeta are built, that contain about fourteen thousand inhabitants. In the fortress there are only three thousand; its works are hewed in the rocks, and rise very high above the sea. Here is a phœnomenon so remarkable as seldom to be equalled. A rock of an incredible height seems to be burst open from top to bottom: the two sides are full three ells distant; and in the centre, where the opening is much the greatest, there is a large stone, which forms a natural bridge, and connects the two rocks. This stone lies on the outward side, next the sea*.

The city of Neapolis, or Naples, is of high antiquity, and Greek origin. It was called Neapolis, or New City, to distinguish it from its sister Palæpolis, or old City; but since the time of Augustus they have formed but one city. Naples is very large, and extremely populous: it contains above four hundred thousand, or probably as many as five hundred thousand, inhabitants; yet so excellent is the soil, that the necessaries of life are in great plenty and very cheap. The common people of Naples, and indeed of all Italy, are very moderate in eating and drinking; and would rather suffer all the inconveniences of life than remove them by their labour. Abstemious in a high degree, the clothing they need is trifling, the fuel none, and they can even live without a habitation. The class of people called Lazaroni, some of whom are met with even in Rome, are here computed at forty thousand. Many of these live in the open air, and at night, or in bad weather, take shelter under gateways, porticos, the eaves of houses, or under the rocks. They cannot easily be persuaded to work whilst they have the smallest coin in their pockets. They never think of making provision for to-morrow. With care they are unacquainted. Should any one offer money to a Lazaroni, when he is not pressed by necessity, he raises the back of his hand to his chin, and tosses his head upwards, being too idle to speak, in token of refusal; but, if any thing delights him, if he be invited to partake of any pleasure, no man is more talkative, more alert, more full of antics than himself†.

The streets of Naples are uncommonly crowded;

* Pious tradition relates that the rock was thus cloven at the death of our Saviour. A chapel has been built upon the stone; to which the people go through a passage that has been hewn in the rock, and which is fifty-seven paces in length.

† There is one among them whose influence is so great that they call him Capo de gli Lazaroni, *i. e* the chief of the Lazaroni. He goes barefoot, and in rags, like the rest. He is the orator for the whole body when they have any thing to demand of the government. He then generally applies to the Eletto del Popolo, *i. e.* the representative of the people: a kind of tribune, so far as such an office can exist in an unlimited monarchy like that of Naples. He likewise appeals to the king in person. To disregard any remonstrance of this people, or not to comply, without stating the grounds of refusal, would be dangerous. They regard their king, and in case of necessity, it is asserted, he might depend upon their assistance. Previous to the king's making a journey to Germany, in 1791, Nicola Sabbato, the chief of the Lazaroni, made him a speech. He lamented that the king should be so long absent from his people; yet rejoiced in a journey that should afford pleasure to a prince who took so much satisfaction in the good of his subjects. "We are," said he, "thirty thousand strong; and in your absence we will preserve the peace of the country. You certainly have nothing to fear from

ed; yet the crowd is much less inconvenient here than in many other cities. The coachmen too are less insolent than such gentlemen usually are: when mounted on their throne they look down with contempt on the multitude beneath. The number of coaches, however, is so great, that the foot passenger must be continually on his guard: yet the coaches are much less dangerous than the little one horse cabrioles; which are driven through the city by the young gentlemen, who imagine that the foot passengers should vanish before them, as easily, and as instantly, as the yielding air before the breath of their snorting horses. In general, the city is well built; and the houses are mostly flat roofed. The royal palace is capacious, and has a noble appearance. The situation of the city is inexpressibly beautiful. Mount Vesuvius rises to the left, and Portici lies at its feet. On the right of the city the hill Posilipo extends itself far into the sea. The fortress of Castell del Novo is built on an island, which is connected with the city by a bridge.

Through the hill Posilipo a large cavern toward the sea has been made, which serves the city as a gate. When this cavern was made no man knows; but it is one of the most wonderful and greatest of the works of man. It is a grotto cut through a volcanic rock, nine hundred and sixty paces long, nine broad, and of a considerable height. Strabo, who lived in the time of Augustus, has mentioned it. The cavern was widened by Alphonso I. king of Naples; and after him by Charles V. The people ascribe it to Virgil, who lived seven years at Naples: his sepulchre is shewn over the entrance of th Posilipo grotto. Some of the commo n peopl suppose him to have been a saint, others a n cromancer*. The road through this grott leads to Pozzuoli, the Puteoli of the ancients, neighbouring place. To the north-west, an immediately facing the city stands the six side fortress called Castello di Sant' Elmo, which entirely hewn out of a rock. What is called th Tomb of Virgil is upon the Posilipo, beside th entrance of the cavern. Although so near great city it stands in a solitary place, amon trees and rocks, from which there is a prospe toward the sea: a situation worthy the delica sensibility of the great poet.

Pozzuoli was founded by the former inhab tants of the island of Samos, five hundred an twenty-one years before the birth of Chris The Romans called it Puteoli, from the num rous wells that are found in its vicinity. *Puti* in Latin, and *Pozzo* in Italian, signify *a wel* Large pillars were erected on the haven, to resi the force of the waves; several of which still re main. The hill called Monte Barbaro has bee unfruitful since the time of the great earthqua which desolated Pozzuoli in the year 1538.

The royal palace of Capo di Monta is built o a height, very near to the city of Naples, and o the north side. The architect did not discov that the foundation on which it stood was hollo till after it was finished; and this foundatio which was rectified after it was built, cost mor than the grand building itself. It was intende as the residence of the king, and it is visited onl for the sake of the gallery, which contains man

from any man; but, should any one have the insolence to spread inflammatory opinions, we will tear him into as many pieces as we are men, and each of us will have a morsel of him to smoke in our pipes." During the absence of the king this Nicola Sabbato visited the princes and princesses, that, as he said, he might give the people an account of their welfare. He likewise visited the prime minister, Mr. Acton; and, on one occasion, came to him out of breath, demanding to speak to him. "I have just seen a man," said he, "in the dress of a pilgrim, in the great square, who is distributing French hand bills: the meaning of which neither I nor any of us yet understand; and he is kissing a stone which he brought from the ruins of the P lle. He will certainly excite an insurrection. We would have thrown him into the sea, but I wished first to know your opinion; though I think we ought to have thrown him into the sea." The minister had much difficulty to persuade him that a preliminary enquiry was necessary. He continually returned to the necessity of throwing the man into the sea; and when the minister told him he would se soldiers to put the man in prison, he replied, "There is occasion for soldiers; I will undertake that busines The man was accordingly taken to prison by the Lazaro The contents of the hand-bill were declared seditious. T insurgent was one of those emissaries that were sent, s the Count, by the too provident care of the French club over Europe, to enlighten, improve, and make the peop happy. He had disguised himself like a pilgrim, and w subject to the gallows, according to the common rights nations; but the government only thought proper to banis him to the island of Maritima, one of the Ogades, on th west side of Sicily.

* When Robert of Anjou, king of Naples, once pass through this cavern with Petrarch, he asked him whether were really true that Virgil had effected this miracle b magic? To which the poet answered, "I have never rea that Virgil was a magician; and the traces that I see a those of the pickaxe, not of the Devil."

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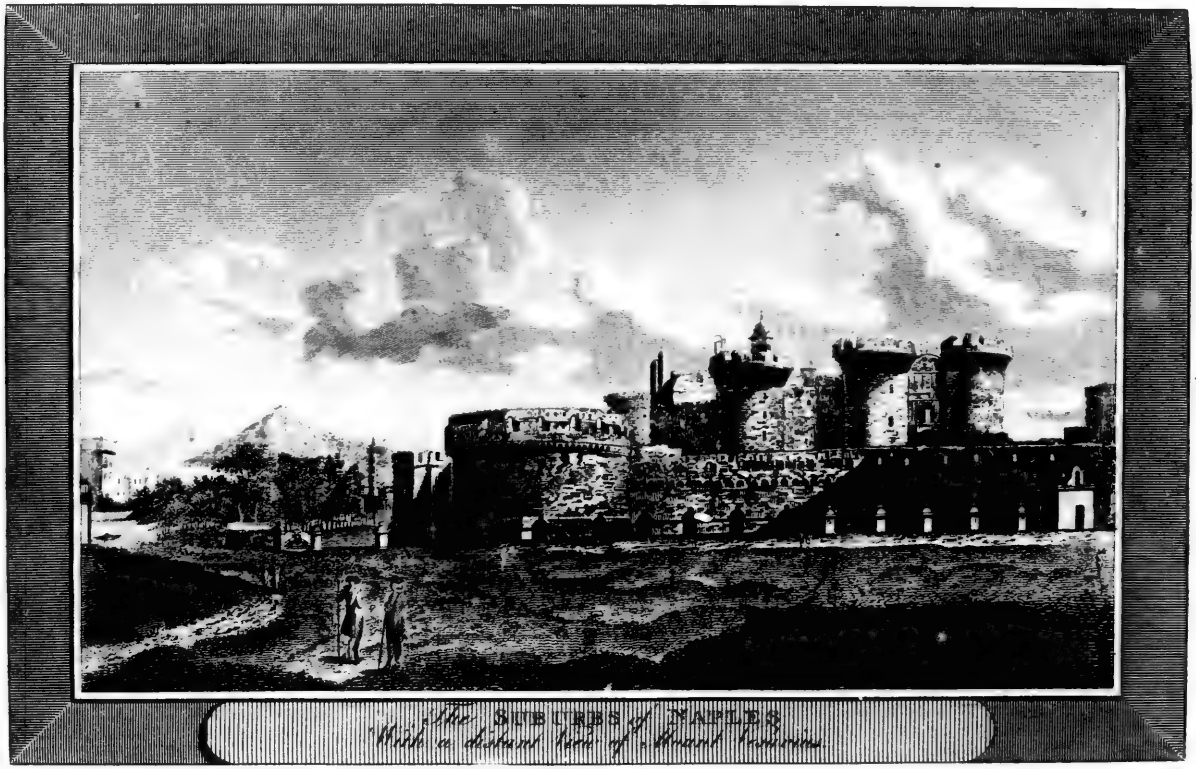
pictures

VIEW in the GULPH of NAPLES.

VIEW in the GULPH of NAPLES.

Warren sc.



The SUBURBS of NAPLES
With a distant View of Mount Vesuvius.

Warren sc.

ictures; but, were those only preserved which re really beautiful, the very numerous collec-ion, consisting of fifteen hundred, would be re-uced to one hundred. In one apartment there re numerous vases, which are called Etruscan, ut should be called Greek, for they were found n tombs that were in the south of Italy and in icily: those of Sicily are frequently the most eautiful. The collection of ancient gems, both ameos and intaglios, is considerable. This ollection is very rich in ancient coins, of brass, ilver, and gold.

With respect to its churches Naples can bear o competition with most of the great cities of taly. Those of this city are neither of noble rchitecture, nor are they rich in paintings. The principal church is dedicated to St. Januarius, nd may more properly be called magnificent han beautiful. The treasury is well stored with hurch effects and relics. Here, in a glass bottle, red mass is preserved that is affirmed to be the lood of the saint. People assert, that this mass wice a year, the bottle being handled by the arch-ishop, becomes fluid, by the aid of a miracle. erhaps it is so composed as to become fluid by he natural warmth of the hand.

Solfatara is the name of a plain that lies to the ast of the city, is tolerably elevated, and sur-ounded by hills that connect with each other. here is no doubt but there was formerly a vol-ano here. The ground is still entirely volcanic: hot smoke ascends out of numerous cavities, hat are to be found both on the plain and the urrounding hills. The places where these apours rise are in part sulphureous, in part ound in alum, and in part with vitriol; which hree materials appear to be engendered where he smoke ascends. The sulphur predominates, nd fills the whole place with its powerful tench. The ground is so hollow that a large tone, let fall through a hole not more than a oot deep, occasions a sound that rumbles along hrough a considerable space. The ancients amed this place the Forum of Vulcan.

Mount Vesuvius lies about seven English iles east of Naples; and as Count Stolberg saw at the time of an eruption we shall describe it in is own words. Tolerably high up the moun-in, says he, yet a full league and a half from he summit of the pyramid which is properly alled Vesuvius, there is a hermit, who lives on a hill, by its side, which is called Somma. This Somma is a great ruin of nature, and of the ancient Vesuvius. It has crumbled away to half of its height, and evidently discovers itself to have been a volcano. In like manner the present Vesuvius rose, above seventeen hundred years ago. Like Monte Nuovo, which was suddenly thrown up in the year 1538 by an earthquake, it has the form of a sugar loaf, with a broad base, the top of which is cut off, and is hollow to a great depth, like the crater of a volcano. The hermit warned us of approaching danger; but I did not so much fear the stones that were thrown up as the difficulty of the ascent. However I saw it was very necessary for us to take care how we approached too near to these dangerous showers. The stones were cast with such violence out of the hollow mountain, that the velocity of their fall was not to be compared to the velocity of their ascent. The ascent up Mount Vesuvius is extremely difficult: sometimes from the cutting dross of the lava on which you tread, and at others, because, when you mean to ascend, you sink deep into the ashes. The guides lessened the inconvenience; for they bound linen round their bodies, by which we held fast, and were aided by their strength: still, however, the difficulty was great. The places you pass are terrifying. The whole ground is uneven, and strewed over with stones, prodigious pieces of scoria, or deep pits of ashes; which have all been thrown from the mountain: the projecting parts of which frequently conceal the smoky summit from those who are ascending; and you are repeatedly inclined to despair of arriving at your journey's end, while at every step when you mean to go forward, you sink back and imagine you shall be swallowed up in the ashes. You are often obliged to stand still with weariness, or to sit down on the cutting dross; and the sense of weariness is encreased by the surrounding aspect of desolation. The emissions from the flaming mountain were so violent that it it was impossible, at that time, to reach the summit. We ascended the mountain to a huge crag of rock, which, in one of its ancient eruptions, had been projected out of the crater. It is at the distance of one-third of the whole ascent from the summit; and thus far was the space to which this rock had been whirled. Here we beheld and heard the mountain incessantly in labour.

Whenever the rumbling din became louder, a thundering shower of stones continually followed. I cannot compare this subterranean uproar to any thing better than to the noise of cannon at sea; and it was as quick in succession as the discharge of artillery in such a combat. The rock on which we sat shook very sensibly at each discharge of the mountain. The successive showers of ashes increased in blackness, and were always accompanied with stones. These, when they fell to the ground, rolled down over the dross, with a noise resembling hail against a glass window. At intervals, when the din of the mountain and the showering of the stones had ceased, we heard a fearful gurgling, as of boiling water. A yellow smoke, instead of the black shower, occasionally rose from the throat of the mountain, and we saw the reflection of the subterranean flames tremble among the rising pillars of smoke; strong gusts of which were likewise impelled out of the many little mouths round the crater. Thus we sat upon the trembling rock, which is itself a prodigious monument of the power of the fire-emitting mountain, and enjoyed one of the grandest spectacles of nature. The smoke became yellow at the approach of night, and, on our return to Portici*, we saw it rise of a flame colour. The heat that proceeded from an aperture, which burst forth in the month of August 1790 was insufferable, and though when we were there it was a year and a half since this eruption happened, the hot surface would not permit us to touch it with our hands.

The pleasant lake of Agnano lies not far from Solfatara, and something nearer than that to Naples. It is chiefly surrounded by high shores. Near a part of the shore, at the foot of a hill, there is a cavern, which was called by the ancients the cavern of Charon. It is better known at present by the name of La Grotta del Cane; i. e. the Cavern of Dogs; because it is a common custom to put a dog into the cavern, in order to convince strangers of the mephitic qualities of the air. The dog presently loses his senses, and must die, were he not dragged out, and, to recover him, dipped in the water of the lake. It is impossible to fire a pistol in the grotto, for the air prevents the powder in the pan from taking fire. The hot sulphur baths of the lake appear stronger than the vapour of the cavern. These baths are called Stufe, or stoves, di San Germano. They are much esteemed for their effects, and emit a hot vapour, the smoke of which is so fine that artificial means must be taken to render it visible.

Monteleone was founded by the Greeks of Locri, by whom it was called Hippo, or Hipponium. The town is situated on a gentle declivity of the sea shore, on which Agathocles once built a pier. The surrounding country is shady, fertile, and hilly. This town was almost destroyed by the earthquake of 1783, and it is now chiefly composed of shops built of wood, and houses built of wood, brick, and mortar. These kind of barracks, as they are called by the Italians, are frequently more expensive than stone houses, because wood is scarce and stone abundant.

Mileto, a small town was likewise destroyed by the earthquake of 1783, and at present consists of a few houses built in the same manner as those of Monteleone.

The present Oppido is built on a kind of broad terrace of the woody Apennines, three Italian

* At Portici, says the Count, we took torches, and visited the theatre of the ancient Heraclea, or, as the Romans called it, Herculaneum. This Greek town was entirely buried and destroyed by ashes and lava, during the great eruption of Vesuvius, in the year 79 after the birth of Christ, and in the first year of the reign of Titus. A part of the seats of the ancient theatre were brought up, in 1713, by a farmer, who was sinking a well. Emanuel, prince of Elbeuf, of the house of Lorraine, who was building in Portici, purchased the right of the farmer of digging farther, and a statue of Hercules was presently discovered, and afterwards one of Cleopatra, with others. At length they came to a circular temple, which contained four and twenty alabaster pillars, and as many statues, which were all sent to Vienna by the prince Eugene of Savoy. In 1736 Don Carlos, king of Naples, undertook to build a palace in Portici, and purchased the house and land of the prince of Elbeuf, and the ancient town was discovered at the depth of eighty feet. The bed of the river was found which ran through the town, as likewise were the temple of Jupiter, with his statue of gold, the theatre, and two large equestrian statues of the two Balbi, father and son. Herculaneum and Pompeii were both buried under the ashes thrown from the volcano in the above eruption; and the flaming lava took its course through both those towns. The people dare not leave the cavities dug to come at Herculaneum empty, because Portici and the village of Resina are built immediately over the buried place. After taking out many remarkable articles, of household furniture, arms, coins, and manuscripts rolled up, the opening was again enclosed.

miles from the former Oppido, which, on the 5th of February, 1783, was entirely destroyed by the earthquake, or rather engulphed, by what may be called a whirlpool of the opening earth, for it was the centre of this terrible calamity. Oppido that was, which Cluverius supposed to be the ancient Mamertum, and Italian authors the ancient Metaurum, is now changed into a heap of stones. The former town contained three thousand inhabitants; the present barracks only five hundred. About twelve hundred perished on the desolating day. Some were burned alive, overtaken by the flames that spread through the tumbling houses. The monks of a monastery became the prey of these flames. A woman, who now (1792) lives in Messina, remained eleven days under the ruins of her own house. Her child was with her; and they both fed on chesnuts, which the mother, not improvidentially, had put in her pocket. She gave the child her own excremental water to drink; but as she had no supply of liquid for herself, even this wretched aid soon failed, and the child died on the fifth day. So remarkable were the effects of this earthquake on the human organs, that, in the two following years, the women either did not conceive, were prematurely delivered, or brought forth dead children; and of those that were born alive many immediately expired.

When the first account of this dreadful event reached Naples the king was desirous of visiting the distracted province; but being prevented, he sent the people money. The queen deprived herself of her jewels; and people of all ranks were at first contributors. The sanguine Neapolitans are easily moved; but their emotion quickly dies away. Some communities that had suffered by the earthquake generously refused the assistance offered them, that it might be given to others whose sufferings were more severe. The whole province bestowed its blessings on Don Francesco de la Vega, the superintendant of the museum at Portici, whom the king sent with money and full powers into Calabria. He possessed the art of doing much with a little; and his conduct, as wise as it was humane, inspired the terrified inhabitants with new courage. The loss of the province of Calabria by death, including those that were swallowed up, buried under the ruins, or killed by disease, has been estimated at thirty-two thousand souls. No town suffered so much, according to its population, as Oppido.

The province of Calabria, one of the most favoured in Europe, and with which, Sicily and the shores of the bay of Naples excepted, no other perhaps can be compared; this province, where heaven, earth, and sea united smile, was already almost depopulated before the devastation occasioned by the earthquake. Its few inhabitants were extremely poor. The whole system of the country is strikingly bad. The countryman is obliged to pay the king heavy taxes for the oil of his press, and the raw silk which his worms produce: though he has already paid his landlord for the ground on which the olive and the mulberry tree grew. The merchant cannot afford to give him much for his oil, because he is obliged to pay a tax which is equally heavy and unjust, for leave to export it. The argument that the foreign merchant pays this tax is absurd. Is it not evident that the foreigner will pay the cultivator the less the more he is obliged to pay the king? Heavy taxes are likewise paid for wrought silk, and for silk stuffs. Beside, it is surely evil sufficient that the natives should be under the necessity of yielding the carrying trade to foreigners, from the want of protection against the Barbary corsairs. If the peasant be the vassal of a Barone, he is subject to tolls at the mill and at the oil press: beside which he is compelled to pay a tax in kind for the produce of the soil. To this we must add, that the roads, unrepaired, daily become worse; and whole communities are hemmed in and cut off from intercourse with town or country. The small circulation of money is still farther limited by the sudden abolition of monasteries. Thus do the inhabitants suffer dearth in paradise. Thus depopulation increases; in a country where marriages are uncommonly fruitful, but where the dread of increasing wretchedness deters the people from entering into that estate. And truly it requires a paradise, such as Calabria, to invite any inhabitants where such numerous afflictions oppress a people who are habitually cheerful; where the ox-driver notwithstanding plays on his bagpipe, and where the jocund youth, with songs, and springs, and bounds, leads his herd of goats among the mountains.

Bagnara is a small town, whose charming situation

situation is increased by the high waterfalls that embellish it on each side. The present town is built of barracks, above which are the ruins of the former town, among the rocks; which, in 1783, was nearly destroyed by the earthquake.

Farther along the coast is Sciglio, or Scylla. The rock immortalized by Homer, on which the castle of the prince of Scylla is built, gave the town its name. It lies in part immediately on the shore; but the greater part is above, among the rocks. The streets are narrow, and nine different rows of trees are seen standing immediately one above the other. Over the highest of these strait rows, in somewhat of an oblique direction, are six or seven other rows. In the earthquake of 1783 some churches were thrown down, and others were damaged. The houses were most of them spared; yet this little town suffered a great loss of inhabitants, and, Oppido excepted, the greatest. Terrified by the shocks, most of the inhabitants fled to the sea shore. The prince of Scylla also left his high castle, and hoped, not improbably, to find greater safety on the strand; but suddenly a whole mountain on the south shore was torn up, and cast into the sea. The waves, by this prodigious force, being driven from the land, returned with redoubled violence, and carried away with them fourteen hundred and fifty men. Some sought to escape in the boats that were on the strand; but both boats and men were borne away, and neither body nor plank were afterwards seen. It was thus that the prince of Scylla perished.

The situation of Messina is universally and justly celebrated for its beauty. It is built facing the bay, and is covered by mountains; the intermingling heights and depths of which afford traces that appear to denote great convulsions. The bay extending to the right, from S. S. W. to N. N. E. is in the shape of a sickle, and the cape curves in such a manner as almost to enclose the haven. On the point of this cape there is a high light-house. Messina is a very ancient town. In 1741 it was dreadfully visited by the plague, which was soon followed by a destructive kind of small pox. At this time the population was reduced from about seventy to twenty thousand souls. It is affirmed that in the seventeenth century it contained a hundred thousand inhabitants. It was half destroyed by the earthquake in 1783; but it has in great part been rebuilt, and the streets are now more spacious and handsome. The haven of Messina, which Charles VI. made a free port, is certainly one of the finest in Europe. The people of this place trade largely in the products of the island, which is so bountifully gifted by nature. The principal articles are corn, oil, wine, silk, (raw and wrought,) fruits, and pot ash. The present population of Messina is estimated to be thirty-six thousand. The air is very healthy, and, compared with the rest of Sicily, is cool.

Palermo is built on a cape that unites the westward mountains with the promontory of Pelegrino. The founders of the ancient town are not to be traced. Panormus, the former name of Palermo, signifies in the Greek a great haven; and, as the haven of this place is large and excellent, there can be little doubt but that it was thus named by the Greeks. This city is regularly built, and is divided into four nearly equal parts by two principal streets, which cross each other, that are equal in their breadth, and that would be beautiful if the houses were better built. Each window has its balcony with an iron railing, for the inhabitants to enjoy the cool of the evening. In long streets, which at the farther end appear narrow, you seem as if you were shut up in an iron cage. It contains above a hundred thousand inhabitants. Palermo is the seat of the viceroy*, of the archbishop, who is primate of the kingdom and chief of the Braccio Ecclesiastico, or spiritual court, and of the Giudice della Monarchia; which is the title of a principal ecclesiastic, who is the vice legate of the Pope, and is nominated by the king.

The Sirocco is felt in no town of Italy so intensely as here. These hot gusts from the sandy deserts of Africa, in passing the sea, lose much of their power, before they reach the southern shores of Sicily; but they collect new strength in crossing the island. About mid-day a cooling sea breeze springs up; for which reason the morning in Palermo is hotter than the noon.

* We must here remark, that at the time of Count Stolberg's writing this account, in 1792, it was actually the seat of the viceroy; but the subsequent progress of the French arms, when the royal family fled from Naples, they took up their residence in this town, and it is now the capital of the king of Sicily.

The

he heats felt are increased by the hill Pelegrino, hich stops the burning vapours of the sirocco their course.

Palermo is not only the largest city in Sicily, t is one of the largest and most beautiful cities Europe: and although Messina has at a mes contended for the rank of principal city, t this is the capital of the kingdom.

Girgenti, the ancient Agrigentum, has been ng very famous in history. Its haven lies four talian miles from the city, and contains the rgest granaries of Sicily. Granaries were built the shores of the island as early as the times of e Saracens. Near the haven of the Girgenti e corn is kept in subterranean magazines, cut the rock, of an astonishing size. This is an exllent method of preserving the corn fresh, for ny years, in this hot country. The road is rried along the haven, between the sea and a gh shore, the rocks of which are dazzlingly hite. When Agrigentum had attained the mmit of its greatness, it contained, according Diodorus, twenty thousand citizens; and, inuding those who were not citizens two hundred ousand souls. No where are there so many nd remains of Greek antiquity to be seen as in rgenti.

Syracuse, in the time of its prosperity, was a ndred and eighty stadia in circumference; that two and twenty Italian miles and a half. hat Syracuse was, long after it lost its freedom, y be learnt from Cicero, who says, in one of orations against Verres, "that Syracuse is the reatest and most beautiful of all the Greek ies you have often been told; and you have en told the truth. Its strong situation on ery side, by land and sea, is lordly to view. havens are enclosed by the city itself; by ich they are overlooked. From different enances they join their streams in one common tlet. That part of Syracuse which is called e island, in consequence of the junction of the ters, is separated by a small arm of the sea m the city; to which it is again united by a idge. So great is the size of Syracuse, that it usual to say it consists of four cities. One of se is the island; which, girded by two havens, tends itself at the mouth of each; and in this and is the building which was the citadel of ero, and which now serves as the residence of Roman prætors. It contains several temples; of which the two grandest are the temple of Diana and the temple of Minerva. On the extreme side of the island there is a sweet spring, that is called Arethusa, of an incredible size, and well stored with fish. It would be wholly overflowed by the sea, did not a stone dam guard it against the waves. Another of the towns of Syracuse is called Arcradina; in which is a great forum, beautiful colonades, a handsome prytaneum, a spacious senate house, and a noble temple of the Olympian Jupiter. The remaining part of the town consists of a large street, that is intersected by many others, which contain the houses of the citizens. The third town is called Tyche; because an ancient temple of Fortuna was here built. It had an extensive gymnasium, and many sacred buildings, and was an exceedingly populous part of Syracuse. The fourth town, which was built the last, is called Neapolis, and in the highest part contains a great theatre, two excellent temples, one dedicated to Ceres, the other to Libera, and the large grand statue of Apollo, surnamed Teminites." A fifth town, named Epipolæ, is mentioned by other writers both Greek and Roman, as part of Syracuse, which was not inhabited by citizens, but was garrisoned, in time of war, with soldiers for its defence. Amico estimates the number of the former inhabitants of Syracuse at a million; and Riedesel at twelve hundred thousand souls. I do not know the authorities, says Count Stolberg, for these estimates of two modern writers; but they do not appear to be exaggerated. It ought not to be forgotten, that there were four slaves to one free man. The number of free men in ancient Syracuse might surely consist of three hundred thousand; and a city, which was four common German miles in circumference, might certainly afford room for a million of people; especially as four-fifths of the number consisted of slaves, who were thronged together in a very narrow compass.

One side of the cathedral rests on twelve or thirteen Doric piliars, which it is supposed belonged to the portico of the temple of Minerva. At present only one half of them appear; the other half having been walled in, when this temple was changed into a church. The temple must have been about as large as that in Egesta. Facing the cathedral are the statues of the apostles Peter and Paul. The following inscription is

under that of Peter: "Apostolorum Principi, Fundatori suo, Ecclesia Syracusana p." that is, "The congregation of Syracuse erected this statue to the chief of the apostles, their founder." The Syracusans affirm that their first bishop was sent them by Peter. The apostle Paul in his journey to Rome was overtaken by a storm, shipwrecked at Malta, and remained three days at Syracuse. In the inscription upon his statue there seems to be much dignity: "Apostolo Gentium, Hospiti suo, Ecclesia Syracusana p." that is, "The congregation of Syracuse erected this statue to the Apostle of the Gentiles, their guest"

There is a library in the seminary, which is always increasing; but it is the only one in Syracuse. The seminary likewise contains a collection of ancient coins. When we entered this building, says Count Stolberg, the heat was not extreme; but when we returned, in three quarters of an hour, we felt the wind meeting us as hot if it came from an oven; we being then in open air and unprotected by shade. Some of were immediately seized with a pain in the brea which continued so long as this wind prevail We were advised, when we came home, to sh up the windows, leaving only sufficient light see to read, and to sprinkle the apartments w water. By these means the air of the house b came supportable. Men were discovered ly dead on the ground. So true it is, that the sa degree of heat, in Italy and Sicily, is by no mea so dangerous as when it visits a country whe the air is not equally pure. The hot wind ra with such excess only once in three or fo years; and seldom then during a whole day. blows from the west, is loaded with the h vapours of Africa, and is therefore similar in effects, upon this eastern coast, to those of t sirocco upon the country round Palermo.

SECTION VIII.

Catania, its ancient and modern State—Changes produced by Lava—Its Population, and Univers —Mount Ætna—Loretto—Ancona—Pesaro—Cattolica—Rimini—San Marino—Bologna—P dua—Venice—Province of Stiria—Vienna.

CATANIA, which in ancient times was called Catana, was one of the first old Greek colonies. It was founded by the same people from Chalcis who, but a short time before, in the first year of the thirteenth Olympiad, seven hundred and twenty-six years before Christ, had made a settlement at Leontium. Charondas, the famous lawgiver and a scholar of Pythagoras, was a native of Catana. The university of Catania may justly boast of being one of the most ancient seats of the sciences. Catania is built at the foot of Mount Ætna. Great remains of antiquity still exist in this town. Several of the warm baths are still in good preservation, and many others are concealed under the foundations of the cathedral A subterranean octagonal hall appears to be still uninjured; and aqueducts that supplied the water are partly still in existence and work mills. The gymnasium stood near the thermæ, and must have been very large; for though a great part of it was overwhelmed by lava from Mount Ætna in 1669, there still exists, on each side, a spacious street that belonged to it with many arcades. Near the gy nasium are the large ruins of the theatre; whe not many of the seats of the spectators are pr served; but, as from a part of the half circle circumference may be determined, and as t place where the stage began is still to be seen, is easy to form an estimate of the bre whole from its visible length. The p some of them in good preservation, and the stair cases of the three different stories, many of the vomitoria. The late prince Bisc removed the rubbish under which it lay, at h own expence.

This town has several times been visited b earthquakes and the rivers of fire that are pour out by Ætna. In the spring of the third year the 88th Olympiad, four hundred and twen four years before Christ, the fie lava issu from the mountain, and laid deso the territo of Catania. In 1669 it suffered m ably the terrible eruption of the mountain. The la flowed in a broad and deep stream toward t town. Instead of melting away the walls,

was expected, it was stopped by them, rose above them, and voerflowed them. Two remarkable phœnomena were produced by this lava, the traces of which will continue till they are removed by some earthquake, or some new eruption. On the west of the town stood the ancient Benedictine monastery, which now constitutes only a small part of the former building. Toward the walls of this monastery a high stream of lava flowed, surrounded it on several sides, and remained, without touching it, immediately before the wall. The aspect of the indurated mass is very remarkable. Another stream of lava overflowed that arm of the river Giudicello which was called Canale del Duca; and, as the water was much valued, the inhabitants made a deep opening through the condensed lava, from which issued a copious stream, and the clear water now continues to run from the vaulted lava like springs from a grotto of rock. The earthquake of 1669 was a dreadful one; and, according to Amico, fourteen thousand of the inhabitants of this place were destroyed, at the same time that the fields were desolated by the streaming fires of Ætna. Both these terrors again visited it in 1693, when the town by an earthquake was nearly reduced to a pile of ruins. Catania, however, rose out of its rubbish with reviving beauties. The broad streets are now carried in a right line direction, and handsomely built. As it enjoys both a considerable trade, and is situated in a very fertile country, its inhabitants feel the blessings of prosperity; and in 1783, when a great part of Messina was thrown down by the earthquake, Catania at its own expence assisted to rebuild that city. In population it is the second place in Sicily, and the number of its inhabitants is continually increasing. Its present population amounts to about forty-two thousand souls. The university of Catania is the principal, and in a certain sense the only one in the island; for the students, in physic and law, who have entered themselves at Palermo, if they wish for employment, must complete their education at Catania.

The form which the grand mouth or throat of Etna has assumed is that of a tunnel, except that the circle is not regular. Its contracting abyss is soon lost to the sight. In various places thin clouds of smoke ascend out of small cavities, as from so many chimnies; while the mouth itself tempestuously emit its whirlwinds of black and white clouds in a spiral column. To go round the crater, or to remain a moment facing the wind, is utterly impossible. The circumference of the mouth or crater is estimated at from three to four thousand paces. Within, as far as the eye can discover, it is coated with sulphur. On the north, separated from the ancient crater by a thin wall, or crust of sulphur, there is a new mouth, which was opened by a falling-in of the summit in May, 1792. We threw stones into this crater, says the Count, which rolled like distant thunder, till they at last fell, with a loud din, into the water below. After throwing the stone, I counted eight and forty pulsations before I heard the dashing of the water. This experiment seems to strengthen the opinion that the mouths of the volcano are open to, and communicate with, the sea.

A short German mile from Loretto is the handsome little town of Recanati, which is built on a hill, and in which the bishop of Loretto resides six months in the year.

Loretto, a town containing eight thousand inhabitants, owes its origin to the Santa Casa, or Holy House; which, as pious tradition relates, was the same in which the angel Gabriel appeared to the Virgin, and in which, after the return of Mary and Joseph from Egypt, Christ continued to live till he entered on his heavenly mission. We are told by the legend that, in 1291, the angels carried this house from Nazareth to Sclavonia, and in 1294 they took it from Sclavonia, brought it over the Adriatic, and set it down at Loretto. It now stands in the principal church, encased in marble; on which histories from Holy Writ, by the greatest artists, are masterly cut in alto relievo. In this Santa Casa the supposed miraculous image of the Virgin, a porringer out of which Christ used to eat when he was a child, and a gown of his mother's are exhibited. This Holy House and the miraculous image bring pilgrims from the whole Catholic world, to pay their homage at Loretto; many of whom go round the Holy House on their knees; so that the knees of the pilgrims have made deep hollows in the stone pavement of the church. There are some beautiful pictures in a sacristy belonging to the church. The famous treasure of Loretto is preserved in a great hall, and contains numberless costly

costly works and presents from private persons, kings, and states. In the dispensary of Loretto, which appertains to the Santa Casa, there are three hundred and thirty vases of Faenza shewn. All the poor of Loretto are provided with medicines gratis from this dispensary. The annual revenue of the Santa Casa is estimated at seventy thousand scudi, and its annual expenditure at not less than forty thousand; from which the bishops, canons, and governor of the town are paid. Loretto is half a German mile from the Adriatic, and is protected by fortresses against pirates: indeed the shallowness of the shore will not admit the approach of large ships.

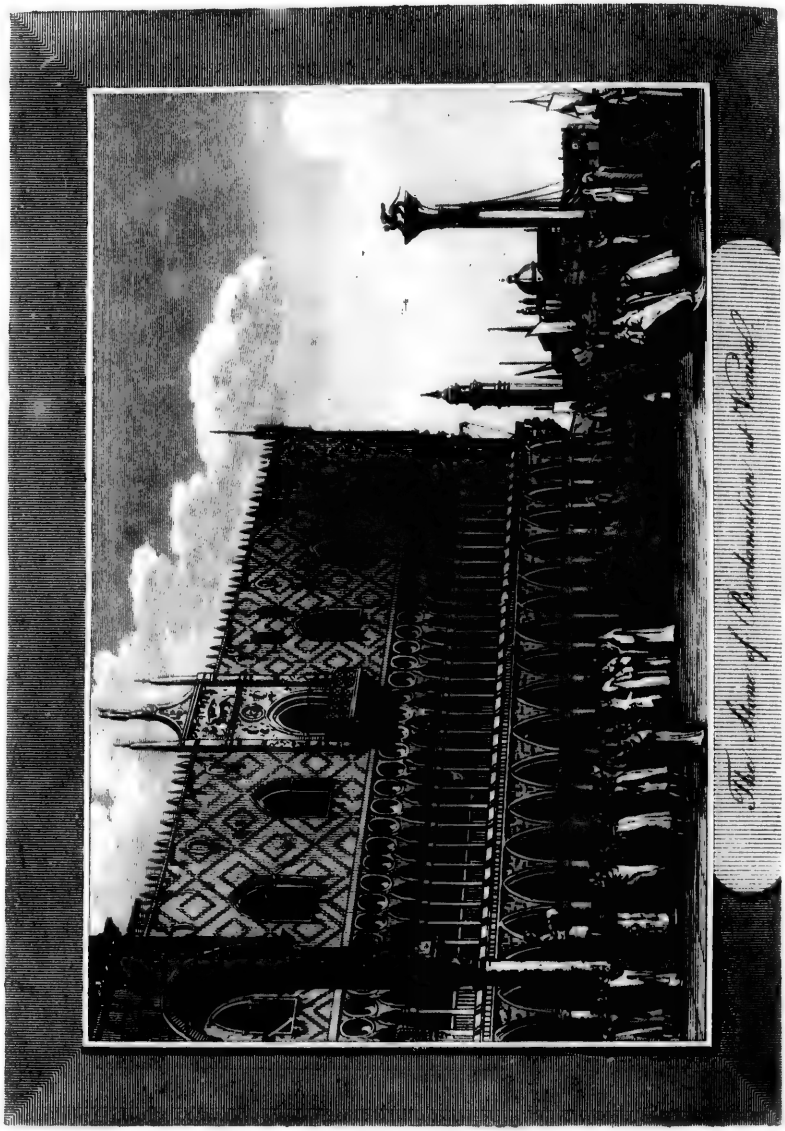
The hilly country between Loretto and Ancona is fertile and pleasant. This town is built on the hills San Ciriaco and Monte Guasco, and in the valley that lies between them. Ancona was a settlement of the fugitive Syracusans, who, in the time of the elder Dionysius, detesting the tyrant, made a descent at this place. They called the town Ancon, from its angular situation: this word in Greek signifying an elbow. The town is handsomely built, and, as it is a free port, the inhabitants enjoy a respectable and visible prosperity. Büsching states its population at twenty-two thousand souls; of whom he estimates the Jews at five thousand. According to an ancient degrading law, the Jews are to wear a red rag, or lappet, hanging from the hat; but it is not enforced; and as, like the Portugueze Jews, they wear no beard, they are only distinguished from the Christians by their national physiognomy; which still continues to characterize them, although they have been scattered nearly eighteen hundred years over the different nations of the earth. They only suffer their beards to grow for eighty days when they are under any deep affliction. All religions are here tolerated. Its trade is increasing, and does injury to Venice. The exchange has a respectable appearance. The road from Ancona leads through a pleasant country on the shores of the Adriatic, and passes through several towns.

Pesaro, the ancient Pisaurum, is situated in the duchy of Urbino. In the year of Rome 568, one hundred and eighty-four years before Christ, the Romans sent a colony to this place. The river on which it was built was formerly called Pisaurus, now La Foglia. The town stands on the shore, but its port will only admit small craft; therefore its trade is not considerable. It, however, contains about ten thousand five hundred inhabitants.

The province of Romagna begins at Catolica, which is the first post after Pesaro. This place was so called from the Catholic Bishops, who met here, at the time that the council was held in Rimini, A. D. 359, because they were dissatisfied with that assembly; in which it had at first appeared as if the Arians would have maintained their superiority. As this council was called by the emperor Constans, who favoured the Arians, four hundred bishops came to it from the west; who, contrary to the hopes of the emperor, declared in favour of the council of Nice.

Rimini was formerly called Ariminum; and its founding is ascribed to the Umbri, a people of uncertain origin. The Senones were once in possession of it; but they were expelled by the northern Umbri two hundred and eighty-nine years before Christ.

On the road between Catolica and Rimini stands the little town of San Marino, situated upon a high mountain. This small free state would be more celebrated than great nations were virtue and innocence, rather than the splendour of vice, the admiration of men. Like the little Swiss republic of Gersau, its whole possessions consist of a single mountain. The diameter of its territory is a German mile. A builder, who came from Dalmatia in the beginning of the sixth century, continued to labour thirty years at the rebuilding of Rimini; after which he retired, and lived as a hermit on this mountain. But, greatly as he desired repose, the fame of his sanctity attracted young people to him, and a princess gave him the mountain as a present, on which he here founded a little free state. As the residence of its citizens was founded on a rock, so did he lay the basis of his artless dignified code on the Evangelists. The constitution of the republic is very simple: each house sends a deputy to the great assembly of the citizens; the executive power resides in the council of sixty, one half of which is chosen from the nobles: a majority of two-thirds is required before a conclusive vote can pass: every two months the council choose two capitani, who are in miniature what the consuls were at Rome: the judge and the physician must be both strangers who are elected once in three years. The people



of San Marino are so attentive to the education of their children that they hold the office of schoolmaster in great respect. They have only once made war. In the fifteenth century they took part with pope Pius II. against Sigismund Malatesta, lord of Rimini. The pope made them a present of four fortresses, but they refused to enlarge their territories. In 1740 some malcontents invited pope Clement XII. to take possession of the town, and he sent the cardinal Alberoni to make enquiries whether the majority of the people were inclined to renounce their freedom. Alberoni truly informed him that only a part of them had any such inclination, and the pope was just enough to leave them in the undisturbed enjoyment of their liberties, which they still enjoy. Celebrated for their equity and the simplicity of their manners, they despise trade; for they do not honour wealth, but chiefly subsist on the produce of their lands; which, although the mountain is frequently covered with snow for three months, still produce generous wine and excellent fruits.

The hills near Bologna are covered with country houses, gardens, and small groves, which give them a charming appearance. It is remarkable that the Appennines, from Spoleto and Foligno, divide Italy into two distinct countries; Upper and Lower. Before you come to Loretto the country is flat. The plains begin at Rimini, and extend through all Lombardy, to the foot of the towering Alps. As the country changes, so do the physiognomies and entire forms of the people change; though the differences are not very distinct till you come to the German side of Bologna; and indeed, till you arrive at that city, you always see a link of receding woody hills on the left. In like manner the cattle begin to differ, both in kind and colour, from the cattle of the southern provinces. They are no longer of so light a grey, but some of them are red, and most of them of a mixed colour. The swine, which through all lower and middle Italy are black, are in these provinces white. The men have less animation; and, as the high streams of life are here less glowing, they more frequently indulge themselves in the use of wine. Between Bologna and Ferrara there are no hills, much less mountains. Strengthened and fed by the fat soil, both man and beast here begin to have less of the fire of the south, and somewhat more of northern phlegm, or of northern thought.

Padua, which the Italians pronounce Padova, was formerly called Patavium, and is one of the most ancient towns of Italy. Virgil ascribes its origin to the Trojan hero, Antenor; who, according to tradition, came to Italy after the destruction of Troy. Padua was formerly more populous than it is at present, but it now contains about forty thousand souls. This town boasts of being the nursing mother and tutoress of the proud Venice, to which young city it sent magistrates and judges, at the time when, laying its foundations on the little islands where it stands, it offered a secure retreat to the numerous Italians who fled from the desolating Attila. In the cloister of the church of St. Augustin many protestants are buried, and monuments are erected to their memory even in the portico. The university of Padua was founded by Frederic II. in 1222, and became so famous that students were sent thither from all parts of Europe. The great Galileo here taught geometry; and the number of students in former times consisted of eighteen thousand, but there are not now above six hundred.

At the distance of five Italian miles from Venice you come to the open sea, where that magnificent city seems to swim and rise out of the waters. The prospect is unique in its kind. The appearance of the city, when passing through the canals, is still more singular. The houses stand upon piles, over which the waves flow. Some rows of houses are separated by a quay from the canals, or rather from the small arms of the sea, which form the islands. Others stand immediately in the water, which washes the stone steps up which you ascend from the canals to the houses. These houses have back doors into narrow streets; by which, aided by bridges, all parts of the city are made accessible to foot passengers. The canals are covered with gondole, each of which is rowed by a man. These gondole must all be black; and in the middle they have each a small canopy, which must not be covered with any other stuff but black cloth: Hence they have a gloomy appearance. Being long and small, they skim lightly along in so rapid a manner that, though cautiously managed, at first they terrify strangers. The palace of the doge, or duke, is called Il Palazzo di San Marco,

in which are halls for various purposes, each of which is embellished with paintings of the Venetian school. The church of St. Mark is built in the place of that name; the fantastic architecture of which has imparted something of a character of greatness to it. Facing the church in this place are five large arcades, over the center one of which four gilded horses are placed, which the Venetians, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, under the command of their great doge Dandolo, with the aid of the French, brought from Constantinople, after taking that city, and placed them in Venice. They had been sent from Rome to Constantinople by Constantine the Great, and had ornamented the triumphal arches first of Nero, and then of Trajan. The place of St. Mark, which properly consists of two places, La Piazza and La Piazzetta, or the Place and the Little Place, though the smallest is very spacious, adds greatly to the beauty of the city, and is justly esteemed one of the first, if not the very first, and most beautiful of the kind in Europe. Founded on seventy-two islands, the different quarters of Venice are connected with each other by nearly five hundred bridges, under which the gondole* can pass.

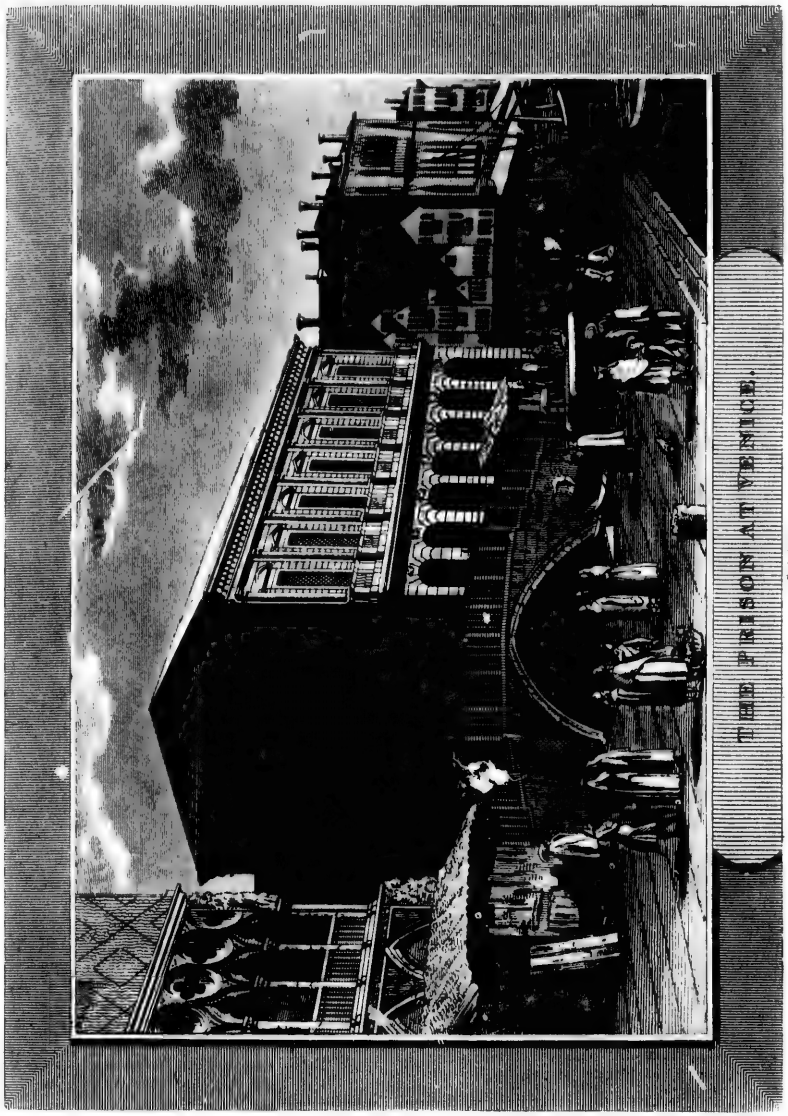
About twenty miles south of Venice the republic has nearly completed an undertaking which is scarcely inferior to the greatest works of ancient Rome. A high wall, or pier, of large stones is built on a small cape; the purpose of which is, to protect the shallow waters that surround the seventy-two islands on which the city is built, and many others that are seen scattered around, against the wild waves of the Adriatic. To resist these the wall it constructed upon two distinct terraces of marble; each of which is nine paces broad. The smallest of these terraces, which consists of four steps, is opposed to the inner waters, which are called La Laguna. The joints of the stone, after the manner of the ancient Roman buildings, are filled with a mixture of lime and puzzolana. The latter material is brought from Mount Vesuvius. On the wall is the following inscription: "Ut sacra æstuaria, Urbis et Libertatis sedes, perpetuum conserventur, colosseas moles ex solido marmore contra mare posuere Curatores Aquarum.—Anno salutis MDCCLI.—Ab urbe condita MCCCXXX." That is, "The Conservators of the Waters have erected this colossal rampart of solid marble, to oppose the sea and forever preserve the sacred shallows, the seat of the City and of Freedom.—In the year of redemption MDCCLI.—From the founding of the city MCCCXXX." Count Stolberg measured the length of this stone pier, as far as it is completed, and counted three thousand six hundred and twenty paces, or steps. The population of Venice is estimated at a hundred and sixty thousand souls, and the number of people in its whole territories at two millions and a half.

The duchy of Stiria is well cultivated; the inhabitants of which, though they rather resemble the people of Germany than of Carniola, are very distinctly divided into Vandals and Germans, the numbers of the latter being far the most considerable. The towns and villages of Stiria are well built, and the peasants have better habitations than the Vandals of Carniola. The farther a person goes into Stiria the more pleasant the country becomes. A considerable mountain, called Semmering, separates this province from Austria Proper; the first aspect of which, from the mountain, is delightful in the charms of wild nature. Soon afterward the country becomes flat, is well tilled, and the towns have a good appearance.

Vienna is the capital of the Austrian dominions. Here strangers are welcomed with amenity, and with an air that shews the heart and the lips are not at variance. If a stranger be introduced to certain families he is neither obliged to yawn with the tedious glutton, nor administer to the avarice of a rapacious card party. His host, on the contrary, endeavours to sound his affections, heighten his pleasures, and receive him with that unaffected hospitality which renders his stay agreeable. In the hall of the imperial library in this city is the entire collection of books made by the great Eugene; the hero who, beside possessing the talents of the warrior and the statesman, had acquired great and various knowledge. The cabinet of natural history, in minerals and

* It may appear somewhat strange that the dialect of the gondoliers (people that row the gondole) should be different from that of the Venetians, but it is a fact: even Tasso's Jerusalem Delivered has been translated into thirteen different dialects of Italy.

petrifications



THE PRISON AT VENICE.

petrifications, is said to be inferior to none in Europe. Some institutions in Vienna have likewise been partly founded and partly improved by the emperor Joseph II. The sick are better attended in the hospitals; and regularity, industry, health, and cheerfulness animate the children of the orphan house. The Narrenthurm (Idiots' Tower) or Mad house is a remarkable institution, large, circular, and five stories high. The mad people are not allowed to be treated with cruelty: they have good beds, and those who rage are not to be seen. The Orphan House, which is a large and well regulated building, contains three hundred and forty-six children. The boys and girls have two distinct gardens, and are not allowed to be together, except at church. The imperial picture gallery is near the city, in the Belvedere Palace, which was inhabited by the great Eugene. This gallery is particularly rich in paintings of the Flemish and Dutch schools. In the gallery of the prince of Lichtenstein, which is affirmed to be one of the richest collections possessed by any private man in Europe, are some excellent paintings. The circumference of that which is properly the fortified city of Vienna is not large, and only contains about sixty thousand souls; but the suburbs are therefore the more ample, and, according to the estimate made in 1792, the city and suburbs together contain two hundred and fifty thousand inhabitants. In the city itself are numerous and beautiful palaces, but the streets are not spacious, and are in part crooked. The country round Vienna is very pleasant, but the city in the winter is frequently visited by dreadful storms.

APPENDIX

TO

STOLBERG'S TRAVELS,

EXTRACTED FROM A

JOURNEY IN MORAVIA AND BOHEMIA,

BY

JEAN DE BRIE, *made in* 1804.

MORAVIA is a province of Germany, which derives the name of Mahern, as it is called by the Germans, and of Morawa, as it is called by the natives, from the river of that name which rises in the mountains of Glatz in Bohemia, and, passing through the middle of Moravia, falls into the Danube at Presburg. Moravia has Bohemia on the North and West, Poland on the North East, Hungary on the East, and Austria on the South, from which it is separated by the Danube. Its length is about a hundred and twenty miles, and its breadth a hundred miles. A great part of this country is overrun with woods and mountains, where the air is very cold, but much more wholesome than in the low grounds, which has many lakes and bogs. The mountains are generally barren, but the more champaign parts of the country are tolerably fertile, yielding corn, with plenty of hemp and flax, good saffron, and pasture. Nor is it altogether destitute of wine, red and white, fruits and vegetables. It abounds in horses, black cattle, sheep, and goats. The language of the inhabitants is a dialect of the Sclavonic, differing but little from that of Bohemia; but the nobility and citizens speak the German and the French. Moravia was anciently inhabited by the Quadi, who were driven out by the Sclavi. Its kings, who were once powerful and independent, afterwards became dependent on, and tributary to, the German emperors and kings. In 908 the Moravian kingdom was parcelled out among the Germans, Poles, and Hungarians. In 1806 that part of it properly called Moravia was declared a marquisate by the German king Henry IV. and united with Bohemia, to whose dukes and kings it has ever since been subject. The states of the country consist of the clergy, lords, knights, and burgesses; and the diets, when summoned by the regency are held at Brunn. It is divided into six circles, each of which has its captain, and it contributes about one-third of what is exacted from Bohemia. The bishop of Olmutz is at the head of the ecclesiastics of this country; and the supreme ecclesiastical jurisdiction, under the bishop, is vested in a consistory. The commerce of this country is inconsiderable: of that which they enjoy, Brunn has the principal part. At Iglau and Trebitz are manufactures of cloth, paper, and gunpowder. The inhabitants in general are open-hearted, not easy to be provoked or pacified, obedient to their masters, and true to their promises; but credulous of old prophecies, and much addicted

to

to drinking. The boors, indeed, upon the river Hanak, are said to be a thievish, unpolished, brutal race. The sciences now begin to lift up their heads a little among the Moravians, the university of Olmutz having been greatly improved.

Vienna is on the South side of the river Danube, and opposite to it on the North side is Entzersdorf. From Vienna to Mischau in Moravia is forty-five miles; from Mischau to Austerlitz the distance is seventeen miles, and from Austerlitz, on the same road, to Olmutz is thirty miles, so that from Vienna to Olmutz the distance is eighty-two miles. This latter town is the capital of Moravia. The town, though small is very neat, strong, and populous. It stands on the river Morawa, over which is a large bridge; and by its navigation the inhabitants carry on a good trade with its southern neighbours, particularly Hungary and Austria. The public buildings are very handsome. Its university has been mentioned above. It is the see of a bishop, and St. Cyril, who lived about the year 880 was its bishop. Here is an abbey so advantageously situated for the defence of the town that it is fortified and garrisoned. In 1741 the king of Prussia took it with its whole garrison. In July 1758 he besieged it again; and when on the eve of taking it he was obliged to raise the siege, to go and meet the Russian army, which was advancing against him,

Brinn, or Brunn, is ten miles West of Austerlitz, thirty S. W. of Olmutz, and sixty N. of Vienna. Although this town be situated in Moravia, forty-five miles from the borders of Bohemia, yet it is a dependency of Bohemia, which has occasioned some geographers to mistake it for a part of the latter kingdom. It stands near the confluence of the Schwartz and the Zwittau, is a pretty large well built town, but is not very populous. The inhabitants carry on a great deal of trade. It has four gates, a cathedral, and several other churches, several convents, an episcopal palace, provincial house, and other public structures. The diets of Moravia are held in the provincial house. It is defended by a castle built on Spielberg Hill, which is encompassed by a double wall and two ditches. In 1645 this place held out bravely against the Swedes.

Znaim is thirty-five miles S. W. of Brunn, and forty N. by W. of Vienna. It is a large place, and has a handsome castle, which is very old, and in which there are said to be a great number of Pagan antiquities. Its situation is on the river Taye, which falls into the Morawa about twenty-five miles above the place where that river falls into the Danube.

The large, strong, and well built town of Iglau is thirty-seven miles N. W. of Znaim, seventy-four miles W. by S. of Olmutz, and seventy-four N. of Vienna. It lies on a river of the same name, and is situated on the confines of Bohemia, in the road to Hungary, and is therefore much frequented. In the Hussite war this place obstinately adhered to the side of the Pope, but was the first town of Moravia subject to Bohemia which received the Augsburg confession of faith. In 1645 it surrendered to the Swedes, who, to render the town the more tenable, burnt down its large suburbs, and defended it a whole year against all the emperor's forces, and even repulsed them. At other times it was alternately taken and retaken in the wars between Bohemia and Germany. Its principal trade is in beer and coarse woollen cloth.

Teltsich is ten miles S[illegible]glau; it is a pretty little town, is well buil[illegible] populous. It is near the frontiers of Bohemia, and is seated at the source of the river Taye, which passes by Znaim.

BOHEMIA is, it must be confessed, one of the best countries in the Austrian dominions, and, next to Hungary, it yields a greater revenue to the crown. It is bounded by Saxony and Lusatia on the N. by Silesia on the N. E. and E. by Moravia on the E. and S. E. by Austria on the S. and by Bavaria on the W. It is about a hundred and seventy miles from N. to S. and about two hundred and twenty miles from E. to W.

In Bohemia are many mines which contain gold, silver, copper, iron, tin, lead, sulphur, and nitre. In some of its rivers (the principal of which are, the Elbe, the Muldaw, the Caburz, the Egra, and the Sazawa,) is found gold sand. Here are several salt pits; but the inhabitants are chiefly supplied with that article from Misnia. It was formerly a part of the Hyrcanian Forest, which, though now replaced with a vast many towns and villages, yet has still forests and woods

woods well stocked with deer, wild beasts, and fowl. In general the soil is good, and the land arable, though barren and sandy in some parts. It not only yields corn, but plenty of saffron, which latter, however, is not so good in quality as that which is produced in some other parts of Europe. The gardens and orchards yield abundantly more than is sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants; they therefore export a considerable part. Vineyards are not much cultivated here, because the wine will not keep. They have beer, both brown and white, which is highly valued, and great quantities of it are exported.

The inhabitants of Bohemia are a mixture of Sclavonians, (those living in villages being slaves,) and of Germans. The inhabitants of the town are not fond of arms, arts, or trade; but rather prefer an indolent life. They are in general large bodied and well set, subtle, courageous, and true to their word: but the common sort, are rather thievish, both in the country and even in the towns after sun-set. Their original language is the Sclavonian, which was looked upon to be so copious and sweet, that their lawgivers ordered its true orthography and pronunciation to be inviolably preserved; but most people of fashion, through their intercourse with the court of Vienna, speak High Dutch, which the common people have now intermixed with their own language. A few of the Hussites still subsist in Bohemia, but they keep themselves very close, and the government seems to take no notice of them. The Jews have no open toleration; but the most predominant religion is that of the church of Rome.

The protestant religion had very early footing in this country. They agreed principally with Luther in doctrine and discipline: but the dreadful persecutions which they suffered, through the instigation of several popes, occasioned the Bohemian war in 1618, when the protestants chose Frederic V. elector palatine, for their king; but he being defeated at the battle of Prague in 1620, they were shockingly persecuted and at length banished in 1639; since which time their worship was not tolerated in Bohemia till 1782, when the emperor Joseph granted a general toleration to all persuasions. Since 1639 the Bohemians have been governed very despotically by the house of Austria. They have still only the shadow of liberty among them, their states meeting every year at Prague, when they seldom refuse the whole of the emperor's demands; for they dread his resentment if they were to make the least demur.

The annual revenue of Bohemia to the house of Austria amounts to nearly a million of pounds sterling. The wealth and grandeur of the nobility, with the extreme poverty and slavery of the peasants can hardly be imagined. The generality of the nobility and gentrydespise preferments out of their own country; yet they travel into France or Italy, but not without express leave from the emperor, under the penalty of forfeiting their estates. When they come of age they are obliged to take the oath of fidelity to the king.

Many of the Bohemians have a talent for music, especially the hunter's horn; and there is no village where the mass is not sung in concert. The affairs of Bohemia are directed by a chancellor, who has a vice-chancellor under him, with several assessors and counsellors.

Prague, the capital of Bohemia, is 160 miles N. W. of Vienna, 130 W. by N. of Olmutz, and 80 S. by E. of Dresden. This town is situated in a pleasant and fruitful country, amidst gardens and fine fields, surrounded with palaces and pleasure houses, on the river Muldaw, which passing through it divides it into two parts. Prague is one of the largest cities in Europe, being about fifteen miles in circuit, and next to London, Paris, and Constantinople, is said to be the most populous. It consists of three towns, the Old, the New, and the Little Town. It has a hundred churches, besides nine Jewish synagogues, and a famous university, which stands in the old town, and was founded in 1358, by the emperor Charles IV. It is the only one in Bohemia, and has generally about one thousand four hundred students. Here are several monasteries and colleges, of which there is a very magnificent one which belonged to the Jesuits before their expulsion, near the bridge, from the belfry of whose church there is the best prospect of the city. On a rising ground, called Ratschin Hill, is a magnificent palace of the emperor; and here is the cathedral of St. Viet. The city is the see of an archbishop. Here are Bohemian crystals, which bear a fine polish, and are set in earpendants, rings, &c. but they are principally

used for lustres and drinking glasses, which are vended all over Europe.

Koningratz is 68 miles E. of Prague, and is a large town on the river Elbe, near its confluence with the Orlitz. It has its name from being the appendage of the queens, and their place of residence when widows. It is the principal town of a circle of the same name; and is the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Prague.

Glatz is thirty-eight miles N. E. of Koningratz, on the confines of Silesia; it is seated on the river Mira, which runs into the Oder. Here is a castle on a rock which is almost inaccessible; it surrendered, however, to the king of Prussia in 1742, and the city, together with the county of the same name, was ceded to that monarch at the treaty of Breslau. Its trade is in silver ore, iron, timber, coals, venison, cattle, butter, and cheese. The great church of Glatz was formerly a pagan temple. The town has good suburbs, and a good town house, but the place suffered much in the civil wars of Bohemia.

Egra is 100 miles W. of Prague, on the confines of Bohemia, and on a river of the same name, which falls into the Elbe near Lentmiritz. It is the capital of a circle of the same name, and has a double wall towards the river, and in other parts a triple one, with a strong castle. In March 1742 the French took the town; but in September 1743 they surrendered it to the Austrians. In the neighbourhood are mines of silver and copper, with a purgative spa, famous for curing distempers of the eyes, ears, or other parts of the head. Here the channel of the river is broad and deep, bearing large vessels, and abounding with fish.

Tabor is 45 miles S. of Prague, and 11[illegible] N. W. of Vienna. The town is not large, but it is a strong place. It was fortified by general Zisca, who was at the head of the Hussites, who had their head quarters at this place. It is seated on a hill, and has a double wall, towers, and bastions.

Budweis is 30 miles S. of Tabor, and 95 N. W. by W. of Vienna. It is seated on the Muldaw. At this place the Austrians defeated the French and Bavarians in 1741; but in 1744 it was taken by the Prussians.

Continuing the same road to the southward at the distance of twenty-five miles is Rosenberg, which is likewise built on the banks of the Muldaw. It is a place of some strength, though not very formidable; and the town is not large. It might, however, be converted into a place of importance, with but little trouble or expence.

THE END OF STOLBERG'S TRAVELS IN GERMANY.

TRAVELS

IN

UPPER AND LOWER HUNGARY,

TRANSYLVANIA, SCLAVONIA, CROATIA, AND MORLACHIA.

BY

JEAN VICTOIRE DUTENS,

ENGINEER, in 1806.

SECTION I.

General Description of Hungary—Account of Presburg, Altenburg, Raab, and other principal Towns.

THE greater part of the kingdom of Hungary was anciently called Pannoniæ. It received the name of Hungary from the Huns, a Scythian or Tartar nation, who subdued it in the fourth century. This country, including Transylvania, lies between 16 and 27 degrees of East longitude, and 44 degrees 40 minutes and 49 degrees 20 minutes of North latitude. It is bounded on the North by the mountains of Crapack, (generally called the Carpathian Mountains,) which separate it from Poland; by Croatia, Sclavonia, (from which it is separated by the river Drave) Servia, and Walachia on the South; by Moravia, Austria, and Stiria on the West; and on the East by Turkey in Europe. It is divided into Upper and Lower Hungary, the former being that part which lies towards the east, beyond the river Theiss; the latter that which lies towards the West of that river. Hungary including Transylvania is four hundred and fifty miles long, and three hundred and fifty broad.

The northern parts of the kingdom are mountainous and barren, but healthy; the southern parts, on the contrary, are level, and exceedingly fruitful, but not very salubrious. The country along the banks of the Danube, from Presburg to Semlin, in Sclavonia, (which is opposite to Belgrade, in Servia,) for upwards of three hundred miles, is one continued plain, and no soil can be more fertile; but the air, by reason of the many swamps and morasses, is not so wholesome as on the higher and drier grounds. In the extensive country of Hungary there are mines of gold and silver, copper, iron, lead, quicksilver, cinnabar, antimony, yellow orpiment, sulphur, vitriol, marcasite, salt, native and factitious, salt-petre, magnets, asbestos or stone flax, marble of several colours, alabaster, and some precious stones. Corn is in such plenty, that it is sold exceedingly cheap*. Their grapes are large and luscious; and some of their wines are preferred to any in Europe. The people have vast numbers of cattle and horses, the latter mostly mouse-coloured, with buffaloes, deer, wild fowl, game, (which is so numerous, that no person is restrained from hunting,) and fish, (which is likewise so plentiful, that they frequently feed their hogs with it,) and many species of wild beasts, particularly chamois goats and bears. Of vegetables, besides vines, and the common sorts, here are tobacco, saffron, buck wheat, millet, melons, and chesnuts. Here also are excellent warm baths, and springs of various kinds and qualities. The chief mountains are those of Crapack, the sides of which are mostly covered with wood, and their summits with snow. The chief rivers are the Danube,

* It is said to be about one-sixth of the price that article bears in England.

Danube, the Drave, the Theiss, the Waag, the Gran, the Temes, and the Raab, which are all well stocked with fish. There are several lakes in this country, the principal of which are, the Neusidler, (or Lake Pelso,) the Lake Balaton, (or Platten,) and the Palitsher See, near Zegedin.

The inhabitants are a mixture of the descendants of the ancient Huns, Sclavonians, Cumani, Germans, Walachians, Greeks, Jews, Turks, and a wandering people called Zigduns, said to be of uncertain origin, but probably the same as those called Gipsies. The Hungarians are said to be of a sanguine choleric temper, and somewhat fierce, cruel, proud, and revengeful. They have been always reckoned good soldiers, being much more inclined to arms, martial exercises, and hunting, than to arts, learning, trade, or agriculture. The nobility affect great pomp and magnificence, and are much addicted to feasting and carousing. The men in general are strong and well proportioned. They shave their beards, but leave whiskers on the upper lip, wearing fur caps on their heads, a close bodied coat girt with a sash, with a short cloak or mantle over all, so contrived as to be buckled under the arm, and leave the right hand at liberty. Their horse soldiers are called hussars, and their foot heyduks. The former wear a broad sword or scymetar, and carry a hatchet or battle axe. Their horses are fleet, but not so large as the German horses, and therefore they stand up in their short stirrups when they strike. Both horse and foot are excellent militia, very good at a pursuit, or ravaging and plundering a country, but are not equal to regular troops in a pitched battle. The women, when they go abroad, wear short cloaks and a veil.

There are five languages spoken in this country, *viz.* the Hungarian, which, like the people, is of Scythian origin, and has little or no affinity with any European tongue: the German, the Sclavonian, the Walachian, and the Latin. The last is spoken, not only by the better sort of people, but also by the plebeians, though very corruptly. The people called Zigduns have also a particular jargon. Christianity was planted in Hungary in the ninth and tenth centuries. In the sixteenth the Reformation made a great progress in it; but at present, though the Roman Catholics hardly make a fourth part of the inhabitants, their religion is predominant, the Protestants enjoying only toleration. Besides several sects of Protestants, here are also great numbers of the Greek church and Jews; these last pay double taxes of all kinds. Here are likewise a great many Turks, particularly in the parts which border upon Turkey, and in some of the large towns, where are several mosques. Besides colleges and convents, there are several universities belonging to the partizans of the church of Rome; and the Lutherans and Calvinists have their gymnasiums and schools, but they are under certain restrictions.

As to the trade of this country, it is almost wholly in the hands of the Greeks and Jews. The exports consist chiefly of wine, horses, cattle, metals, minerals, saffron, wool, and leather. Hungary in particular furnishes Austria and the neighbouring countries west of it, with large droves of cattle, as well as a variety of wines, of which those of Tokay are reckoned the best. The principal manufactures are those of copper, brass, iron, and other hard wares. Great quantities of brass and iron are exported, wrought and unwrought.

Hungary at first, like most other countries, was divided into many little principalities and states, which were at length united under one head, who had the title of duke. The last of these dukes was Geysa, who becoming a proselyte to Christianity, was baptized; after which he resigned the government to his son Stephen, who took the title of king, in the year 1000. But as the throne was filled by election, though generally out of the same family, the disposal of the crown was disputed between the Turkish and German emperors for nearly two hundred years; and after the year 1527, when Ferdinand, archduke of Austria, was advanced to the throne, the Austrians found means to influence the elections in such a manner, as to keep the crown in their family till 1687, when it was settled hereditarily on their heirs male and now, in consequence of an act made by the diet at Presburg, in 1723, in case of the failure of heirs male it is to descend to females.

The states of the kingdom consist of the prelates, the barons, the gentry, and the royal free towns. To the first class belong two archbishops, about a dozen bishops, and nearly as many abbots and provosts. To the second, the stadtholder or palatinate, who represents the king

the court judge, the ban or viceroy of Morlachia, Croatia, and Sclavonia, (for these provinces are now considered as a part of Hungary, because they belong to the emperor of Austria;) the stadtholder of Transylvania; the great treasurer, the cup bearer, the steward of the household, the master of the horse, the lord chamberlain, the captain of the yeomen of the guards, and the grand marshal of the courts, who are called the great barons, together with the inferior barons or counts and barons. To the third class belong the gentry, some of whom have noble manors, and others only the privileges of nobles. To the fourth class belong the royal free towns, which are not subject to the counts, but hold immediately of the king. The gentry also, who hold of the archbishops and bishops, have the same privileges as the Hungarian nobility. The common people are vassals to the lords, on whose lands they live, whether those lands belong to the crown, the clergy, the nobility, or the gentry.

The ordinary revenue of this kingdom is said to amount to at least a million sterling, arising from the mines, duties on cattle, royal demesnes, salt works, contributions, and customs. The fortifications and garrisons, constantly maintained on the frontiers on the side of Turkey, are a great expence to the government. Hungary can easily bring into the field a hundred thousand men, regulars and militia; (but, as before observed, they are not equal to a veteran army;) for there are fifty thousand generally in actual pay, and the several gesfanchasts, or counties furnish the remainder when wanted.

Presburg is the capital of Hungary, and is defended by a strong castle with four towers seated on a hill, where the crown of the kingdom is kept. The archbishop of Strigonia resides here, and has very handsome gardens belonging to his palace. Though the town, exclusive of the suburbs, is but small, it is a pleasant well built city. It is populous, and many Italian merchants have houses here. Presburg has suffered much by fires, and other calamities, of which sad ruins are still to be seen. Of the city's five gates, two are small posterns, or sallies in case of a siege. Over one is the following inscription is gold, "Omne regnum in seipsum divisum desolabitur;" *i. e.* "Every kingdom divided against itself shall be destroyed." It was intended as a lesson to the Hungarians, to keep united, lest by their internal squabbles mischief might accrue to the state. Presburg has ditches, on one side dry, on the other marshy, but neither deep nor broad enough for the defence of the town. The ascent of the citadel is by one hundred and fifteen steps. In its middle is a deep well dug in the rock, into which the waters from the Danube penetrate. Upon the hills on the North and West sides of the citadel are excellent vines. At this place the palatine of Hungary resides; he is the king's lieutenant, and has great authority. The Danube is very wide and rapid opposite the town: in summer it is crossed over a bridge of boats; but on the approach of winter, this bridge is withdrawn, and they make use of a flying bridge, composed of two large boats, joined together, which is made to run along by a rope extended across the river, and makes a very safe bridge. Presburg is 32 miles E. by S. of Vienna, and 72 miles S. E. of Znaim.

Altenburg is 16 miles S. of Presburg; it is a fine town, and is the capital of the province of Wieselburg: it is situated on an island, and has a strong castle, standing on a small arm of the Danube and on the Leitha, and has besides a deep and broad ditch surrounding it filled with water. In these parts is no other road out of Hungary into Austria, but close by the castle; so that it has been reckoned the best frontier town on the west side of Hungary.

Raab is 25 miles S. E. of Altenburg, and is the capital of the county of the same name. It is a royal free town and strong fortress, both by nature and art, on the river Raab, where it unites with the Danube and Rabnitz, by the waters of which it is surrounded, forming also the island of Schutt. It is defended by seven large bastions, and four cavaliers and mounts, which overlook them; has two bridges over the branches of the river, and some antique arms in its magazine. The country round it is champaign, and only commanded by a neighbouring hill, that may be sapped and easily blown up. In an open field at a little distance is a watch tower, from which the approach of an enemy may be seen a great way.

Odenburg, which is the principal town of the county of the same name, is about 50 miles W. of Raab, and 36 S. W. of Presburg. This

royal free town is likewise called Sopron, and is said to be one of the best in Hungrary. Its inhabitants make excellent wine.

Buda, or (as it is called by the inhabitants) Ofen, 115 miles E. by S. of Vienna, 82 S. E. of Presburg, and 190 N. by W. of Belgrade, is on the west bank of the Danube. This town is also called New Buda, or Ofen; the remains of Alt Ofen are in the plain extending from the suburbs of Buda, between the mountains of Pilis and the Danube. Alt Ofen is at present but a mean place, about which are vast heaps of ruins, where remains of Roman antiquities are still found. New Buda is a royal free city, well fortified, and has a castle which many suppose to be nearly impregnable. The houses are tolerably handsome, being most of them built with square stones. The lower city, or Jews' town, extends, like suburbs, from the upper city to the Danube. The upper takes up all the declivity of a mountain, and is fortified with good walls, which have towers at certain distances. The castle, which is at the extremity of the hill, and commands the greatest part of it, is surrounded with a very deep ditch, and defended by an old fashioned tower, with the addition of new fortifications. There is also a suburb, enclosed with hedges, after the Hungarian manner. The most sumptuous structures now are the caravanserais, the mosques, bridges, and baths. These last are supposed to be the finest in Europe, for the magnificence of their building and for plenty of water. Some of the springs are used for bathing and drinking; and others are so hot that they cannot be used without an admixture of cold water. The Danube here is about three-quarters of a mile wide, and there is a bridge of boats between this city and Pest, consisting of sixty-three large pontoons. The adjacent country is fruitful and pleasant, producing rich wines, though in some places they have a sulphureous flavour, from the impregnation of the water*.

As Buda is on the western side of the Danube, so is Pest on the eastern, like London and Southwark in England, which are separated by the Thames. Pest is the capital of a county of the same name, is situated in a fine plain, and is 83 miles S. E. of Presburg.

From Raab to Stuhlweissenburg is 38 miles in a S. E. direction, which town is about 30 miles S. W. of Buda. It is a royal free town, and is the capital of a county of the same name. It stands in a morass formed by the river Sarwitz, but is not formidable upon that account. It had formerly good works, but these have long since been demolished. From the town go three very broad dams, between which are churches, houses, gardens, and meadows, so that these parts, like suburbs, are more populous than the town itself. It was some years ago in a flourishing condition; but having several times been subject to the horrors of war, it is now in a declining state.

Baja is a well inhabited town of the county of Bats, 85 miles S. of Buda, and 22 miles S. of Hajosh. Its situation is on the Danube, in a very fruitful country, on the eastern side of the river.

From Baja to Apathy is about 40 miles in a southern direction, through a pleasant country. It is a very large village belonging to the territory of the Jazyges or Philistes. The district in its neighbourhood is remarkably fertile, and produces an amazing quantity of corn and pasture. Although it only bears the appellation of a village, yet it is larger and more populous than many towns which are the capitals of counties. It is about two miles E. of the Danube, and 18 miles N. E. of Eszeg; the name of which latter place is generally spelt Esseck, but it is erroneous.

* This city was the residence of the kings of Hungary till the Turks took it in 1526. Ferdinand, archduke of Austria, recovered it the next year; but in 1529 the Turks became masters of it again. In 1684 the Christians laid siege to it, but they were obliged to raise it soon after, though they had an army of eighty thousand men. Two years after the Turks lost it again, it being taken by assault in the sight of a numerous army. The booty that the Christians found in it was almost incredible, because the rich inhabitants had lodged their treasure in this city as a place of safety. However, part of these riches were lost in the fire occasioned by the assault. This last siege cost the Christians a great deal of blood, because there were those in the camp who carried on a secret correspondence with the Turks. When the seraskier saw the city on fire, and found he could not relieve it, he beat his head against the ground through anger. In 1687 this city had like to have fallen into the hands of the Turks again, by treachery. After this the Christians augmented the fortifications of the town, which so pleased the pope that he contributed a hundred thousand crowns toward the expences, for he looked upon Buda as the key of Christendom.

Carlowitz, or as it is called by the Hungarians, Neusaz, is about 45 miles S. E. of Apathy, and the same distance N. W. of Belgrade. This place is a strong military town of the district of Sirmien in Lower Hungary, six miles N. E. of Petervardein, on the western bank of a small river which empties itself into the Danube, at a spot where several islands are formed by the windings of the river. This town is rendered famous in history for the peace concluded here in 1699, between the Turks and the Imperialists; and is likewise noted for its red wine, which is said to be the best in Hungary.

At six miles S. W. of Neusaz is Petervardein, on the southern bank of the Danube, but in Sclavonia, of which country it is a frontier town. It has often changed its master, being sometimes subject to the Turks and sometimes to the Imperialists; for it was frequently taken and retaken by those powers when at war with each other. It was dismantled by the Imperialists, and burnt by the Turks, re-fortified by the emperor, and made one of the strongest frontier towns against Turkey in 1691. In 1716 prince Eugene obtained a signal victory over the Turks in its neighbourhood. It is at present subject to the emperor of Austria, and is a place of great strength.

Comorra or Comorn is a royal free town of Lower Hungary, the capital of the county of that name, (which district is inhabited by Hungarians, Germans, and Bohemian slaves, with some few Rascians,) at the eastern extremity of the island of Schutt. It is distant from Presburg about 46 miles S. E. and about 40 miles N. W. of Buda. In this town is the court house of the country, a college, and an academy. Near it is an amazingly strong fortress, which is surrounded on the west by a deep ditch full of water, on the south and north by the rivers Danube and Waag, whose streams unite here. The Turks often attacked this place, but owing to its great strength were never able to take it. It was destroyed by an earthquake in 1763, but has been since rebuilt.

At 10 miles N. of Comorra is Newhausel, which is the principal town of a district of the same name. It is 38 miles E. of Presburg, and was an important fortress, which gave the Turks a great deal of trouble: they, however, took it in 1663; but the duke of Lorraine retook it in 1683. Its situation is a charming one, and the country around it fertile and pleasant.

From Comorra to Gran is 24 miles along the banks of the Danube, The fertile county of Gran lies to the east of the county of Raab, and is extremely productive of all the necessaries of life. The town of Gran is a royal free place, and is situated on the south bank of the Danube, opposite to Barkan, where that river receives the Gran, which latter river has its rise in the Carpathian mountains, which separate Hungary from Poland. It is builtt in a very fruitful country, which produces great quantities of excellent wine, and was once the metropolis of the kingdom. It is exceedingly well fortified, and divided into the Upper and the Lower towns; the latter of which has great command of the Danube. Here is the see of an archbishop, valued before the loss of Newhausel, above-mentioned, at three hundred and forty thousand florins per annum; but now it is not reckoned worth more than one hundred thousand. The castle, the archbishop's palace, and Saint Stephen's cathedral, are the principal among its many noble structures. Here are two large towers, one towards Thonesburg, and the other facing the river, which are joined by a wall fortified with divers redoubts, and a ditch flanked with hewn stone, besides a pallisadoed terrace, and four great points like ravelines; and there is also a strong fort built on St. Thomas's hill. This town has often changed its master, as have many others in this country. In 1596 the Imperialists took it from the Turks. In the siege of it at that time, Sir Thomas Arundel of Wardour castle, for his signal valour in storming the watch tower, and pulling down the Turkish banner, &c. was created a count of the empire by the emperor Rudolph, and afterwards king James I. made him a baron of England; which honours are still enjoyed by his posterity. The Turks, however, retook it, and kept possession of it till 1683, when, after the defeat of their army before Vienna by John Sobieski, king of Poland, the Imperialists recovered and defended it against the Turks, who again attacked it in 1685, but were entirely defeated by the dukes of Lorraine and Bavaria; since which time the house of Austria have remained in possession of it.

Schemnitz, or Scemniz, is 50 miles N. of Gran, 66 miles N. of Buda, and 72 miles N. E. of Presburg.

Presburg. It is one of the largest mine towns in Hungary, and as it is built on a rocky hill, its streets are consequently rendered very uneven. Here are three Lutheran churches, and the town is defended by as many castles, one of which being built in a very lofty situation, serves the purpose of an excellent watch tower. Here are some of the finest medicinal baths in this part of the world, but the air of the place is not very healthy. The neighbourhood of Schemnitz has been long famous for six rich mines of silver, one of which is in some places very cold, and in others so extremely hot, that the miners are under the necessity of working naked. Most of the ore contains a portion of gold; and in these mines are likewise found crystals, amethysts, and vitriol naturally crystalized. Not far from the town is a rock, where is found a red substance which is called cinnabar of silver, of which the inhabitants make an exceedingly fine vermillion. In these mines upwards of two hundred men are kept constantly at work.

At the distance of 18 miles from Schemnitz, in a northerly direction, is the royal free town of Kremnitz, which is the principal among the mountain towns. Its situation is very low, having high mountains all about it. The town itself is but small, and its suburbs are by far the most considerable part, in which are nine streets. At this town is a mint, where all the gold and silver found in the mines is coined into money, to the amount of about a hundred thousand ducats yearly. During the internal commotions of this country the town of Kremnitz was a considerable sufferer. It was totally destroyed by fire in the year 1777, but has since been rebuilt.

From Buda a good road leads through Gyongyosh to Erlau, or Eger, (for it is situated on the river Eger, which empties itself into the Theiss,) at the distance of 65 miles, in the gespanchaft or county of Borsod. It is surrounded with old walls and bulwarks; and in its neighbourhood is a strong castle on an eminence. The town of Erlau was once in a very flourishing condition, but has been greatly reduced by the frequent sieges and attacks to which it has been subject. It is an episcopal see, and the bishop, who usually resides here, has a considerable revenue. The Jesuits had here an academy and a college, which are now converted to other purposes than the promulgation of their tenets. In the neighbourhood of Erlau an excellent kind of red wine is produced, which is much drank in this part of Hungary; and not far from the town is a warm bath which is much resorted to. This place made a very brave defence against the Turks in 1552; but in 1596 it was compelled to surrender. In 1606 the Imperialists rifled the town, and committed great outrages in it; but notwithstanding their efforts they were not able to make themselves masters of the castle.

At the distance of 30 miles from Erlau is the strong town of Mishkotz on the river Shajo, and 25 miles farther is Kascau, which is delightfully situated on the river Hernath, and is the capital of the county of Abaujvar. Kascau is a very strong place, it being enclosed with a triple wall, and a good ditch, besides being fortified with formidable bastions and a good citadel. Here are two gates, which are opened alternately, and one of the most considerable arsenals in the kingdom. Here are spoken the German, the Hungarian, the Polish, the Sclavonian, and the Turkish languages. As most of the Germans in Kascau are Lutherans, and the Hungarians Calvinists, the great church is alternately supplied with a minister of each persuasion. A rivulet from a neighbouring mountain enters the town, and divides it into two branches, that run the length of it, with thirty-four bridges over them. The town house is a most beautiful structure, and the parish church is an admirable piece of architecture. The governor commands all the troops in the neighbourhood; but within six miles of the town, the nobility &c. of the country used, in times of war, to pay homage to the Turks. In 1537 there were two kings of Hungary chosen, by different parties, and between them they made great havoc in this and the neighbouring places. The Turks laid siege to Kascau in 1592, but their attempts to take it were in vain: and in 1604 the Imperialists besieged it; but they met with no better success than the Turks; it, however, submitted to the Imperialists in 1606. In 1621 it was resigned by treaty to Bethlem Gabor, prince of Transylvania, who had besieged and taken it. In 1668 it was taken by prince Ragotski; and in 1682 it was possessed by Count Tekeli. After which it belonged now to the Turks, now to the mal-contents, now to the emperor; till at length

e latter prevailed, and it still belongs to the mperor of Austria. Thus the inhabitants of is town have been frequently compelled to sub- it to all the horrors of war, which certainly nded to reduce it from its ancient splendor and agnificence, but still it is a considerable place, nd if the country should remain at peace will, ithout doubt, recover a part at least of its rmer greatness.

At 20 miles N. by E. of Kascau is the strong d royal free town of Eperies, on the river urza, 30 miles from the confines of Poland. is the capital of the gespanchaft or county of ros. This town is surrounded with ditches, wall, and towers. It is the seat of the highest ourt in the circle of the Hither Theiss, and is the at of an academy and college. Here was formerly collegium illustre, belonging to the Lutherans, ut it is now laid aside. This place has long en famous for its fair and for its salt mines, articularly one of the latter, out of which pieces f pure salt are said to have been dug of ten ousand pounds weight. It is of several colours. he water of the mines, when boiled, produces alt which is given to the cattle. Eperies was e of the four towns yielded to Bethlem Gabor, ince of Transylvania, but the Imperialists re- vered it again in 1710.

Traversing the road to the N. W. from peries, at the distance of 28 miles is eutschau, which is the capital of the county of epes, (vulgarly called Zips,) in Upper Hun- ary. It is within 20 miles of the confines Poland. Being seated at the top of a hill, commands a beautiful and extensive prospect. he town is handsome, large, and well fortified; is principally inhabited by Germans, who pro- s Lutheranism, and who likewise speak the ungarian language. At this place is annually ld a very considerable fair, which induces ople from the neighbouring country to resort it, as well for the purposes of traffic as of usement. Leutschau is looked upon as a ace of great importance, it being reckoned the cond royal free town of Upper Hungary. It , however, like most of the strong towns in ngary, been subject to the calamities of war. 1681 the mal-contents took possession of it, d in 1685 the Imperialists wrested it from them, t the year following the mal-contents recovered gain.

In the neighbourhood of Leutschau, at the distance only of four miles in a S. W. direction, in the strong town of Iglo, in the same county, which has generally shared the fate of that town; for whoever was master of the former soon got possession of the latter.

Setting out from Buda in Lower Hungary, and passing through the large towns of Halasz, Therbsiopel, and Czernabara, you arrive at Temeswaer, which is 160 miles from Buda in a S. E. direction, and 70 from Belgrade in a N. by E. direction. This is a considerable, important, and very strong town. It is the capital of a county of the same name, and has long been considered as the capital of Upper Hungary. Indeed when the Turks were in possession of this part of Hungary, it was reckoned the capital of Sclavonia in European Turkey. Temeswaer formerly passed for impregnable; but it was taken by prince Eugene in a dry season, by throwing several thousand bombs into it in 1716. As it is seated in a morass, (to drain which, and for the purpose of navigation, a canal of about 100 miles in length has been made,) it is rendered inaccessible to an army, except in a dry season, when they are in want of rain. By the peace of Passarowitz in 1718 it was left in possession of the house of Austria, to whom it at present belongs.

At 95 miles N. of Temeswaer, and 120 E. of Buda, is Gros Wardein, (Great Waradin.) It is the capital of the county of Bihar, is an episcopal town, and a place of great strength. It is seated on the river Sebes Kerez. This town was taken by the Turks in 1660, but the Imperialists wrested it from them in 1692, and have kept possession of it ever since.

The road from Gros Wardein, in a N. W. direction, leads to Debretzein, which is 30 miles from that place, and 107 miles E. of Buda. Debretzein is a royal free town in the Farther Circle of the Theiss, in Upper Hungary. It is seated on a fine plain, and is both large and populous; yet it is but indifferently built, and has neither walls nor towers. The breeding of cattle in these parts is considerable. For twelve miles and upwards there is neither hill nor wood, being a continued heath, consequently the inhabitants are in great want of timber. This town has been three times burnt down by accident. In 1684 it was taken by the Turks, but the Imperialists retook it the same year.

Proceeding still farther on the road is Tokay, which

which is by 40 miles N. by W. of Debretzien, and 100 N. E. of Buda. This is a very strong town and citadel of Upper Hungary, and is situated on an island formed by the confluence of the Theiss and the Bodrog. The town itself is inconsiderable; but it has been long noted for its excellent wine, called Tokay, which is highly esteemed all over Europe, and sells at a high price. There is only one vineyard that produces it, insomuch that it is scarce even at Vienna itself; and as it is so scanty, we need not be surprised at the deception of the merchants, who impose upon their customers a different wine, to which they give the same appellation. It is also famous for a medicinal earth found in its neighbourhood and at some distance from it are some excellent salt works. It has been frequently taken and retaken by the Turks and the Imperialists.

Zegedin, the capital of the gespanchaft of Czongrad, is 55 miles N. W. of Temeswaer, and 70 N. E. of Eszeg. It is situated on the West side of the Theiss, but is in Upper Hungary, and is opposite the mouth of the Marosch, where that river falls into the Theiss. This town, which is defended by a castle, has undergone several sieges, with various success. The Imperialists took it from the Turks in 1686.

SECTION II.

General Description of Transylvania—Its strong Holds and principal Towns described—Account of the Passes.

TRANSYLVANIA is a province annexed to Hungary, and is bounded on the North and West by Upper Hungary, on the East and North-East by Moldavia and part of Wallachia, and on the South by Wallachia. From East to West it is 170 miles long, and from North to South 150 miles. This country is surrounded on all sides by high mountains, and the air is generally healthy and temperate. The soil produces corn, wine, and fruits in great plenty. It abounds with woods and forests, particularly on the sides of its high hills, in which are mines of gold, silver, lead, copper, quicksilver, and alum. It is inhabited by several sorts of persons, principally descendants of the ancient Siculi, Saxons, and Hungarians. They are at present of different religions, which are all tolerated, as Papists, Lutherans, Calvinists, Socinians, Photenians, Arians, and Mohammedans. The administration of affairs is conducted by twelve persons, *viz.* three Roman Catholics, three Lutherans, three Calvinists, and three Socinians. Transylvania is a very important province, and must ever turn to the advantage of its possessor whenever a war shall happen between the emperor and the Turks, by reason of the considerable supplies either of them might draw from it: and as it is a frontier province the king of Hungary will always find it his interest to keep possession of it. This country was formerly a part of Hungary, till it was rent from the body of that kingdom by Soliman the Magnificent, and erected into a separate principality, who appointed the tribute it should pay at the Porte. Prince Charles of Lorraine easily perceived, that whichsoever of the two monarchs was master of it, would without difficulty keep the sovereignty of Hungary. He possessed himself of it by open force, for his brother-in-law. He was very sensible that the supplies drawn from this province, its advantageous situation, its nearness to Wallachia and Moldavia, and its strong cities, were of the greatest importance. And these considerations prevailed with him to prefer the conquest of it before the reduction of all the rest of Hungary. The emperor easily made himself master of it, and this conquest had great consequences; for from that time, 1711, the emperor has always been absolute sovereign of it. The militia is commanded by the governor, whose commission is the more important, as Transylvania is reckoned the bulwark of Christendom.

Transylvania takes its name from its being seated by vast mountains and forests, which divide it from Hungary, being a part of the ancient Dacia. The Hungarians call it Erdeli, the Germans Siebenbergen, and the Dutch Sevenbergen, the two latter signify the same thing, *viz.* the seven cities, from that part of the country which is inhabited by the Saxons. The

water in some places is reckoned unwholesome, because it passes through minerals of several sorts; but where it is not impregnated by them, it is reckoned as good and as wholesome as that in other countries.

We have before said that Transylvania is inhabited by three sorts of people, *viz.* 1. The Siculi, who pretend to be the most ancient, and are supposed to be a race of the ancient Scythians, or the descendants of the Huns. They are divided into seven cantons. 2. The Saxons, who are thought to be descendants of the Daci, (the country was conquered from them by Trajan, the Roman emperor,) for they still call themselves Decen, or rather Detschen, (which word greatly resembles what is called Dutch,) and possess the province denominated the Seven Towns. 3. The Hungarians, who inhabit that part of the country which lies on the frontiers of Wallachia.

The part of Transylvania inhabited by the Saxons is divided into five counties, *viz.* Atland, Landvordenwald, Burdland, Velnland, and Nosserland.

The principal place in the county of Atland is Hermanstadt, which is 30 miles S. E. of Weissemberg, and 120 miles E. of Temeswaer. Hermanstadt is the capital of Transylvania, and was formerly the residence of its prince. It was called Hermanstadt from its founder Herman, a Saxon, and Cibinium from the river Cibin or Zibin, on which it is seated. It is the see of a bishop, who is suffragan to the archbishop of Colocza in Hungary. About it are many fish ponds and other pools of water, which render the access difficult, and by that means, as also its strong walls, and several bastions, it is able to make a good defence against an enemy. The houses are well built and generally slated, and are well supplied with water from several springs; even the river is conveyed through the streets in canals made for that purpose. The courts of justice for the Saxons are held in it, and the chief trade of the inhabitants consists in cloth and meal. It received an Imperial garrison in 1687. Hermanstadt is a granary for the whole principality, and by keeping the corn under ground for many years without damage, they were enabled to hold out seven years after the death of Lewis king of Hungary.

Saltzburg, eight miles N. of Hermanstadt, is a very neat town, and is principally famous on account of its extremely rich salt mines, which yield an amazing revenue to the crown.

Michelsburg, seated on a hill about a German league S. W. of Hermanstadt, is a small, but well built town. It has a very strong fortress built on the top of the hill, which nature, assisted by art, has rendered so secure, that it may be considered as almost impregnable.

Helten, about the same distance from Hermanstadt on the S. E. is a neat town, and is noted for a strong castle built for its defence. The inhabitants of this town carry on considerable manufactures of silk and cloth, and trade largely in fruit, of which this part of the country affords great abundance and variety.

Agnabet, or Agnethin, is about ten miles N. E. of Hermanstadt, on the river Harbach. This is a considerable town, and by some is reckoned one of the principal places of Transylvania; but it does not appear to merit so high a character.

The county of Landvordenwald lies west from Hermanstadt; the only place of note in this county is Millenbach, otherwise called Sebeste, or Zazebes, which is its capital, and was the first built by the Saxons in the county. It lies in a very hollow valley, tolerably secured on the west side by morasses, but open on the other. This place is about 16 miles W. from Hermanstadt.

The county of Burkland lies E. from Hermanstadt towards the frontiers of Moldavia. Of this county Cronstadt is the capital, which is 53 miles E. of Hermanstadt. This place is called by the Greeks Stephanopolis, by the Italians Corona, but by the natives Brassa*. It is supposed to be the Pretoria Augusta of Ptolemy. Cronstadt is surrounded by walls, towers, and ditches, and therefore a place of strength. It has, however, been frequently pillaged, and has greatly suffered from earthquakes. This town carries on a considerable trade, is the see of a bishop; has a good college, and is the seat of an university, which possesses the best library in the country. Not far from Cronstadt is the forest of

* Thus it appears, that all the names by which this town is designated have no resemblance in sound to each other. Hence arises the greatest difficulty of reconciling the accounts of different historians and geographers.

Zeidenwald,

Zeidenwald, which is about ten miles in length, but part of it is so marshy, that the people are obliged to travel over it on planks.

Mergenburg is 12 miles N. W. from Cronstadt; but although it be not a place of much importance, yet the inhabitants carry on a pretty good trade with the neighbouring towns and villages. It is situated on the river Aluta or Olt.

Fogaras is 24 miles W. by N. of Cronstadt. It is a small, but well inhabited town, and is likewise situated on the river Aluta. It is defended by an exceedingly strong fort, which the Turks vainly attempted to make themselves masters of in the year 1661. The inhabitants of this town carry on a very good trade with their neighbours

The county of Velnland lies N. W. of Hermanstadt, of which Segeswaer, or Schepsburg, or Sebesburg, is the capital. It is 40 miles N. of Hermanstadt, and is seated at the conflux of the rivers Kokel and Giorgen. It stands on the side of a hill, so that the houses appear one above another, like an amphitheatre. It is divided into the upper and the lower town: the former, being seated on a hill, is well fortified; but the latter is more populous, on account of the conveniency of water for their manufactures, especially the dressing of cloth. On the neighbouring hills th re are excellent vineyards, and upon one of them is a college.

Megies or Megisward, is 15 miles S. W. of Segeswaer, on the river Kokel. It is situated in a plain full of rich vineyards, by reason of which the country about is called Wineland. The church belonging to this town is built on a neighbouring hill, in the nature of a castle, and therefore it is made use of for the defence of the town.

The county of Noswerland lies N. W. from Hermanstadt; the only remarkable place in which is Nasenstadt, which is called by the Germans Bestris. This place is about 48 miles N. W. from Hermanstadt, on the river Bistris, in a spacious plain. The town is very neat, though it is not very large, and is encompassed with hills be ring vines. At the distance of about four miles from this place are the gold mines of Redua, and some gold is frequently found in the sands of the neighbouring rivulets.

That part of Transylvania which is inhabited by the Hungarians is divided into six counties, which are those of Weissemburg or Alba Julia, Huniad, Thorda, Doboka, Clausenburg, and Zatmar.

Weissemburg, (as the Germans call it,) or Alba Julia, (as the Latins call it, from Julia Augusta, mother to Marcus Aurelius Antoninus Pius,) or Giula Frierwar, (as it is called by the Hungarians,) is about 28 miles N. by W. of Hermanstadt. This town is also called Carlsburg. It is seated on the river Lompay, was formerly the capital of the kings of Dacia, and afterwards of some of the princes of Transylvania, having a magnificent palace, which is now gone to decay. The mighty ruins shew it was once very large and spacious. It stands on the side of a hill, with a delightful plain before it. It is the see of a bishop, and is the seat of an university.

Clausenburg or Colosvar, the capital of the county of the same name, is 40 miles N. of Weissemburg, and 67 N. W. of Hermanstadt. This town, which is large and populous, is seated on the little river Samos, and is defended by a castle, good walls, and strong bulwarks. It is a place of considerable trade, and is perhaps the most wealthy of any in Transylvania. Over the Portina gate is still to be seen an inscription to the honour of the emperor Trajan. The Latins called this town Claudiopolis. The Socinians, Lutherans, and Calvinists have each their places of worship here, and were in possession of the cathedral till 1603, when it was taken from them and given to the Jesuits, whose college and church they in their great zeal had demolished. The town is inhabited by Saxons and Hungarians, who are promiscuously permitted to bear offices. It is the more frequented, as being one of the places where the states of Transylvania meet, and where the prince holds the provincial courts of justice. The Turks besieged it in vain 1601, but took it in 1603, and it was retaken the same year by the Imperialists. Prince Abafli besieged it in 1661 with a large body of Turks; when the governor, though so ill provided with cannon and ammunition, that he was obliged to melt the bells belonging to the churches, held out till relief arrived, and the Turks were obliged to raise the siege.

Neustadt, or Nagybania, the capital of the county of Zatmar, on the northern border of Transylvania, is 65 miles N. by W. of Clausenburg.

burg. It is a town of importance, it being seated on the river Zarzad, and having a gold mine in its neighbourhood.

The province of Transylvania is defended in some measure by nature; for there are seven passes which lead into it from different parts, and these are so situated as that they may be easily defended against an enemy. The first, on the side of Hungary, is where the river Kreutsch or Kerez runs into it, with so many windings, that it must be crossed thirty times. The second, where the river Marosh falls into Hungary, near Tiza, called the Iron Gate, about 60 miles W. by N. of Hermanstadt. The third, where the Temesh runs into Hungary, about a mile N. of Marga. The fourth, is at the Red Tower on the river Aluta, about six miles S. of Rosenthur, and 16 miles S. E. of Hermanstadt. The fifth, called Botza Pass, is 25 miles E. by S. of Cronstadt, on the frontier of Wallachia, in a place called Turk-field. The sixth is called Borgo Pass, and is one mile E. from Illutza, and ten miles E. by N. from the small town of Borgo. And the seventh is called Boduer Pass, and is near the N. E. corner of the country, about seven miles N. of Kretshunest.

SECTION III.

Description of Sclavonia and its principal Towns—Of Croatia and Morlachia, and Particulars relative to their principal Places.

THE country of Sclavonia formerly comprehended all the territories which lie between the Adriatic Sea and the Euxine or Black Sea; its language then extending over all the eastern parts of Europe, where it is still very much used. These countries were conquered by the Sclavi, a Tartar or Scythian nation, in the reign of the emperor Justinian. At present it is confined between the rivers Drave and Danube on the N. and E. and the Save on the S. so that it is bounded by Lower Hungary on the N. Upper Hungary on the E. Bosnia and Servia on the S. and Croatia on the W. It is about 150 miles long from E. to W. and 55 miles broad (where broadest) from N. to S. but its mean breadth is about 35 miles. Sclavonia is a fine, level, and fruitful country, producing corn, cattle, and pasture; but being a southern frontier against Turkey, it has been consequently exposed to the ravages both of the Christian and the Ottoman troops, so that it has not been so productive to the government as might have been expected. The country is well watered by several streams and rivulets which fall into the Drave, the Danube, and the Save. The air is fine and temperate, and the people robust and warlike. Those who inhabit the eastern parts are called Rascians. With regard to their religion, the Sclavonians are partly of the Romish, and partly of the Greek church, but the former is at present the established religion; and consequently, since the country came under the dominion of the house of Austria it greatly predominates over the other, which was the established religion while it was under the jurisdiction of the Turks. Sclavonia does not produce above ten thousand pounds sterling to the emperor per annum. In 1746 it was united, by a fresh act, or decree, by Maria Theresa, with the kingdom of Hungary. At present it is subdivided into the banats of Sirmi, Verowitz, Walpo, and Posseg; and the generalates of Gradiscani, Broden, and Petrovarra.

The Banat of Posseg is 52 miles long, and 26 miles broad; Possega, or Poshega, is its capital, and is indeed the metropolis of Sclavonia. It is 190 miles S. by E. from Presburg, and 210 miles S. by E. from Vienna. It stands on the river Otawa, in a very fruitful country. Its fortifications are good; and it contains above a thousand houses, and has a considerable trade. The Turks took it in 1544, and kept possession of it till 1687, when being besieged, they surrendered it to the Imperialists, who have been masters of it ever since.

Csernak, in the banat of Walpo, is 28 miles N. of Poshega. It is but a small place, yet its inhabitants carry on a moderate trade, by means of the Walpo, on the south bank of which it is situated. The Walpo falls into the Drave.

The banat of Verowitz is 55 miles long, and 30 miles broad. Eszeg, (or Esseck, or Ossek, as it is generally called,) is 45 miles E. by N. of Poshega, and is situated on the south bank of the river Drave, about ten miles before that river falls into the Danube. This is a large town, and is strongly fortified. The most remarkable thing here is a large wooden bridge over the Drave and the neighbouring morasses; it is a mile in length, and thirty yards broad. It originally consisted of thick planks of oak supported by nine or ten large trees in a row between each arch. It was raised in 1566 by the Turkish emperor Soliman, who had twenty thousand men at work upon it. In 1664 count Serini burnt the bridge, but the Turks soon rebuilt it. In 1685 the Hungarians burnt a part of it, and the following year they entirely destroyed it by fire. The town has been often taken, and after the battle of Mohatz the Imperialists drove the Turks completely out of it. Here are large caravanserais or inns, for the accommodation of armies, or travellers, which are continually passing this way: the houses are of timber, and the streets are flanked with trees. On account of its garrison and a Sclavonian regiment of horse lying in its neighbourhood, it is reckoned one of the military towns.

The banat of Sirmi, in its greatest length, is about 70 miles, but its mean breadth is about 20 miles. Semlin, or Zemlin, which may be considered as a place of the greatest importance in this part of Sclavonia, (though it is properly in the generalate of Petrovarra,) is situated on the west side of the rivers Danube and Save, at the point where those rivers form a conjunction, and at the eastern extremity of the province of Sclavonia, is directly opposite to Belgrade in European Turkey, which is seated on the S. E. angle of those rivers on the opposite shore. Semlin is 85 miles S. E. of Eszeg, and 116 E. of Poshega. It is a place of a considerable trade.

The generalates of Gradiscani, Broden, and Petrovarra, extend the whole length of Sclavonia, on the south side, and form an excellent barrier against the Turks. The principal town of these generalates is Brodo, which is situated 20 miles S. E. of Poshega, on the N. bank of the river Save, and is a place of some strength. The inhabitants, which may be considered as rather numerous, carry on a tolerable trade; but that which renders this place famous in history is the battle which was gained here by the Turks in 1688 over the Imperial army.

Croatia was formerly known by the name of Liburnia, and was once a flourishing kingdom of much larger extent than it is at present. Croatia, properly so called, is that part which has Lower Hungary on the N. Sclavonia on the E. Bosnia on the S. E. Dalmatia on the S. Morlachia on the S. W. (which, however, is generally considered as part of Croatia, and is called Maritime Croatia, because it borders on the Adriatic Sea,) and Stiria and Carniola on the W. Including Morlachia, it is about 140 miles long and 65 miles broad. The Hungarians call this country Horwath Orszag, and the Germans Crabatten. The inhabitants are descendants from the Sclavi, and were formerly called Kruati, from which the Greeks formed Crobati. Croatia is fruitful in corn, wine, oil, and all other necessaries of life; but being a frontier province like Sclavonia, it labours under similar inconveniences. The inhabitants are of good stature, valiant, hardy, good soldiers, the horsemen especially, who are so famous, that they are entertained in several of the courts of Germany as their horse guards. Their infantry are called Uskokes, and are remarkably agile in running up the mountains.

Morlachia, or Maritime Croatia, is separated from Croatia Proper by a chain of mountains. The inhabitants are said to be of Walachian extraction, as is indicated by their name; Morlachia being a contraction of Mauro-Walachia, that is, Black Walachia. But this is denied by the Abbé Fortis, who published a volume of travels in Dalmatia, (of which country Morlachia forms a part.) He informs us, that the origin of Morlachia is involved in the darkness of barbarous ages, together with that of many other nations, resembling them so much in customs and language, that they may be taken for one people, dispersed in the vast tracks from the Adriatic Sea to the Frozen Ocean. The emigrations of the various tribes of the Sclavi, who, under the names of Scythians, Geti, Goths, Huns, Sclavini, Groats, Avari, and Vandals, invaded the Roman empire, and particularly the Illyrian provinces during the decline of that empire,

re, must have strangely perplexed the gene-logies of the nations which inhabited it, and hich perhaps removed thither in the same man-er as at more remote periods of time. The re-mainder of the Ardiæi, Autariati, and other llyrian people anciently settled in Dalmatia, ho probably could not reconcile themselves to dependance on the Romans, might nevertheless rm an union with foreign invaders not unlike emselves in dialect and manners; and, ac-ording to Abbé Fortis, it seems no ill-founded njecture, that many families, driven out of ungary by the irruption of the Moguls under enghiz Khan and his successors, might people e deserted vallies between the mountains of almatia. This conjecture is also somewhat nfirmed by the traces of the Calmuc Tartars, hich are still to be found in a part of that coun-called Zara. With regard to the etymology f the name, the abbé observes, that the Mor-cchi generally call themselves, in their own nguage, Vlassi; a national term, of which no stige is found in the records of Dalmatia till e thirteenth century. The word signifies werful men, or men of authority; and the de-mination of Moro-Vlassi, corruptly Mor-cchi, as they are now called, may perhaps int out the original of the nation. Morlachia rders on the Adriatic Sea; but the Morlacchi e so different from the other inhabitants of the coasts, in dialect, dress, dispositions, and stoms, that they seem clearly to be of a differ-t original, or at least the colonies must have ttled at such distant periods from each other, at they have had time to alter in a great mea-re their national character. There is also a markable diversity among the Morlacchi them-ves in several districts, probably on account of e different countries from whence they came. ith regard to the character of these people, we e informed that they are much injured by their aritime neighbours. The inhabitants of the coasts of Dalmatia tell many frightful stories their avarice and cruelty: but these are all her of an ancient date; or, if any have hap-ned in later times, they ought rather to be ribed to the corruption of a few individuals, n to the bad disposition of the nation in gene-; and though thievish tricks are frequent ong them, the abbé informs us, that a stranger y travel securely through their country, where is faithfully escorted and hospitably treated.

The greatest danger is from the Heyduks, or Banditti, of whom there are great numbers among the woods and caves of these dreadful mountains on the confines. There, says the abbé, a man ought to get himself escorted by a couple of these "honest fellows;" for they are not capable of betraying him, although they belong to a banditti; their situation being more apt to raise compassion than diffidence. They lead their lives among the wolves, wandering from one precipice to another, exposed to the severity of the seasons, and frequently languish in want of the necessaries of life, in the most hideous and solitary caverns. Yet they very seldom disturb the tranquillity of others, and prove always faithful guides to travellers; the chief objects of their rapine being sheep and oxen, to supply themselves with food and shoes. Sometimes it happens, that, in their extreme necessity, the Heyduks go in parties to the shepherds' cottages, and rudely demand something to eat, which they do not fail to take immediately by force if the least hesitation be made. It is seldom indeed that they meet with a refusal, or with resistance, as their resolution and fury are well known to be equal to the savage life which they lead. Four Heyduks are not afraid to assault a caravan of fifteen or twenty Turks, and generally plunder it and put them to flight. The greatest part of the Heyduks look upon it as meritorious to shed the blood of the Turks; to which cruelty they are easily led by their natural ferocity, inflamed by a mistaken zeal for religion, and the discourses of their fanatic priests. As to the Morlacchi themselves, they are represented as open and sincere to such a degree, that they would be taken for simpletons in any other country; and by means of this quality they have been so often duped by the Italians, that the faith of an Italian, and the faith of a dog, are synominous among the Morlacchi. They are very hospitable to strangers, and their hospitality is equally conspicuous among the rich and the poor.

Carlstadt is the capital of Croatia; it is situated on the river Kulpa, in the banat of Severin, 180 miles S. by W. of Presburg, and 180 miles S. of Vienna. It is a strong town, and is the usual residence of the governors of the province. It received its name from the archduke Charles, who caused it to be fortified in 1579. The inhabitants carry on a pretty good trade.

Agram is a strong town on the river Save, 27 miles

miles N. W. of Carlstadt. This town is a very great thoroughfare, by means of which the inhabitants enjoy an extensive trade with many towns and villages in its neighbourhood. This place is also called Zagrab.

From Agram the road leads through Beloratz, Trikraly, Grany, and Ostritz, to Warasdin, which is the capital of a district of the same name. This town stands on the northern frontier of Croatia, on the southern bank of the Drave. It is 37 miles N. by E. of Agram, and 62 miles N. E. of Carlstadt, and is a remarkably strong place: it commands a great trade by reason of its situation on the navigable river Drave, and is seated in a very pleasant country.

Kreutz is a strong place in the interior of Croatia, which is situated at an equal distance from Warasdin and Agram, it being 30 miles N. E. of Agram, and 30 miles S. E. of Warasdin.

Petrinia is a small but strong town on the river Kulpa, which falls into the Save about seven miles E. of this town. It is 35 S. by W. of Kreutz, and 37 miles E. of Carlstadt. The inhabitants are humane and friendly, and the trade which is carried on by them greatly surpasses that which falls to the lot of many others which are much larger and more populous.

From Petrinia the road leads in a south-eastern direction to Costainitza, which is situated on the river Unna on the borders of Croatia, and in the Banat Croatia. It is 18 miles S. E. of Petrinia, and 51 miles E. by S. of Carlstadt. The inhabitants carry on a good trade with their neighbours the Turks, who are situated in Bosnia on the opposite side of the river.

Ogulin, a strong town of Croatia, is 20 miles S. W. of Carlstadt; and Fiume, another strong place, is 35 miles W. of Ogulin. Fiume is likewise called St. Veit. This latter town has a good harbour on the shore of the Adriatic Sea, therefore the inhabitants enjoy a good maritime trade. It was situated in Istria, but is now reckoned in Croatia.

From Fiume the road leads through Bukari, Hrelin, Stanke, Novi, Klenovitza, and St. Elizabet, to Zeng or Segna, which is 30 miles S. E. of Fiume, in Morlachia, on the Carnaro Bay on the East shore of the Adriatic. It was formerly called Flanaticum. Segna is the see of a bishop, under Spalatto; it is strong both by nature and art, having an excellent castle, with vast woods and crags on the land side, but its harbour is indifferent.

Karlopago, which is seated on the sea shore, is another strong town of Morlachia, and is 30 miles S. by E. of Segna. It is opposite to the island of Pago, and is situated in a pleasant though not very fertile part of the country.

Gospitch is 15 miles E. by N. of Karlopago, in Croatia Proper, and being situated on the road through which there is a great thoroughfare towards Turkey, the inhabitants carry on an extensive traffic in various kinds of merchandize.

Zwonigrad, at the southern extremity of Croatia, is 44 miles S. E. of Gospitch, and 94 miles S. E. of Carlstadt. This town being situated on the frontiers of Turkey, has been fortified with a great deal of wisdom. Its fortifications are amazingly strong, and appear to have been the work of much skill, as well as of great labour. The inhabitants of this place being the general carriers between this part of Croatia and Turkey, carry on an extensive trade, and enjoy certain privileges.

THE END OF DUTEN'S TRAVELS IN HUNGARY, &c.

TRAVELS IN POLAND.

BY W. COXE, A. M.

SECTION I.

Entrance into Austrian Poland—Limits of the dismembered Province—Its Population and Productions—Arrival at Cracow—Description of that City—University—Palace—Citadel occupied by the Confederates in the late Troubles—History of that Transaction—Cathedral—Tombs of several Polish Sovereigns.

THE entrance into Austrian Poland is just beyond Bilitz, after having crossed the rivulet Biala, which falls into the Vistula. From Bilitz the journey to Cracow is through the territories which the house of Austria secured to itself in the partition before the last. The district claimed by the empress of Germany in her manifesto is thus described: "All that tract of land lying on the right side of the Vistula from Silesia above Sandomir to the mouth of the Pan, and from thence by Franepole, Zamoisc, and Rubiessow, to the Bog. From the Bog the limits are carried along the frontiers of Red Russia to Zabras upon the borders of Volhynia and Podolia; and from Zabras in a straight line to the Dnieper, where it receives the rivulet Podhorts, taking a small slip of Podolia, and lastly, along the boundaries separating Podolia from Moldavia*." The importance of this acquisition to the house of Austria will best appear from the number of inhabitants, which, according to the numeration made in 1776, amounted to two millions five hundred and eighty thousand seven hundred and ninety-six. The mountainous parts of Galacia and Lodomeria produce fine pasture; the plains are mostly sandy, but abound in forests, and are fertile in corn. The principal articles of traffic are cattle, hides, wax, and honey. These countries contain mines of copper, lead iron, and salt, of which the latter are the most valuable.

Crossing a narrow slip of Austrian Poland of about 86 miles in length you reach Cracow, leaving on the right hand a chain of Mount Crapack, or the ancient Carpathian Mountains. The country is at first somewhat hilly, but afterwards chiefly plain, covered with forests. The roads are bad, the villages few and wretched beyond description; the hovels, all built of wood, seem full of filth and misery, and every thing wears the appearance of extreme poverty.

The Vistula is the limits of the Austrian dominions, which reach to its southern banks†.

* A remarkable circumstance attended the taking possession of this district, which will shew with what uncertainty the limits were at first traced. The partition being made according to the map of Zannoni, the river Podhorts was taken as the eastern boundary of this dismembered province; but when the Austrian commissioners visited the spot, where according to Zannoni the Podhorts flowed into the Dnieper, they found no river known to the inhabitants which answered to that name. They advanced, therefore, the frontiers still more eastwards, and adopting the Sebrawce for the Sbrytz for the boundary, called it the Podhorts. This ceded country has, since the partition, changed its name: it is now incorporated into the Austrian dominions under the appellation of the kingdoms of Galicia and Lodomeria, which kingdoms some ancient diplomes represent as situated in Poland, and subject to the kings of Hungary: the most convincing proof that there ever existed such kingdoms, that they depended upon Hungary, and ought, by virtue of an hereditary though dormant title, to revert to the empress as sovereign of Hungary, was derived from the Austrian army; for what people can resist an argument backed by two hundred thousand troops, unless they can defend their side of the question by an equal number?

† According to the partition treaty, this river was marked as forming the limits between the Austrian and Polish territories: the house of Austria at first construed the Vistula to mean the old channel of that river now dry, called the Old Vistula; and by force of this strained interpretation included Casimir in the dismembered province; but not long afterwards the empress of Germany restored Casimir to the Poles; and accepted the Vistula as it now flows, for the boundary of her dominions.

Having crossed the Vistula by a bridge into Casimir, you pass the dry channel, termed the Old Vistula, by a second bridge, and enter Cracow.

Cracow is a curious old town: it was formerly the capital of Poland, where the kings were elected and crowned, and was once almost the center of the Polish dominions, but by the changes which have taken place it is now a frontier town.

Cracow stands in an extensive plain, watered by the Vistula, which is broad but shallow: the city and its suburbs occupy a vast tract, but are so badly peopled, that they scarcely contain sixteen thousand * inhabitants. The great square in the middle of the town is very spacious, and has several well-built houses, once richly furnished and well inhabited, but most of them now either untenanted, or in a state of melancholy decay. Many of the streets are broad and handsome; but almost every building bears the most striking marks of ruined grandeur: the churches alone seem to have preserved their original splendour. The devastation of this unfortunate town was begun by the Swedes at the commencement of the last century, when it was besieged and taken by the Charles XII.; but the mischiefs it suffered from the ravager of the North were far less destructive than those it experienced during the late dreadful commotions, when it underwent repeated sieges, and was alternately in possession of the Russians and Confederates. The effects of cannon, grape, and musket-shot are still discernible on the walls and houses. In a word, Cracow exhibits the remains of ancient magnificence, and looks like a great capital in ruins: from the number of fallen and falling houses one would imagine it had lately been sacked, and that the enemy had left it only yesterday. The town is surrounded with high walls of brick, strengthened by round and square towers of whimsical shapes in the ancient style of fortification: these walls were built by Venceslaus king of Bohemia during the short period in which he reigned over Poland. The university of Cracow was founded and endowed by Casimir the Great, and improved and completed by Ladislaus Jaghellon. The number of students amount to about six hundred. The library is neither remarkable for the number or rarity of its books. The university of Cracow was formerly, and not unjustly, called the mother of Polish literature, as it principally supplied the other seminaries with professors and men of learning; but its lustre was greatly obscured by the removal of the royal residence to Warsaw and still more by the late intestine convulsions. The most flourishing period of the university was under Sigismund Augustus in the sixteenth century, when several of the German reformers fled from the persecutions of the emperor Charles V. and found an asylum in this city. They gave to the world several versions of the sacred writings, and other theological publications which diffused the reformed religion over great part of Poland. Sigismund Augustus indeed afforded protection to men of learning of all denominations, and extended universal toleration to every sect of Christians. Towards the southern part of the town near the Vistula rises a small eminence or rock, upon whose top is built the palace, surrounded with brick walls and old towers, which form a kind of citadel to the town. This palace owes its origin to Ladislaus Jaghellon, but little of the ancient structure now appears, as the greatest part was demolished by Charles XII. in 1702, when he entered this town in triumph after the battle of Clissow. It has been since repaired: the remains of the old palace consist of a few apartments, which are left in their ancient state as they existed in the century before the last. The walls of the first of these apartments are decorated with paintings of tilts and tournaments; and all the rooms in the palace are of fine dimensions, containing several remains of ancient magnificence, but totally without

* The city, exclusive of the suburbs, contained in 1778 only eight thousand eight hundred and ninety-four souls.

† While speaking of the university of Cracow, it may not be improper to mention, that the art of printing was first introduced into Poland by Haller, who exercised that profession in the city of Cracow; and one of the earliest books printed by him was the constitutions and statutes compiled by Casimir the Great, and afterwards augmented by his successors. The characters are Gothic, the same which were universally used at the invention of printing, the great initial letters are wanting, which shews that they were probably painted and afterwards worn away. The year in which this compilation was printed is not positively known; but its publication was certainly anterior to 149[illegible] as it does not contain the statutes passed by John Albert that year.

furniture

furniture*. From the apartments of the palace there is an extensive view of the neighbouring country, which is principally a large sandy plain.

At some distance from Cracow is the fortress of Landskron situated upon a rock, which the confederates possessed during the late troubles; and from whence they made excursions as occasion offered against the Russian and Polish troops in the service of the king. By a detachment of troops from this fortress, the citadel of Cracow was taken by surprize; a gallant exploit, and which merits a particular description. The person who shewed the palace was himself present, when the Polish troops issued from a subterraneous passage, and surprized the Russian garrison, consisting of eighty-seven troops. About four in the morning a party of seventy-six confederates, all of whom were Poles, led by a lieutenant, whose name was Bytranowski, entered the palace through a common sewer, without being discovered, and repairing to the main-guard instantly fell upon the Russians: the latter were so confounded with the suddenness of the assault, they all yielded themselves prisoners without the least resistance, and the Poles became masters of the citadel. Two or three Russians were killed at the first onset, and the remainder were confined in a dungeon. One soldier however found means to escape by climbing the wall of the citadel, and alarmed the Russian soldiers within the town; these without delay attacked the castle, but, receiving a warm fire from the Confederates, they imagined the enemy to be more numerous than they really were, and desisted from the assault. This event happened on the 2d of February, 1772. The same evening Monsieur de Choisy, in the service of the Confederates of Landskron, being made acquainted with the success of the enterprize, advanced towards Cracow at the head of eight hundred Confederates (amongst whom were thirty or forty Frenchmen, most of them officers), and, having defeated a detachment of two hundred Russians, was received into the citadel. But the Russian garrison in the town, which before consisted of only four hundred men, being likewise reinforced, the Confederates in the citadel underwent a regular siege: they defended themselves with the most undaunted spirit for the space of three months; and at length capitulated upon the most honourable terms†.

Near to the palace is the cathedral, which stands within the walls of the citadel. In this cathedral, all the sovereigns of Poland, from the time of Ladislaus Loketec, have been interred, a few only excepted. The sepulchres of the kings

* This palace was formerly the residence of the kings of Poland, who, from the time of Ladislaus Loketec, had been crowned at Cracow. The Polish and German historians differ concerning the time when the title of king was first assumed by the sovereigns of this country; but the most probable account is, that in 1295, Premislaus assumed the regal title, and was crowned at Gnesna by the archbishop of that diocese. He was succeeded by Ladislaus Loketec, who, offending the Poles by his capricious and tyrannical conduct, was deposed before he was crowned; and Venceslaus king of Bohemia, who had married Richsa daughter of Premislaus, being elected in his stead, was in 1300 consecrated and crowned at Gnesna. Ladislaus, after flying from his country, and undergoing a series of calamitous adventures, was at length brought to a sense of his misconduct. Having regained the affection of his subjects, he was restored, in the life-time of Venceslaus, to part of his dominions; and he recovered them all upon the demise of that monarch in 1305: he governed, however, for some years without the title of king; but at length in 1320 was crowned at Cracow, to which place he transferred the ceremony of the coronation; and afterwards enacted, that for the future his successors should be inaugurated in the cathedral of this city. Since that period, the laws of Poland have expressly enjoined that Cracow should be the place of coronation; and such has been the superstitious attachment of the Poles to this usage, that when John Sobieski was desirous of being crowned at Leopold, on account of its vicinity to the army, which he was to command against the Turks at the time of his election, the Polish patriots strongly opposed any innovation; and that monarch was under the necessity of repairing to Cracow for the performance of the ceremony.

Since Ladislaus, all the succeeding sovereigns were crowned at Cracow, excepting the late king. Previous to his election a decree was issued by the diet of convocation, that the coronation should be solemnized for this turn at Warsaw, without prejudice in future to the ancient right of Cracow; but as Poland no longer subsists a separate nation, it having been divided among the emperor of Russia, the king of Prussia, and the emperor of Austria, the quarrels concerning the place of coronation is now done away.

† The subterraneous passage through which the seventy-six confederates introduced themselves into the palace, is a drain which conveys all the filth from the interior part of the palace to a small opening without the walls near the Vistula. They entered this small opening, and crawled upon their hands and knees a considerable way, one behind another, until they came out through a hole in the walls of the palace; so that if the Russians had either been apprized of their attempt, or had over-heard them in their passage, not one person could have escaped: the danger was great, but it shews what spirit and perseverance will effect.

of Poland are not distinguished by any peculiar magnificence: their figures are carved in marble of no extraordinary workmanship, and some are without inscriptions.

About an English mile from Cracow are the remains of an old structure, called the palace of Casimir the Great; but probably little of the original palace, as it was built by Casimir, exists at present. In the inner court are the remains of a corridore with pillars of the Doric order; and upon one side of the walls is the white-eagle of Poland carved in stone, and around it an inscription seemingly in old Gothic characters, of which can only be made out, Ann. Dom. M.CCCLXVII, which answers to the æra of Casimir, who died in 1370. Several marble columns were scattered around, which shewed the ancient magnificence of the building. The greatest part of the fabric was evidently of later date than the reign of Casimir, and was doubtless constructed by succeeding sovereigns upon the foundation of the ancient palace; perhaps by Stephen Barthori, as in one place the inscription *Stephanus Dei gratia*, may be traced; and also by Sigismond III. as his cypher is to be seen with the wheat-sheaf, the arms of Gustavus Vasa, from whom he was lineally descended. This palace was the principal residence of Casimir: in the garden is a mound of earth, or a barrow, which is called the tomb of Esther the fair Jewess, who was the favourite mistress of that monarch*.

SECTION II.

Mode of saluting and Dress of the Poles—Account of Salt-Mines of Wielitska—Their Extent and Profit—Journey to Warsaw—Arrival at Warsaw—Description of the City—Palace—Portraits of the Kings of Poland—Supper in Prince Poniatouski's Garden—Description of Povonski—Public Library—State of Learning—Wretched Administration of Justice—Prisons of Warsaw—Punishments for criminal Offences—Torture abolished—Laws relating to Debtors.

THE Poles seem a lively people, and use much action in their ordinary conversation. Their common mode of salute is to incline their heads, and to strike their breast with one of their hands, while they stretch the other towards the ground; but when a common person meets a superior, he bows his head almost to the earth, waving at the same time his hand, with which he touches the bottom of the leg near the heel of the person to whom he pays his obeisance. The men of all ranks generally wear whiskers, and shave their heads, leaving only a circle of hair upon the crown. The summer dress of the peasants consists of nothing but a shirt and drawers of coarse linen, without shoes or stockings, with round caps or hats. The women of the lower class wear upon their heads a wrapper of white linen, under which their hair is braided, and hangs down in two plaits. Several of them wear a long piece of white linen hanging round the side of their faces, and covering their bodies below their knees: this singular kind of veil makes them look as if they were doing penance.

The dress of the higher orders, both men and women, is uncommonly elegant. That of the gentlemen is a waistcoat with sleeves, over which they wear an upper robe of a different colour which reaches down below the knee, and is fastened round the waist with a sash or girdle: the sleeves of this upper garment are in warm weather tied behind the shoulders; a sabre is a necessary part of their dress as a mark of nobility. In summer, the robe, &c. is of silk; in winter of cloth, velvet, or stuff, edged with fur. They wear fur-caps or bonnets, and buskins of yellow leather, the heels of which are plaited with iron or steel. The dress of the ladies is a simple polonaise, or long robe, edged with fur.

* To the influence of Esther it is said the Jews owe the numerous privileges enjoyed by them in Poland, which is called the paradise of the Jews. But when the character of Casimir is considered, we may conceive that they were indebted for their favourable reception in Poland more to his policy than to his affection for his mistress; for in those times the Jews were the richest and most commercial individuals in Europe; by allowing them therefore to settle in Poland, and by granting them some extraordinary immunities, he introduced trade and much wealth into his dominions.

The Poles, in their features, look, customs, dress, and general appearance, resemble Asiatics rather than Europeans; and they are unquestionably descended from Tartar ancestors. Mascow, a German historian, well versed in the antiquity of nations, remarks, that the manner in which the Poles wear their hair is, perhaps, one of the most ancient tokens of their origin. So early as the fifth century some nations, who were comprehended under the name of Scythians, had the same custom. For Priscius Rhætor, who accompanied Maximus in his embassy from Theodosius II. to the court of Attila, describes a Scythian lord, whose head was shaved in a circular form, a mode perfectly analagous to the present fashion in Poland.

In this part of Poland, are the celebrated salt-mines of Wielitska, which are situated within eight miles of Cracow. These mines are excavated in a ridge of hills at the northern extremity of the chain which joins to the Carpathian mountains: they take their appellation from the small village of Wielitska; but are sometimes called in foreign countries the mines of Cracow, from their vicinity to that city. Those who are desirous of visiting the inner parts of the mine are fastened to the great rope that is employed in drawing up the salt*, and are let down gently, about a hundred and sixty yards below the first layer of salt. They then pass a long and gradual descent, sometimes through broad passages or galleries capable of admitting several carriages abreast; sometimes down steps cut in the solid salt, which has the grandeur and commodiousness of the staircase in a palace. They each carry a light, and several guides precede them with lamps in their hands: the reflection of these lights upon the glittering sides of the mine is extremely beautiful, but does not cast that luminous splendour, which some writers have compared to the lustre of precious stones. The salt dug from this mine is called *Zielna* or Green Salt, for what reason it may be difficult to determine; for its colour is an iron grey; when pounded it has a dirty ash colour like what we call brown salt. The quality of the salt improves in proportion to the depth of the mine: towards the sides and surface it is mixed with earthy or stony particles; lower down it is said to be perfectly pure, and requires no other process before it is used than to be pounded. The finest of this grey salt, however, is of a weak quality when compared with the common sea-salt: it is therefore undoubtedly by no means perfectly pure, but is blended with extraneous mixtures, though it serves very well for common purposes. Being almost as hard as stone, the miners hew it with pick-axes and hatchets, by a tedious operation, into large blocks, many of which weigh six or seven hundred pounds. These large masses are raised by a windlass, but the smaller pieces are carried up by horses along a winding gallery, which reaches to the surface of the earth. Beside grey salt, the miners sometimes discover small cubes of white salt, as transparent as Crystal, but not in any considerable quantity; they find likewise occasionally pieces of coal and petrified wood buried in the salt. The mine appears to be inexhaustible, as will easily be conceived from the following account of its dimensions. Its known breadth is one thousand one hundred and fifteen feet; its length six thousand six hundred and ninety-one feet; and depth seven hundred and forty-three; and the best judges on the spot suppose, with the greatest appearance of probability, this solid body of salt to branch into various directions, the extent of which cannot be known: of that part which has been perforated, the depth is only calculated as far as they have hitherto dug; and who can ascertain how much farther it may descend? †.

Many of the excavations or chambers, from whence the salt has been dug, are of an immense size; some are supported with timber, others by vast pillars of salt, which are left standing for that purpose: several of vast dimensions are without any support in the middle. There is one of this latter sort in particular, which is certainly eighty feet in height, and so extremely long and broad, as almost to appear amid the subterraneous gloom without limits. The roofs of these vaults are not arched, but flat. The immense size of these chambers, with the spacious passages or galleries, together with the chapels mentioned

* There are two other openings, down one of which the miners descend by stairs, down the other by ladders.

† One of the most remarkable curiosities of the place is, several small chapels excavated in the salt, in which mass is said on certain days of the year; one of these chapels is above thirty feet long and twenty-five broad; the altar, the crucifix, the ornaments of the church, the statues of several saints, are all carved out of the salt.

in the note, and a few sheds built for the horses which are foddered below, probably gave rise to the exaggerated accounts of some travellers, that these mines contain several villages inhabited by colonies of miners, who never see the light. It is certain that there is room sufficient for such purposes; but the fact is, that the miners have no dwellings under ground, none of them remaining below more than eight hours at a time, when they are relieved by others from above. In truth, these mines are of a most stupendous extent and depth, and are sufficiently wonderful without the least exaggeration. They are as dry as a room, without the least damp or moisture; for there is only one small spring of water, which is impregnated with salt, as it runs through the mine*. These mines have now been worked above six hundred years, for they are mentioned in the Polish annals so early as 1237, under Boleslaus the Chaste, and not as a new discovery: how much earlier they were known cannot now be ascertained. Their profits had long been appropriated to the king's privy purse: before the partition they furnished a considerable part of the late king's revenue, who drew from them an annual average profit of about 3,500,000 Polish florins, 97,222*l*. 4*s*. 6*d*. sterling. They now belong to the emperor of Austria, being situated within the province which he dismembered from Poland; but they are far from yielding a revenue equal to that which they had afforded to the king of Poland; for the Austrian commissioners imprudently raised the price of salt, from an idea that Poland could not exist without drawing that commodity as usual from Wielitska, and would therefore be obliged to receive it at any price. This mode of proceeding offending the Poles, the king of Prussia, with his usual sagacity, did not neglect this opportunity of extending his commerce; he immediately imported large quantities of salt, which he procured chiefly from Spain, to Dantzic, Memel, and Konigsburg, from whence it was conveyed up the Vistula into the interior provinces: by these means he furnished great part of Poland with salt, at a cheaper rate than the inhabitants could procure it from the house of Austria; and in 1778 the mines of Wielitska only supplied the districts which immediately border upon Austrian Poland.

The road from Cracow to Warsaw has not a single object throughout the whole tract, which can for a moment draw the attention of the most inquisitive traveller. The country, for the most part of the way, is level, with little variation of surface: it is chiefly overspread with vast tracts of thick gloomy forest; and even where the country is more open, the distant horizon is always skirted with wood. The trees are mostly pines and firs, intermixed with beech, birch, and small oaks. The occasional breaks in the forest present some pasture ground, with here and there a few meagre crops of corn.

Without having actually traversed it, one can hardly conceive so comfortless a region: a forlorn stillness and solitude prevails almost through the whole extent, with few symptoms of an inhabited and still less of a civilized country. Though it is the high road, which unites Cracow and Warsaw in the course of about 258 English miles, you will scarcely meet above two carriages and about a dozen carts. The country is equally thin of human habitations: a few straggling villages, all built of wood, succeed one another at long intervals, whose miserable appearance corresponds to the wretchedness of the country around them. In these assemblages of huts, the only places of reception for travellers are hovels belonging to Jews, totally destitute of furniture and every species of accommodation. It is difficult to procure any other room but that in which the family live; in the article of provision eggs and milk are the greatest luxuries, and even these cannot always be obtained; the only bed to be had is straw thrown upon the ground, and a traveller may think himself happy when he can procure it clean.

The natives are poorer, humbler, and more miserable

* Such an enormous mass of salt exhibits a wonderful phænomenon in the natural history of this globe. Monsieur Guetard, who visited these mines with great attention, and who has published a treatise upon the subject, informs us, that the uppermost bed of earth at the surface immediately over the mines is sand, the second clay occasionally mixed with sand and gravel and containing petrefactions of marine bodies, the third calcareous stone. From all these circumstances he conjectures that this spot was formerly covered by the sea, and that the salt is a gradual deposit formed by the evaporation of its waters. See *Memoire sur les Mines de Sel de Wielitska, in Histoire de l'Academie des Sciences* for 1762.

miserable than any people in the more western parts of Europe: wherever a traveller stops, they flock around him in crouds; and, asking for charity, use the most abject gestures.

The road bears as few marks of human industry as the country which it intersects. It is best where it is sandy; in other parts it is scarcely passable; and in the marshy grounds, where some labour is absolutely necessary to make it support the carriages, it is raised with sticks and boughs of trees thrown promiscuously upon the surface, or formed by trunks of trees laid cross-ways.

After a tedious journey at length you approach Warsaw; but the roads being neither more passable, nor the country better cultivated, and the suburbs chiefly consisting of the same wooden hovels which compose the villages, you have no suspicion of being near the capital of Poland until you arrive at its gates.

The situation of Warsaw is not unpleasant: it is built partly in a plain, and partly upon a gentle ascent rising from the banks of the Vistula, which is about as broad as the Thames at Westminster-Bridge, but very shallow in summer. The city and its suburbs occupy a vast extent of ground; and are supposed to contain between sixty and seventy thousand inhabitants, among whom are a prodigious number of foreigners. The whole town has a melancholy appearance, exhibiting that strong contrast of wealth and poverty, luxury and distress, which pervades every part of this unhappy country. The streets are spacious, but ill-paved; the churches and public buildings are large and magnificent; the palaces of the nobility are numerous and splendid; but the greater part of the houses, particularly in the suburbs, are mean and ill-constructed wooden hovels. The palace of Warsaw (late the king of Poland's residence) was built by Sigismond III. Warsaw is far more commodious for the capital than Cracow, because it is situated nearer to the center of the kingdom, and because the diet is assembled in this city. The palace stands upon a rising ground at a small distance from the Vistula, and commands a fine view of that river and of the adjacent country. Next to the audience-chamber is an apartment fitted up with marble, which his late majesty dedicated, by the following inscription, to the memory of his predecessors the kings of Poland: "*Regum Memoriæ dicavit Stanislaus Augustus hocce monumentum*, 1771." The portraits of the sovereigns are ranged in chronological order: the series begins from Boleslaus, and is carried down to the present time. These heads are all painted by Bacciarelli, and are well executed: the portraits of the earlier kings are sketched from the painter's imagination; but that of Ladislaus II. and most of his successors are copied from real originals. They altogether produce a pleasing effect, and may be considered as an agreeable species of genealogical table.

Mr. Coxe, who was on his travels in Poland while the Poles had a king in the year 1778, says, (for we shall use his own words,) "In the evening (of August 5) we had the pleasure of meeting his majesty at his brother's, prince Poniatowski, who gave us a most elegant entertainment at a garden which is situated near his villa, and is richly ornamented with buildings. The taste of the Polish nobility is not to be controuled by want of any materials; for if they cannot procure them from nature, they make a representation of them by art. In the present instance, as there are no quarries of stone near Warsaw, the prince has substituted a composition so nearly resembling stone, that the most minute observer can scarce discover the difference. We arrived at the garden about nine; it was a beautiful evening of one of the most sultry days we had experienced this summer. After walking about the grounds, we came to a grotto of artificial rock, where a spring of water dripped through the sides, and fell into a bason with a pleasing murmur. We were scarcely assembled in this delightful spot, when the king made his appearance: we rose up to meet him; the usual compliments being passed, we attended his majesty about the grounds, and then returned to the grotto, round which we ranged ourselves upon a bank covered with moss. The moon was now risen, and added greatly to the beauty of the scene. I happened to be seated next to the king (for all form and ceremony was banished), who talked with me as usual, in English, on the arts and sciences, literature, and history. In the course of this conversation I ventured to ask whether there was any good poetry in the Polish language. His majesty told me, "We have some lighter pieces of poetry, by no means contemptible,

temptible, and an indifferent epic poem; but the work of chief poetical excellence in our tongue is a fine translation of the *Gerusalemme Liberata* of Tasso, far superior to any translations of that admirable poem in any other language; some Italians of taste and judgement have esteemed it not much inferior to the original performance." I then took the liberty of enquiring about the historical productions of Poland; when the king informed me, that they had no good history of their country in Polish, which he looked upon as a national reflection, though he flattered himself it would be soon removed, as a person of genius and erudition, admirably calculated for the undertaking, was now employed in that work. Upon expressing my surprize at a circumstance almost peculiar to Poland, that they had no history in their native tongue, his majesty condescended to acquaint me, that they had several excellent historians, all of whom however had written in Latin; "the knowledge of this language," his majesty remarked, "is very general among the Poles*; the earliest laws are all drawn up in Latin until the reign of Sigismond Augustus, when they began to be composed in the vernacular language; the older *Pacta Conventa* are all in Latin; those of Ladislaus IV. being the first that appeared in Polish." The conversation, in which I was at a loss whether to admire most the knowledge or condescension of the king, was interrupted by the prince, who proposed a turn in the garden before supper: his highness led the way, and the company followed; we passed through a subterraneous passage, long and winding, with here and there a single lamp, which shed a glimmering light; we came at length to a wooden door, which seemed the entrance into some hovel; it opened, and we found ourselves, to our great astonishment, in a superb saloon, illuminated with innumerable lamps. It was a rotunda, with an elegant dome of the most beautiful symmetry; in the circumference were four open recesses between pillars of artificial marble†: in the recesses were sophas, with paintings *in fresco*, representing the triumphs of Bacchus, Silenus, Love, and the victory of the Empress of Russia over the Turks. As we were all admiring the beauty and elegance of the rotunda, our ears were on a sudden regaled with a concert of exquisite music from an invisible band. While we were listening to this agreeable performance, and conjecturing from what quarter it came, a magnificent table was suddenly spread in the midst of the saloon with such expedition, as to resemble the effects of enchantment. We immediately sat down to supper with the king, the prince, and a chosen company: our spirits were elevated by the beauty of the saloon, by the hospitality of the prince, and by the affability of the king; who, so far from being a constraint to the society, greatly enlivened it by his vivacity, and seemed the soul of the party. I never passed a more agreeable evening; the conversation was animated and rational, while the social ease and freedom, which diffused itself through every part of the company, realized this beautiful convivial picture:

La Liberté convive aimable
Met les deux coudes sur la table‡.

Even with the lustre of a crown, which, is apt to dazzle our judgements, the king of Poland could not fail of being esteemed one of the most agreeable and polite gentlemen in Europe: he has a surprizing fund of interesting conversation, and I never yet had the honour of access to his company without being both informed and delighted. His majesty did not retire until one o'clock, when the company separated, and we returned to Warsaw, highly pleased with our evening's entertainment."

The elegance and luxury of the Polish nobility in their houses and villas is really exquisite in the extreme; in their decorations and furniture they seem to have blended the English and French modes; in their entertainments they are exquisitely refined; and as they spare no expence, and have a natural good taste, they generally succeed in creating pleasure and surprize. Their hospitality and politeness exceed those of almost every other nation.

* "I had several opportunities (says Mr. Coxe) of remarking the prevalency of the Latin tongue in Poland; when I visited the prisons, I conversed in that language with a common soldier, who stood guard at the entrance: he spoke it with great fluency."

† These pillars are of the same composition and colour with those of the Pantheon in Oxford Street.

‡ Voltaire.

Povonski, the villa of prince Adam Zartoriski, about three miles from Warsaw in the midst of a forest: the situation is almost level, with here and there a gentle slope, which produces an agreeable variety. A river runs through the grounds, which are laid out in the English taste, with a beautiful intermixture of lawn and wood; walks are cut through the wood, and carried along the side of the water. The house, which stands upon a gentle rise, has the appearance of a cottage, constructed like those of the peasants, with trunks of trees piled upon each other, and thatched with straw: beside the principal building, inhabited by the prince and princess, there are separate cottages for the children and attendants, each of which has its inclosures and small garden; this group of structures bears the resemblance of a village, composed of huts scattered at a small distance from each other. Other buildings, such as summer houses, pavilions, rustic sheds, and ruins, are dispersed throughout the grounds; the stables are constructed in the form of an half demolished amphitheatre. Several romantic bridges, rudely composed of the trunks and bent branches of trees, contribute to heighten the rusticity of the scenery. From the appearance of the principal cottage without, one might expect the inside to be furnished in the simple style of a peasant's hovel, but within every species of elegant magnificence which riches and taste could collect are to be found. All the apartments are decorated in the most costly manner; but the splendour of the bath room is peculiarly striking: the sides are covered from top to bottom, with small square pieces of the finest Dresden China, each ornamented with an elegant figure; and the border and cieling are painted with beautiful festoons. The expence of fitting up this apartment must have been prodigious; for there are at least three thousand square pieces of china employed, each of which cost at Dresden three ducats*. Near the house is an enclosure, surrounded with large blocks of granite heaped one upon another, and fallen trees placed in the most natural and picturesque shapes. The several cottages inhabited by the children are each fitted up in different styles, but with equal elegance. Every thing without doors gives one the idea of a happy peasant's family; within all is costliness and taste. The grounds are prettily laid out in the English taste of gardening. Here is likewise a Turkish tent of rich and curious workmanship, pitched in a beautiful retired field near the stables. This tent belonged to the grand-vizier, and was taken during the late war between the Russians and the Turks: under it is a settee, and a carpet spread upon the ground. Passing through the house is a small spot of rising ground, where, in the evening, you are suddenly struck with a most beautiful illumination. A rustic bridge, consisting of a single arch over a broad piece of water, is studded with several thousand lamps of different colours; while the reflection of this illuminated bridge in the water is so strong as to deceive the eye, and give the whole the appearance of a brilliant circle suspended in the air: the effect is splendid beyond description, and considerably heightened by the gloom of the forest in the back-ground. While the traveller is admiring this delightful scene, a band of music strikes up at a little distance, and amuses him with a concert. From this enchanting spot, you are led across the illuminated bridge, to a thatched pavillion, open at the sides, and supported by pillars ornamented with garlands and twisted festoons of flowers: within this pavillion, when any strangers are present, they generally sup on a cold collation, to partake of which they sit down to a table which is covered with all kind of delicacies, with the most costly wines, and every species of fruit which art or nature can furnish. When the supper is ended they rise from table, and take a walk in the gardens, which are suddenly illuminated, and they range about as fancy dictates: and here they are gratified with the sound of wind instruments, played by persons dispersed in different parts of the grounds. The bishop of Plotsko has a palace at Jablonska about eight miles from Warsaw. The palace is a handsome building, constructed after a design, and at the expence, of the late king for his brother, who was bishop of that see. One of the apartments, called the Turkish saloon, is remarkable for its elegance and singularity: it is in the Oriental taste, of an oblong shape, very high, with a fountain in the middle, surrounded with a parterre of flowers. Between the parterre and sides of the room are ranges of Turkish sophas. The variegated tints and rich fragrance of the flowers, joined to the transparency and

* About £1 7s. 6d.

murmurs of the fountain, produce a most pleasing effect, and, together with the coolness of the apartment, render it a delicious retreat from the heats of summer. The Vistula winds along at a small distance from the palace, through a sandy and almost level country.

The public library at Warsaw owes its beginning to the private bounty of two bishops of the family of Zaluski; the following inscription is over the door; *Civium usui perpetuo Zalusicorum par illustre dicavit* 1714. It has since received several large additions from various benefactors; and contains above a hundred thousand volumes. It is very rich in books and manuscripts relating to the Polish history.

There are two universities, one at Cracow, and the other at Vilna; the former was under the direction of priests, called Academicians; and the latter was superintended by the Jesuits; but in both, the course of studies was chiefly confined to theology. After the suppression of the Jesuits, the king established a committee of education, composed of members distinguished either by high station, or enlightened understandings. The committee has an absolute power in matters of education, appoints professors, regulates their salaries, and directs their studies.

Although from the nature of the government learning has never been widely diffused in Poland, yet there never have been wanting men of genius and literature, who have been an ornament to their country: and perhaps no nation can boast a more regular succession of excellent historians; or a greater variety of writers deeply conversant in the laws, statutes, and constitution. Under Sigismond I. and his son Sigismond Augustus, the arts and sciences began to be greatly distinguished by royal patronage; they were cherished by some of the succeeding monarchs, particularly John Sobieski; but no prince paid them more attention than the late king Stanislaus Augustus. His munificence in this particular was attended with the happiest effects. The Polish literati have, within a few years, given to the public a much greater variety of elegant performances than ever appeared in any former period of the same length. What is more material, a taste for science has spread itself among the nobles, and begins to be regarded as an accomplishment.

Atrocious crimes, such as murder, &c. are punished in Poland by beheading or hanging: lesser delinquencies by whipping, hard labour, and imprisonment: the nobles never suffer any corporal punishment; but are liable only to imprisonment and death.

Torture was abolished in 1776, by an edict of the diet, introduced by the influence of the late king; a regulation as expressive of his majesty's judgement as of his benevolence. It is an infinite satisfaction to see the rights of humanity extending themselves in countries, where they had been but little known.

The defects of the police in this country are by no circumstances so strongly evinced, as by frequent impunity of the most atrocious crimes: this abuse may be traced from the following causes: 1. The greatest criminals find at times little difficulty in engaging the protection of some of the principal nobles, who occasionally assemble their vassals and retainers in arms, and drive the officers of justice from their lands. 2. The law, esteemed by the Polish gentry the great bulwark of their liberty, which enacts, that no gentleman can be arrested for misdemeanors until he is convicted of them, notwithstanding the strongest degree of presumptive proof: the offender, of course, if likely to be found guilty, takes care to withdraw himself before the completion of the process. Murder indeed, and robbery on the highway, and a few other capital crimes, are excluded from this privilege: but even in those flagrant enormities no gentleman can be taken into custody, unless actually apprehended in the commission of the offence; and when the crime is thus positively ascertained, which in the nature of things can seldom occur, the culprit cannot be sentenced to capital punishment by any other tribunal than a diet. 3. The right which every town possesses of having its own criminal courts of justice, with judges selected solely from the inhabitants*. 4. There are no public officers whose province it is to

* Many of these towns are at present reduced to such a low state, as scarcely to deserve the name of villages: in these places, of course, the judges are necessarily persons of the lowest description, and totally unqualified for the discharge of their high office. Innocence and guilt, by this means, are often not distinguished, and as often wantonly confounded. Not only the power of levying discretionary fines, but the infliction of corporal punishment, and even of death itself, is entrusted to these contemptible tribunals.

prosecute

prosecute the offenders in the king's name. Hence, even in case of murder, robbery upon the highway, and the most atrocious crimes, the delinquent generally escapes, unless some individual indicts and brings him to trial: this seldom happens, as the process is attended with no small share of expence. 5. The power which every plaintiff possesses of withdrawing his prosecution, even in cases of the greatest enormity: this custom screens all but the indigent from the pursuit of justice; as persons of moderate property are generally able to bribe the necessity or avarice of their prosecutor*.

The laws relating to debtors are as follow: The creditor proceeds against the debtor at his own expence; and, until the trial is finished, allows him eight groschens, or three half-pence, a day for his maintenance; when the debt is proved, the creditor is released from the abovementioned contribution: the debtor continues in prison, at the discretion of his creditor, until the debt is discharged; and, if he has no means of subsistence, is obliged to maintain himself by working with the delinquents in cutting wood, sawing stone, or cleaning the streets. In case a gentleman contracts a debt, an action lies against his lands and goods, and not against his person, unless he gives a note of hand with a double signature, one intended as an ascertainment of the debt, the other as a renunciation of his exemption from arrests; but a person of high distinction, even though he should bind himself by this engagement, can bid defiance to all danger of imprisonment.

SECTION III.

Biallistock—Entertainment at the Countess of Braniski's Palace—Duchy of Lithuania—Its Union with Poland—Description of Grodno—Diets—Physic Garden—General Productions of Lithuania—Account of the Wild-Ox—Of the Remiz and its pendent Nest—Manufactures—Number of Jews—Badness of the Roads and Want of Accommodations—Close of the Dietine at Minsk—Poverty and Wretchedness of the Natives—Comparative View of the Swiss and Polish Peasants—Remarks on the Plica Polonica.

OPPOSITE to Warsaw, on the other side of the Vistula are the suburbs of Praga†. bout an English mile from Warsaw a forest egins, and continues, with little interruption, the distance of eighteen miles. Some of the laces in the road to Biallistock, though extreme- wretched, enjoy their own police and courts justice: they consist of wooden huts, mostly atched, some roofed with wood, and a few ith tiles. The country is chiefly sandy and level as far as the Bog, which may be crossed at Gran: the river is broad and shallow. On the farther side of this river is a better soil, and the country is more diversified. The road is not unpleasant, running through fields sown with different species of corn, hemp, and flax; but the forest is still in sight, and seems to skirt the horizon. In many places the wood encroaches upon the fields, and young trees shoot up in great numbers wherever cultivation has been neglected.

* This practice, founded on a narrow principle, that trages against individuals are merely private, not public ences, is an instance of the grossest barbarism, which all ilized nations have renounced; for it requires a very all degree of legislative improvement to perceive, that vate wrongs, when unchastised, become highly injurious the community at large, by affording encouragement to ilar offences. In visiting the prisons, says Mr. Coxe, aw the bad effects of this usage exemplified in a striking tance. Two persons, indicted for the assassination of a , had been permitted to remain in prison upwards of a elvemonth, without being brought to a trial. The widow the deceased, upon whose accusation they were imprison- having agreed, on the payment of a stipulated sum, to drop the suit and grant them a release, their inability to satisfy her demand had been the only reason for detaining them so long in confinement; and as when I saw them they had just raised the money, they were upon the point of obtaining a final discharge.

† When Count Suwarroff took Praga, in 1794, when the inhabitants were tranquil, when ten hours had elapsed after his taking possession of the suburbs, and when he had sufficient time to get thoroughly intoxicated, (for he seldom undertook any military exploit till he was half inebriated,) the inhuman monster ordered an undistinguished massacre of the inhabitants of this ill-fated place. This sealed the fate of Poland, and it ceased to be an independent nation.

neglected. This is the case in most parts of Poland, many traces of former enclosures, and even the vestiges of paved streets, being discernible in the centre of the forests.

The largest place on the road is Bielsk, capital of the palatinate of Podalachia, where the dietine for the district is held: it is little better than a miserable village, though called, in the geographical descriptions of Poland, a large town. Between Bielsk and Woytszi the cottages are infinitely worse even than those wretched dwellings which are in the towns where the inhabitants are more free; in the latter are furniture and some conveniences; in these nothing but the bare walls. The peasants are perfect slaves, and their habitations and appearance correspond with their miserable situation: a traveller could scarcely figure to himself such objects of poverty and misery. The country from Warsaw to Biallistock is in general sandy; but in some places the soil is very rich. All parts are fit for cultivation, and many spots have the appearance of great fertility. The harvest, however, even in the most fruitful tracts, is but indifferent; a circumstance evidently owing to defect in husbandry.

Biallistock is a very neat and well-built town. The streets were broad, and the houses, which are in general plaistered, stand detached from each other at uniform distances. The superior neatness of Biallistock is owing to the illustrious family of Braniski, whose palace stands close to the town, and who have contributed to ornament their place of residence. It belongs to the countess Braniski*, sister of the late king, and widow of the late great general Braniski; who, notwithstanding this alliance, warmly protested against the election of his late majesty.

From Biallistock, for some way, is a continued forest; afterwards the country becomes more open, abounding with corn and pasture; the towns and villages are long and straggling; all the houses, and even the churches, of wood; crowds of beggars surround a carriage whenever

* Mr. Coxe, speaking of his visit to the countess Braniski, says, "The morning after our arrival, the countess, to whom we had a letter from prince Stanislaus Poniatowski, honoured us with a most polite invitation to dinner, and sent her carriage to convey us to the palace. We were most politely received by our noble hostess, and were convinced from her amiable manners, condescending behaviour, and lively flow of conversation, that affability and good sense are natural to the family of Poniatowski. We found a large company assembled at table, whom the countess had invited to partake of her hospitable board, which was elegantly supplied with every delicacy. Among other topics, the conversation turned upon our mode of travelling through a country so poor and wretched, and so deficient in comfortable accommodations. "I suppose," said a Polish gentleman, "you carry your beds with you;" to which we replied in the negative. "How do you sleep then?" "Upon straw, when we can get it; and when we are not so fortunate, upon the floor, upon a bench, or upon a table." "You take your provisions," returned the Pole.—"Very seldom."—"How do you live then?"—"Upon what we can procure: one of our servants is sent before and generally contrives to obtain some kind of provision, which may sooth, if not satisfy, the demands of hunger; but we have travelling appetites, and are not fastidious."—"You are not, however, without knives, forks, and spoons; for such conveniences are not known among the peasants."—"We each of us carry a clasp-knife; are now and then so fortunate as to meet with a wooden spoon; and never regret the want of a fork." Here our noble hostess made a proposal to supply us with knives, forks, and spoons, together with wine and provision: upon our declining this offer, she pleasantly replied, "Perhaps you are above accepting them; I know the English are very haughty; will you purchase them?" We made answer, that we were not afraid of laying ourselves under any obligations to a person of her politeness and generosity; but the object of our travels was to gratify curiosity rather than appetite; and that we thought ourselves most likely to become acquainted with the domestic œconomy of the peasants, by partaking of their accommodations, and by relying on them for the supply of our wants. Willing, however, not to appear rude in a rejection of the whole offer, we accepted a few bottles of wine. The countess did us the honour to conduct us herself through the apartments of the palace, which is a large building, in the Italian taste; and, on account of its grandeur and magnificence, generally called the Versailles of Poland. It was formerly only a royal hunting seat; John Casimir gave it, together with Biallistock and some other estates, to Czarnieski, a general highly distinguished by his victories over the Swedes at the time that Poland was nearly crushed by her enemies. Among the curiosities preserved in the palace is a golden cup, which Czarnieski used after the custom of those times to wear fastened to his girdle; and an embroidered sash which he took among the spoils after a defeat of Charles X. and supposed to belong to that monarch. Czarnieski left one daughter, who married Braniski the father of the late great general, by which marriage the estate came into that family! There is one apartment which Augustus III. used to occupy whenever he passed this way to the diet of Grodno; and which, out of respect to the memory of their late sovereign, is left in its original state. In another room is a fine portrait of Augustus in his royal robes, with his head shaved in the Polish fashion, as he appeared on the day of his coronation. In the afternoon we drove about the parks and grounds, which are very extensive, and elegantly laid out in the English taste. We closed this agreeable day with a supper at the palace, and took leave, with regret, of its amiable and noble mistress.

ni stops; Jews make their appearance without end. The next town of consequence is Grodno, which has some wretched suburbs inhabited by Jews. Here the Niemen is broad, clear, and shallow, with rising banks, beyond which is the town, which is built upon an eminence overlooking the river. Though Vilna is the capital, yet Grodno is esteemed the principal town in Lithuania.

Formerly Lithuania was entirely unconnected with Poland, and was governed by its own sovereigns under the title of great dukes. From that rivalry, which usually subsists between contiguous states, the two nations were engaged in a series of perpetual wars until 1386, when the great-duke Ladislaus Jaghellon, having espoused Hedwige and embraced the Christian religion, was raised to the Polish throne, and reigned over both countries. Becoming a sincere convert to the new religion, (which he at first adopted from interested views,) he endeavoured to propagate its doctrines among his idolatrous subjects in Lithuania*. Having introduced Christianity into that country, he nominated his brother Casimir Skirgello governor of that duchy, and returned to Poland; but a civil war being excited by the ambition of Alexander, surnamed Vitoldus, and the discontents of those who were still attached to their Pagan rites, Lithuania was for some time a scene of tumult and hostility. At length, by a compromise in 1392, Vitoldus was appointed great duke, and Ladislaus contented himself with a reservation of nominal sovereignty. In 1413 it was stipulated, in a diet of Poles and Lithuanians held at Hrodlo, that, upon the demise of Vitoldus, the Lithuanians should acknowledge no other great-duke but the person whom the king might appoint, with the agreement of the two nations; that, in case Ladislaus died without issue, the Poles should elect no king without the consent of the Lithuanians; and that a diet, composed of representatives from both nations, should meet whenever it was thought necessary, at Lublin or Parzow. This compact was, however, sometimes violated, till Sigismond I. united the two sovereignties, and was succeeded in both by his son Sigismond Augustus.

Hitherto the connection between the two nations had been more an alliance than an union; but Sigismond Augustus having no children, and being the only surviving male heir of the Jaghellon family, planned the union of Poland and Lithuania, lest upon his decease the connection should be dissolved, and the two nations be again governed by different princes. After some difficulties, and being once frustrated in his attempt, he obtained, from a general diet held at Lublin in 1569, that Poland and Lithuania should from henceforth be united and considered as one nation; that one sovereign should be chosen conjointly by both people; that the Lithuanians should send nuntios to the general diet, be admitted into the senate, and have an equal share in the public honours and employments; that no alliance should be made with foreign powers, and no ambassadors dispatched without the consent of both parties; that the same money should pass current in both countries; in short, that they should have no distinction of privilege or interest. Upon the ratification of this union, Sigismond Augustus renounced all hereditary right to Lithuania. From this period the same person was uniformly elected king of Poland and great duke of Lithuania; the two nations were incorporated into one republic; and continued so till the final partition of Poland.

Grodno is a large straggling place, but contains no more than three thousand Christians, excluding the persons employed in the manufactures, and a thousand Jews. It has greatly the appearance of a town in decline; containing a mixture of wretched hovels, falling houses, and ruined palaces, with magnificent gateways, remains of its ancient magnificence. A few habitations in good repair make the contrast more striking. The old palace in which the kings used to reside during the diets, stood upon a hill

* In subserviency to this great work, he ordered the hallowed groves to be cut down, the oracular shrine to be destroyed, the sacred fire to be extinguished, and the serpents worshipped as Gods by his superstitious subjects to be slain. A belief universally prevailed among the people, that whoever profanely attempted to destroy these objects of their worship, would be struck with instantaneous death: when the falsity of this tradition was proved by the impunity of those concerned in the supposed sacrilege, the Lithuanians flocked in such crowds to be converted, that the priests could only bestow separate baptism on persons of distinction; but distributed the multitude in ranks, and, sprinkling them with water, gave one christian name to each rank without distinction of sex.

hill of sand rising abruptly from the river, and forming part of its bank: some remains of the ancient walls still exist. Opposite to this hill is the new palace built, but never inhabited, by Augustus III. as it was not finished at the time of his death. In this palace are the apartments wherein it was intended the diets should be held, if they are ever again summoned to Grodno; but, alass! Lithuania is now under the dominion of Russia. The late king of Poland established in Grodno a Royal Academy of Physic for Lithuania, in which ten students were instructed in physic, and twenty in surgery. They were all lodged, boarded, and taught at his majesty's expence, and the institution greatly flourished under the royal patronage and protection. The physic garden, which did not exist in 1776, made, in 1778, a very respectable appearance; which was entirely owing to Mr. Gillibert's attention and care, that gentleman being superintendant of the college and physic garden.

The animals roving in the very large forests of Lithuania are the bear, the wolf, the elk, the wild-ox, the lynx, the beaver, the glouton, the wild cat, &c. The wild-ox, or common bull in a wild state, is probably the same quadruped which is described by Aristotle under the name of *Bonasus*, styled *Urus* in the Commentaries of Cæsar, and called *Bison* by some naturalists. It is rather larger than the common English bull, and shaped like a buffalo, but without the protuberance over its shoulders: its neck is high and thick, and covered with long hair, or mane, which somewhat resembles that of an old lion; the forehead is narrow, with two horns turning inwards, and the tongue of a blueish colour. The male is sometimes six feet in height, and is more fierce and shaggy than the female*.

Lithuania is very rich in ornithology; among the birds of prey the eagle and vulture are very common. *Remiz* or little species of titmouse, called *Parus Pendulinus*, is not unfrequently found in these parts. They are of the smallest species of titmice. The head is of a very pale blueish ash colour; the forepart of the neck and the breast tinged with red; the belly white; veins black; back and rump of a yellowish rust colour; quill feathers cinerous, with the exterior side white; the tail rust-coloured. The male is singularly distinguished from the female by a pair of black-pointed whiskers. Its nest is in the shape of a long purse, which it forms with amazing art, by interweaving down, goss-à-mer, and minute fibres, in a close and compact manner, and then lining the inside with down alone, so as to make a snug and warm lodging for its young brood. The entrance is at the side, and small and round, with its edge more strongly marked than the rest of this curious fabric. The bird, attentive to the preservation of its eggs or little ones from noxious animals, suspends it at the lesser end to the extremity of the slender twigs of a willow, or some other tree, over a river. Contrary to the custom of titmice, it lays only four or five eggs: possibly Providence hath ordained this scantiness of eggs to the *Remiz*, because by the singular instinct imparted to it, it is enabled to secure its young much more effectually from destruction, than the other species, which are very prolific.

A great quantity of yellow amber is frequently dug up in the Lithuanian forests, sometimes in pieces as large as one's fist, and it is probably the production of a small resinous pine†. The duchy abounds in iron ochre, called by Linnæus *Tophus humoso ochreaceus*, and described by

* Linnæus has classed the *Bonasus*, the *Urus*, and the *Bison* under three species; Buffon reduces them to two, the *Urus* and the *Bison;* and Pennant has comprised them all under one species. His opinion has been lately adopted by Pallas, in a very curious dissertation published in the Acts of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg. That celebrated naturalist informs us, that this species of the wild-ox, which was formerly very common in Europe, exists no where in that continent, but in these Lithuanian forests, in some parts of the Carpathian mountains, and perhaps in the Caucacus. He agrees also with Buffon, in holding the *bison* or wild-ox of America to be only a variety of this *urus* changed by the climate.

† Naturalists have long differed concerning the origin of amber. Some maintain it to be an animal substance; others class it among the minerals; some assert, that it is a vegetable oil united with a mineral acid; but the most common opinion seems to be that it is a fossil bitumen. A few hold it to be the resinous juice of a pine hardened by age: the latter opinion was also maintained by the ancient Romans. Amber is most usually found upon the sea-coast, and though frequently discovered several feet beneath the surface of the ground, yet has been supposed to have never been dug up at any considerable distance from the sea; a circumstance which has led several naturalists to conjecture, that it owes, in a great measure, its production to the sea. But this hypothesis is confuted by the discovery of large pieces of amber in the heart of the Lithuanian forests far from any sea. See Plin. Hist. Nat. L. 37. Sec. XI. Tacitus, de Moribus Germanicus. Macquaire's Chymistry, v. II. p. 206. Bishop of Landaff's (Dr. Watson) Essays on Chymistry, v. III. p. 12. and particularly Wallerius System. Mineralogy, v. II. p. 115—117. where the reader will find a list of the principal naturalists, who have written upon Amber.

Wallerius

Wallerius under the article of *Ferrum limosum*, which produces forty pounds of metal in an hundred weight; it yields also several species of copper and iron pyrites; black agate, which always bears a resemblance to the roots of pines; detached masses of red and grey granite; pudding stones, containing chrystals of white quartz; the *echinus* petrefactus; a prodigious quantity of false precious stones, particularly amethysts, topazes, garnets, also chalcedonies, cornelians, milky agates, the *oculus catti*, or cat's eye, jaspers, and particularly the red species. Lithuania is extremely rich in marine petrefactions, and chiefly in those which are common in the Baltic; of these the madrepores are the most numerous, and amongst others the *Coralliinum Gothlandicum* is not uncommon; which is described in the first volume of the *Amœnitates Academicæ* as extremely rare.

The principal manufactures are cloth and coarse linen and cottons, silk stuffs, embroidery, silk stockings, hats, lace, fire arms, needles, cards, sealing wax, and carriages. The country furnishes sufficient wool, flax, hemp, beavers hair, and wax for the supply of the manufactures which employ those commodities; but the silk, cotton, iron, colours, gold and silver for the embroidery, and fine thread from Brussels for the lace, are imported. The manufactures employ three thousand persons, including those dispersed in the contiguous villages, who spin linen and worsted thread. The apprentices are boys and girls, all children of Polish peasants, who are clothed and fed, and have besides a small allowance in money. The directors complain that there is no emulation among them; and that, although they are better paid and clothed than the other peasants, yet they cannot excite them to industry by any other means than force. These manufactures are still in their infancy, but their institution reflects a considerable lustre upon the late king's reign; and more particularly as his attention was not withdrawn from them during the civil convulsions which shook his throne, and at length overturned it.

In Lithuania there are a vast number of Jews, and indeed there are in every part of Poland, but they seem to have fixed their head-quarters in this country. If you ask for an interpreter, they bring you a Jew; if you come to an inn, the landlord is a Jew; if you want post-horses, a Jew procures them, and a Jew drives them; if you wish to purchase, a Jew is your agent: and this perhaps is the only country in Europe where Jews cultivate the ground: in passing through Lithuania, you frequently see them engaged in sowing, reaping, mowing, and other works of husbandry.

The roads in this country are quite neglected, being scarcely superior to by-paths winding through the thick forest without the least degree of artificial direction: they are frequently so narrow as scarcely to admit a carriage; and are continually so obstructed by stumps and roots of trees, and in many parts so exceedingly sandy, that eight small horses can scarcely drag a carriage along. The postilions are frequently boys of ten or twelve years of age, hardy lads, who ride posts of twenty and even thirty English miles without a saddle, and with scarcely any covering except a shirt and a pair of linen drawers. The bridges across the rivulets are so weakly constructed and so old, that they seem ready to crack with the weight of a carriage.

Bielitza is distant about 90 English miles from Grodno. Novogrodec, which is on the road from Grodno to Minsk, is all built of wood, except two or three ruinous brick-houses, a convent that belonged to the Jesuits, and some mouldering stone-walls surrounding a small eminence, upon which are the remains of an old citadel. Near Novogrodec are a large number of barrows, which the peasants call Swedish burying-places. In this part the country is less sandy, of a richer soil, and somewhat diversified with hill and dale: the solitary extent of the forests is more than usual interspersed with villages, and dotted with fields of pasture, in which are numerous herds of cattle.

Still farther on the road is the small village of Mir, where the poverty of the inhabitants denies a scanty supply of the most ordinary refreshments, and the highest entertainment which the place affords is being a suspension of the dangers of travelling, and an intermission of fatigue. The distance from Mir to Minsk is between sixty and seventy miles; the roads bad, and in some places are several bridges to be crossed not very passable in the day time without the utmost circumspection; so that if a traveller should attempt to pursue his journey in the night, it would be doubtless at a great risk of his personal safety.

At Minsk, however, a person may experience comforts to which he had before been a stranger. He will here find a neat white-washed room with a brick

a brick floor, no fleas or flies, plenty of clean straw, good bread, and fresh meat.

Minsk is a large place; where are two churches and the monastery which belonged to the Jesuits, which are constructed of brick; and the remaining buildings, though formed of wood, have a neater look than the generality of dwellings in this country.

From Minsk to Smolewitzo, which is 30 miles, (on account of the badness of the roads,) takes near twelve hours to perform the journey. No traveller has any inducement to remain longer than is absolutely necessary in these hovels, abounding in vermin, and in which filth and wretchedness are united.

In various parts of the forest, through which a traveller must pass is a circular range of boards fixed to several trees about twelve feet from the ground, and projecting three in breadth from the trunk. Upon any great hunting party, ladders were placed against these scaffoldings; so that when any person is closely pursued by a bear, he runs up the ladder, and draws it up after him: the bear, although an excellent climber, is stopped in his ascent by the projection of the boards.

We were very happy at length (says Mr. Coxe) to reach Naitza, although we took up our station in one of the most wretched of all the wretched cottages we had yet entered. The only article of furniture it afforded was a small table, and the only utensil a broken earthen pot, in which our repast was prepared, and which served us also for dishes and plates. We ate our meagre fare by the light of a thin lath of deal, about five feet in length, which was stuck into a crevice of the wainscot, and hung over the table: this lath, thanks to the turpentine contained in it, served us instead of a candle, of which there was not one to be found in the whole village of Naitza. It is surprising, that the careless method of using these lights is not oftener attended with more dreadful effects; for the cottagers carry them about the house with such little caution, that we frequently observed sparks to drop from them upon the straw which was prepared for our beds: nor were we able, by the strongest expressions of fear, to awaken in them the slightest degree of circumspection. For some time after coming into this country, we used to start up with no small emotion in order to extinguish the sparks; but, such is the irresistible influence of custom, we became at last ourselves perfectly insensible to the danger of this practice, and caught all the indifference of the natives. I once even so far forgot myself as to hold a lighted stick for a considerable time over a heap of straw, while I was negligently searching for some trifle. This supineness, which I so easily acquired in this particular, convinced me (if I may compare small things with great), that I could live with the inhabitants at the foot of Mount Vesuvius without dread of an eruption; or sit unconcerned with the natives of Constantinople amid the devastations of the plague.

It is inconceivable how few are the wants of the Lithuanian peasants! Their carts are put together without iron; their bridles and traces are generally plaited from the bark of trees, or composed merely of twisted branches. They have no other instrument but a hatchet, to construct their huts, cut out their furniture, and make their carts. Their dress is a thick linen shirt and drawers, a long coarse drugget coat, or a sheep-skin cloak, a round black felt cap lined with wool, and shoes made from the bark of trees. Their huts are built of trunks of trees heaped on each other, and look like piles of wood in wharfs with penthouse roofs. How very unlike the Swiss cottages, though constructed of the same materials. Nor are their houses more dissimilar than their manners. The striking difference between the Swiss and Polish peasants, in their very air and deportment, strongly marks the contrast of their respective governments. The Swiss are open, frank, rough, but ready to serve you; they nod their heads, or slightly pull off their hats as you pass by, but expect a return of civility: they are roused by the least rudeness, and are not to be insulted with impunity. On the contrary, the Polish peasants are cringing and servile in their expressions of respect: they bow down to the ground; take off their hats or caps, and hold them in their hands till the traveller gets out of sight; they stop their carts on the first glimpse of a carriage; in short, their whole behaviour gives evident symptoms of the abject servitude under which they groan. Yet liberty is as often the subject of encomium in Poland as in Switzerland: how different, however, are its operations in the two countries! In the one it is equally diffused, and spreads comfort and happiness through

through the whole community: in the other it centers in a few, and is in reality the worst species of despotism.

In travelling through this country a person cannot fail observing several persons with matted or clotted hair, which constitutes a disorder called *Plica Polonica:* it receives that denomination because it is considered as peculiar to Poland; although it is not unfrequent in Hungary, Tartary, and several adjacent nations, and instances of it are occasionally to be found in other countries. According to the observations of Dr. Vicat, an ingenious Swiss physician long resident in Poland, and who has published a satisfactory treatise* upon this subject; the *Plica Polonica* is supposed to proceed from an acrid viscous humour penetrating into the hair, which is tubular†: it then exudes either from its sides or extremities, and clots the whole together, either in separate folds, or in one undistinguished mass. Its symptoms, more or less violent, according to the constitution of the patient, or malignity of the disease, are itchings, swellings, eruptions, ulcers, intermitting fevers, pains in the head, languor, lowness of spirits, rheumatism, gout, and sometimes even convulsions, palsy, and madness. These symptoms gradually decrease as the hair becomes affected. If the patient is shaved in the head, he relapses into all the dreadful complaints which preceded the eruption of the *Plica;* and he continues to labour under them, until a fresh growth of hair absorbs the acrid humour. This disorder is thought hereditary; and is proved to be contagious when in a virulent state. Many physical causes have been supposed to concur in rendering the *Plica* more frequent in these regions than in other parts; it would be an endless work to enumerate the various conjectures with which each person has supported his favourite hypothesis: the most probable are those assigned by Dr. Vicat. The first cause is the nature of the Polish air, which is rendered insalubrious by numerous woods and morasses; and occasionally derives an uncommon keenness even in the midst of summer from the position of the Carpathian mountains; for the southern and south-easterly winds, which usually convey warmth in other regions, are in this chilled in their passage over their snowy summits. The second is unwholesome water; for although Poland is not deficient in good springs, yet the common people usually drink that which is nearest at hand, taken indiscriminately from the rivers, lakes, and even stagnant pools. The third cause is the gross inattention of the natives to cleanliness; for experience shews, that those who are not negligent in their persons and habitations, are less liable to be afflicted with the plica, than others who are deficient in that particular. Thus persons of higher rank are less subject to this disorder than those of inferior stations; the inhabitants of large towns than those of small villages; the free peasants than those in an absolute state of vassalage; the natives of Poland Proper than those of Lithuania. Whatever we may determine as to the possibility that all, or any of these causes, by themselves, or in conjunction with others, originally produced the disorder; we may venture to assert, that they all, and particularly the last, assist its propagation, inflame its symptoms, and protract its cure. In a word, the *Plica Polonica* appears to be a contagious distemper; which, like the leprosy, still prevails among a people ignorant of medicine, and inattentive to check its progress; but is rarely known in those countries, where proper precautions are taken to prevent its spreading.

* *Memoire sur la Plique Polonoise.*

† The dilatation of the hair is sometimes so considerable as to admit small globules of blood; this circumstance, which however very rarely happens, has probably given rise to the notion, that the patient, if his hair be cut off, bleeds to death.

END OF COXE'S TRAVELS IN POLAND.

TRAVELS

IN

DENMARK, NORWAY, AND SWEDEN.

BY THOMAS NOWEL, ESQ.

IN 1801.

SECTION I.

General Description of the Kingdom of Denmark—Its Climate, Population, Privileges of the Nobles and Burghers, Language, Police, Artists, Taxes, Army, Navy, Form of Government, and Laws.

THE kingdom of Denmark, one of the northern states of Europe, was formerly called Dania. It has the German Ocean on the W. the Skager Rack on the N. which separates it from Norway; the Cattegat and the Sound on the E. which separate it from Sweden; and part of Saxony on the S. The extent of this country is not easily ascertained, from the very irregular position of its several parts: it is, however, contained between 53 degrees 30 minutes and 57 degrees 45 minutes N. latitude, and between 8 degrees and 12 degrees 40 minutes E. longitude from Greenwich. Geographers usually divide it into Jutland, the duchy of Sleswick, the duchy of Holstein, and the islands at the entrance of the Baltic. All these together constitute the kingdom of Denmark, yet neither of them particularly is called by that name.

It is a singular circumstance, that the king of Denmark has not a navigable river in all his dominions. The Eyder is not by any means adapted to ships of burden; and the Elbe is rather one of the confines or boundaries, than an inland river of this kingdom. There are here some lakes, which afford abundance of fresh-water fish, and the forests are well stocked with game of all sorts, as stags, elks, wild boars, hares, and plenty of wild fowl.

The air of the north parts of Jutland is cold and piercing; but in the more southern parts, as well as in the islands of Funen and Zealand, it is milder and more temperate; though in the low marshy parts, and in the isle of Laaland, the air is thick, moist, and rather unhealthy. The shifting of the winds, indeed, renders the weather somewhat variable; but at the same time it purges the atmosphere of fogs and vapours. The west wind is the most violent, and blows very frequently in these parts. Denmark is chiefly situated on a level, and, excepting the tract of land about the middle of Jutland, is very fertile; so that the country maintains its inhabitants in plenty, and yields a rich provision of every thing necessary for the support of human life. It can better dispense with horned cattle and horses, than with any sort of grain. The climate is not in general so rigid as in some parts of Germany, which are situated much more to the south. This may arise from the adjacent sea, the vapours of which dissolve the nitrous particles brought by the wind from the northern latitudes, before they reach this region. The gentle breezes blowing from the sea continue also to make the air cooler in summer. The year in these parts properly consists only of two seasons, *viz.* winter and summer; for spring and autumn are very seldom known. During the three months of June, July and August, the heat is more intense than in England, and very sultry in the night. But it is a close and disagreeable heat; and the thickness of the atmosphere even tinges the beams of the sun with a deepness and gloom which is extremely offensive to the eye, particularly of a foreigner. In Copenhagen, during these months, the plague of the fly, as it is there called, is exceedingly troublesome. These the inhabitants endeavour to

to destroy by means of a poisonous liquid; the effects of which are so certain, that, on sprinkling it in their kitchens and chambers, pecks of dead insects may be swept together in one room.

The latest and most accurate calculations of the number of inhabitants in the kingdom of Denmark, excluding those in the Greenlands and Iceland, make the whole amount to two millions four hundred and forty-four thousand. However disproportionate this number may seem to the extent of the Danish territories, the uncultivated condition in which they lie, renders it highly probable; and even this seems to be more than sufficient for the purposes of commerce. Population in these modern times generally keeps pace with plenty, especially in northern countries; the number of his Danish majesty's subjects must therefore be greatly encreased by the improvements lately introduced into agriculture and other arts. This part of Europe, however, is thought by some to have been much more populous than it is at present.

The Danes are divided into nobles, burghers, and peasants; and the noblest are distinguished by the appellation of the higher and lower nobility. There never were any princes or dukes, except the king's sons, in Denmark, one nobleman excepted, Knut Pors, who was created duke of Holland by Christopher II. so that the rank of higher nobles included only counts and barons, which titles were introduced by Christian V. The privileges of counts are many and great: they have the right of primogeniture. Their younger sons and daughters are stiled barons and baronesses, and possess all the dignity annexed to that rank. In their counties or baronies they exercise the right of patronage, and appoint a judge and secretary, from whose sentence there is no appeal but to the supreme court of judicature. They pay neither tythes nor contributions for their hereditary estates; and are allowed three hundred acres of land free from all taxation or impost. All suits carried on against them must commence in the supreme court of judicature. They bear a coronet over their coat of arms. Barons are distinguished by nearly the same immunities; but enjoy only one hundred acres of land exempted from tythes and contributions, and are somewhat inferior in rank and title. No person is made a feudal count or baron who is not able to purchase so much land as may be changed into a feudal county or barony. But this qualification is not requisite to the lower nobility, who, in matters of life and honour, can only be cited before the supreme court of the king. As to orders of knighthood, there are but two in this country, *viz.* that of Dannebrogue, which is of great antiquity; and that of the Elephant, which was instituted by Christian I in honour of his son's marriage, and is conferred only on persons of the first quality and most extraordinary merit. The number of members which constitute this most honorary order, besides the sovereign, is only thirty.

The burghers of this country enjoy greater or less privileges according to the cities of which they are members, their extent of property, or their personal deserts. Those of Copenhagen have some peculiar distinctions, which are said to be very extraordinary and extensive. They obtained them in 1650, and had them both confirmed and considerably enlarged in 1661.

The peasantry of Denmark are of different classes. Some possess a spot of land as their own property, for which they pay to the lord of the manor an inconsiderable acknowledgement: they are otherwise exempted from all exactions, excepting the general contribution. These are called land-owners. Those who have only a farm, pay for the profits of it at a stipulated rent in money, cattle, or corn, once a year, and do inferior service for a certain number of days at the manor, and at the pleasure of their landlords. There are still others who act as servants to these two classes of peasants. Slavery, or the state of servitude, was abolished for the most part in this nation by Frederic IV. in 1702, and is continued only in some parts of the duchy of Sleswick.

In the times of heathenism the Danes paid religious worship chiefly to their gods, the principal of which were Thor, Odin, and Freya. Many attempts were made in the middle ages to introduce Christianity in Denmark, but those who endeavoured to enlighten the people in this way were generally persecuted with the most unparalleled barbarity. At length Lutheranism met with a favourable reception in this kingdom, and gained the sanction of a national establishment by the diet held at Copenhagen in 1537. The ecclesiastical government is divided into six dioceses; one in Zealand, another in Funen, and four

four in Jutland. The government of these is committed to bishops, or superintendants of the church and clergy.

Men of eminence in the republic of letters are as frequent and numerous here as in any other European state of a similar extent. Indeed there is scarcely any branch of literature, or any particular science, in which individuals in this kingdom have not acquitted themselves with credit. The climate, however, seems to form an invincible obstacle to the progress and improvement of what we call polite learning and the fine arts. A short summer succeeds to the long series of cold and darkness, which environs them from October till April; and during that period they often experience very great heats for a few days, or sometimes weeks. Certainly man is much affected by physical causes; and one is not surprized to find the elegant arts confined more to luxurious and southern climates; and faintly raising their heads amidst the snowy and inhospitable regions, where the inhabitants seem in some degree to partake of the asperities of the soil, and where royal munificence, however unbounded, can only raise, as it were a few sickly and straggling plants.

The language of Denmark, like that of Norway, is a corruption of the Teutonic. High Dutch and French are spoken at court. The nobility have also of late years made great proficiency in the English, which is now publicly taught at Copenhagen, as a necessary branch of polite education.

The police is singularly rigid and regular: Denmark is therefore seldom infested with those highway robberies, burglaries, and various kinds of felonies, so common in other commercial countries. Murder and manslaughter often happen; and the punishment of the criminal guilty of such enormities, is decapitation. Here the public executioner, though (as in every other place) he be universally despised, is usually very rich; as he is the general contractor for emptying all jakes, removing all kinds of filth, and particularly dead domestic animals, which no other Dane would touch on any account.

The Danish apothecaries are all under the most excellent and exemplary regulations. Only two are allowed in Copenhagen; and only one in all other towns of importance. They are severally licenced by the college of physicians, and confirmed by the king. They are also bound, under certain penalties, to keep an exact register of all the drugs they sell; by whom prescribed, and to whom administered. If some such regulation as this were adopted in other countries, it would be a mean of keeping empirics from vending their pernicious nostrums, and would hinder many of those, who are called regularly bred, from selling those deleterious drugs which have been the cause of much mischief even in the metropolis of Britain.

There are many artists of the first celebrity and most extraordinary skill at Copenhagen; and every branch of mechanics is at present well executed in Denmark. A few years ago a general warehouse or magazine was opened by authority in the metropolis, to which manufacturers bring all the goods they have not been able to dispose of in other towns, and are paid ready money for them. From this great storehouse all sorts of vendible commodities are constantly delivered out to retailers on credit.

Denmark enjoys the most commodious situation for navigation; and by establishing a general mart or staple in Copenhagen, might be made the center of all the northern trade, especially of that carried on in the Baltic. Formerly, all the commerce in this country was carried on by the Hanse towns, which were afterwards supplanted by the Dutch and English; but chiefly by the former. In process of time, the Danes understood the advantages of abandoning all neutral bottoms, and using their own. Frederic IV. may with propriety be stiled the real founder of the Danish commerce, which Christian VI. powerfully supported, and Frederic V. very much encouraged by his royal munificence and bounty.

The royal revenues of Denmark arise from impositions made at the king's pleasure on his own subjects, from the duties paid by foreigners, and from his own demesne lands, including all sorts of mulcts and confiscations. Wine, salt, tobacco, and every kind of luxury, are all moderately taxed. Marriages, paper, corporations, land, houses, and poll-money, raise a considerable sum. The expences of fortifications are defrayed by the people; and when the king's daughter is married they contribute a hundred thousand rix-dollars towards her portion. But the internal taxes of this country are very uncer-

tain,

tain, as they are uniformly raised or lessened at the will of the king. Customs, and tolls on imports and exports are more stable. The tolls paid by strangers arise chiefly from foreign ships passing through the Sound into the Baltic, by the narrow strait which runs between Schonen and Zealand. These tolls are in proportion to the size of the ship and the value of its cargo, exhibited in bills of lading. This exaction has more than once thrown the northern nations into a flame: it was often disputed by the English and Dutch; and the Swedes, who commanded the opposite side of the pass, for some time refused to pay it; but in the treaty of 1720 between these two rival states, under the guaranty of his Britannic majesty George I. the Swedes agreed to pay the same rates which are paid by the subjects of Great Britain and the Dutch. This toll is paid at Elsineur, which is seated on the Sound at the entrance of the Baltic.

The army of Denmark, in time of peace, consists of thirty thousand cavalry and infantry, exclusive of militia; but in time of war they muster fifty thousand regulars, and augment the militia. The naval force of Denmark has likewise been considerably augmented, and it is considered as a maritime nation*. The fisheries along the coasts, especially of the northern parts of Norway, afford great numbers of excellent seamen. Every sea-faring man being obliged, once in his life, when called upon, to serve his king and country for six years, for which purpose they are all registered. The six years being expired, no more service is required of them. The number of seamen in Denmark and Norway thus registered amounts to twenty thousand men. Besides these there is always a body of four thousand sailors regimented for sudden occasions, and in constant pay, at Copenhagen.

The form of government in Denmark was formerly the same as that which was established by the Goths and Vandals wherever they extended their conquests; but whether it was anciently an elective or an hereditary kingdom seems yet undetermined, since both sides of the question are espoused by historians of equal reputation. Admitting the crown to be hereditary, it is nevertheless certain, that the states commonly made their choice out of the royal family, and that they also on some occasions departed from this custom. The present form of government in Denmark is grafted on the ruins of that aristocratic power which the nobility exercised over their inferiors with the most unsufferable arrogance and inhumanity. In 1660 the whole nation was in a most calamitous situation. A peace not very honourable succeeded a most unfortunate war. The treasury was so much exhausted, that, on disbanding the troops, there was no money to pay up their arrears. The soldiers then became insolent and licentious. The power of the nobles had lately arisen to an enormous height; and their haughtiness and rapacity extended with their power. The clergy, for want of importance, were discontented and chagrined at the obloquy and disrespect to which they found themselves reduced. The peasantry, irritated and made desperate by the oppressive taxes occasioned by a long, expensive, and abortive war, were turbulent and unmanageable. These and other alarming circumstances rendered an immediate convention of the states indispensible. Here the commons proposed that an equitable tax should be laid on all without distinction, in proportion to their circumstances. This was strenuously and resolutely opposed by the nobles, who asserted their hereditary privileges as a full exemption from every kind of impost. The other party had recourse to the great law of nature, which they contended was superior and prior to all prescription; and urged with unanswerable force the unalienable extent of their natural rights. They stated, as the fundamental principle of the proposition before them, that it was incumbent on those who engrossed the largest share of the lands, wealth, and honours of the kingdom; to bear an equal proportion of the common burden, and contribute accordingly to the general defence. This mode of reasoning was too convincing to produce any other effect than silence or fury; and the consequence of a disagreement between the interests and convictions of men is easily foreseen. Tenacious alike of their real and imaginary claims, both parties were highly inflamed against each other. In the midst of this violent ferment, Otto Craeg, a nobleman more intrepid than prudent,

* See an account of the attack on Copenhagen by the British forces in 1807, and the surrender of that capital, together with the Danish fleet to the British arms in the description of Copenhagen herea[illegible] given.

dent, boldly told the commons, that they neither understood the rights of the nobility, who were their masters, nor their own, who were no more than slaves. These degrading expressions proved like oil to a furnace, and threw the whole assembly into a blaze. The speaker of the commons, fired with indignation, swore a solemn oath, that the nobility should certainly repent the contempt with which they had treated them. The term slavery operated like a watch-word concerted by the burghers, the clergy, and the court. The assembly broke up in a rage; and the commons, under the auspices of their leader, adjourned to the Brewer's Hall, where it was instantly and unanimously resolved to make a solemn tender of their liberties and service, and to establish in his family an hereditary succession to the crown. This resolution was executed next day. The bishop of Copenhagen officiated as speaker for the clergy and commons. The king thankfully accepted their grant, and promised immediate relief and protection. The gates of the metropolis were shut; and the nobility, finding themselves divested of all their late hereditary consequence, submitted with the best grace they could, to confirm the king's supremacy and their own insignificance. Thus from motives of revenge, probably fermented by artful and designing courtiers, the people, with a rude and daring temerity, resigned their independence for ever, and in one fatal moment, changed the whole face of affairs, made the crown hereditary, and the king absolute. It is happy indeed for the Danes, that ever since the year 1660, when this memorable revolution took place, few or no instances have occurred of abusing the despotic powers thus vested in the crown, which are at present, perhaps, more unlimited than those of any other monarch in Europe.

The code of Danish laws is so peculiarly perspicuous and concise, that the whole is comprised in one volume. This celebrated work, which discovers an amazing fund of legislative wisdom, is composed with infinite simplicity, and written in the native language of the country. It is divided into six books, and treats clearly, though briefly, of the proceedure of the courts of justice; of ecclesiastical laws; of official and honorary law; of maritime and naval law; of property law; and of criminal law. By means of a system thus formed on the most obvious and equitable principles, the lowest and least intelligent easily understand their duty; and when either injured or accused, are enabled to plead their own cause.

The town of Hamburgh, although it is not properly belonging to Denmark, yet as it has been of late much subject to violence during the present war on the continent, must be particularly noticed. It was formerly the metropolis, not only of the district of Stormar, but of all Holstein, which is a part of Denmark, till it became a free imperial city of that part of Germany. It is large and very populous, lying on the north side of the river Elbe, which here forms the boundary of the king of Denmark's dominions on the South. Hamburgh lies partly on islands, and partly on the continent, having a very good harbour. The Hamburghers possess a territory for twelve miles round, in which are several villages and fine seats. Charlemagne built a fort here, and erected a church, the only one in Hamburgh for three hundred and fifty years. It has undergone many revolutions since, and is now greatly increased. Its streets are spacious, and its houses, built with brick, being very high, making a grand appearance. This town was the second of the Hanseatic union, and one of the principal among them. Hamburgh being naturally strong, is as well fortified by art as a place of its magnitude can well admit of. From its situation it has all possible advantages for trade, both foreign and domestic. To it, in time of peace, merchants of all nations resort, whose goods are sent up the Elbe into Prussia and the heart of Germany. From Hamburgh a canal has been dug to the river Trava, for the sake of a communication with Lubec and the Baltic, without the trouble of going round Denmark; so that by an inland navigation of fifty five miles, they save a hazardous one by sea of seven hundred miles. Its trade is very considerable: for the Elbe, and many other navigable rivers falling into it, after a course through some of the richest and most trading parts of Prussia, and other states, furnish this city with all the products and manufactures of Austria, Bohemia, and Upper and Lower Saxony. The principal merchandize it exports, especially to Great Britain, is linen of several countries and sorts, well known in London; also great quantities of linen yarn, rags for paper makers, the plate

plates, wire of iron, brass, and steel, clap-boards, pipe staves, and other timber, kid skins, and corn. The Hamburghers have a good share in the Greenland whale fishery, having generally, in peaceable times, fifty or sixty ships in this trade annually employed.

The government of this city is vested in the senate and three colleges of burghers, and is a mixture of the aristocratical and democratical forms.

Hamburgh has long been celebrated for its care of the poor. They have a hospital for orphans, the revenue of which is about sixty thousand pounds sterling per annum. The number of houses in the city are about thirty thousand. The churches are large and handsome fabrics, but open thoroughfares during the day, and in some are booksellers shops. The church of St. Katharine has a stately front, with several statues in niches, and the steeple formed of several lanthorns diminishing to the last, which supports a spire like that of St. Bride's in Fleet Street, London, but much taller: round the middle of its steeple is a gilt crown; and its organ, which is reckoned the finest in Europe, has six thousand pipes. Here is also an university, which is well endowed. The senate house and town hall is an ancient, large, and noble structure; the exchange, which stands opposite to it, is a fine building, but inferior to that of London. The city is nearly circular, and five or six miles in circumference. The walls and fortifications that lie open to view, are planted with rows of lofty trees; so that none of the houses can be seen from without, on that side of the walls which are next Altena. It has six gates, and three entrances by water. A canal divides it into the Old and the New city. It is surrounded by a high wall, with twenty-three bulwarks, beside other out-works, and a very deep ditch: a noble line with other works runs from the largest bason of the Alster to the Elbe, about half a mile above the town; and on the other side of the bason, about midway between that and the Elbe, below the town, is the star sconce, so strong a fortification, that the king of Denmark with all his army could not take it in 1686, after six weeks' siege. In the new town towards Altena, are large streets of mean houses, principally inhabited by Jews. The two channels of the North and South Elbe, into which this river is separated two or three miles above the city, forming several isles towards Harbourg, re-unite six miles below the city. Towards the east it is washed by the little river Bille, and towards the North by the Alster, forming a very large bason without the town, and another within the walls; after which it turns the public mills, and passing by sluices and canals through the city, falls into the Elbe. Here are eighty-four bridges, thirty-eight water mills, and six wind mills. It has also six large market places. Spring tides, especially with a N. W. wind, do frequent damage to the town, of which there were two melancholy instances in 1651 and 1719.

The jurisdiction of Hamburgh comprises the bailiwics of Rutzenbuttel, Bilwerder, Ochsenwerder, and Eppendor. The four cantons of Altegame, Newgame, Kirchwerder, and Roslacke, belong to Hamburgh in common with the city of Lubec; as does also a castle, with the small town and bailiwic of Bergedorf. They put in a bailiff alternately, as also an equal number of soldiers to garrison the castle. Here are several convents and cloisters, which having been secularized, are now Lutheran; the tenure of the foundation of one of these in particular is still continued, by offering a glass of wine to every malefactor that is carried by it to execution. Hamburgh is two miles S. E. of Altena, 60 miles S. E. of the German Ocean, 42 miles S. W. of Lubec, and 58 miles N. E. of Bremen. Although this town lies in the same degree of latitude with that of Lincoln in England, it is colder in winter, but hotter in summer than the latter city.

Altena is a large and populous village of Storman, a province of Danish Holstein, situated, as above mentioned, two miles N. W. of Hamburgh. Here a governor for the king of Denmark resides. It is now indeed almost joined to Hamburgh by a row of houses on the Elbe, as Islington is to London. This village received its name, according to the Danish historians, from a ludicrous circumstance, which is as follows: Deputies from Hamburg, in a remonstrance to the king of Denmark against building this village too near their city, frequently made use of the words "dat is all ta nae," *i. e.* "that is all too near;" the king taking particular notice of the three last monosyllables, said in a bantering manner to the deputies, he could not excuse himself from going on with the building; but that, to

to oblige them, he would call it by the name they had given it, "All ta nae," which was corrupted into Altena. Formerly it was a place of refuge, not only for insolvent debtors, but even for malefactors, that came from Hamburgh; and though it depended entirely on the trade of that city, yet it was out of its jurisdiction. A treaty was concluded here, in 1689, between the king of Denmark and the duke of Holstein Gottorp about the partition of the duchy of Holstein. The government of this town is vested in an upper president chosen by the king, the burgher-master, and corporation. The court of appeal is held at Gluckstadt. It is now estimated to contain upwards of three thousand houses, and thirty thousand inhabitants. Here are two churches for the Lutherans, two for the Calvinists, one for the Calvinist French, another for the Roman Catholics, and two for the Menonite churches, exclusive of other sects. The Jews here are numerous, and have a large synagogue; but pay two thousand ducats per annum protection money. Here are three docks for building ships, and a variety of manufactures are carried on. In 1710 it lost two hundred houses by fire; and in 1712 it was burnt by the Swedish army under Steinbeck. About the same time it suffered very much by the plague. It was originally a village in conjunction with the lordship of Pinneburg; but in 1640, coming with that lordship under the dominion of Denmark, it soon became a town, and in 1644 obtained a charter. The Danes would have fortified this town long ago; but the Hamburghers, having obtained a grant of the emperors of Germany, that no fort should be built within two miles of them, would never permit it. Altena, however, is now the emporium, or market, for the sale of goods brought by the Danish East India company from the Indies.

Gluckstadt, which is 38 miles N. W. of Hamburgh, and 36 miles N. W. of Altena, is a strongly fortified town of Danish Holstein, on the banks of the river Elbe, near the influx of the river Rhyn into it. The emperor Ferdinand II. besieged this town two years in vain, principally owing to the assistance it received from the Danish fleet in the Elbe, for it cannot be taken unless blocked up by a fleet. The Danes usually keep in it a garrison of two thousand foot. Here are several canals, one of which divides the town into two parts, and is intersected by another at the end of the market place, which is very magnificent. At one corner is the great church, where the Calvinists and Papists have each a chapel. Its harbour is capable of receiving a royal navy, the Elbe being here very wide, deep, and safe. At the end of the canal running into it from the town, is a tower built in the water, on piles, round which are platforms, with batteries of cannon that command the Elbe. The town standing in a marshy bottom, there is no approaching it on the land side, but by a stone causeway about three quarters of a mile in length, on the side of Krempe, (a town which stands mid-way between Itzehoe and Gluckstadt.) The king of Denmark attempted to oblige all ships that pass up the Elbe to pay toll; but in this project he was opposed by all the powers of Europe, particularly the Hamburghers; and although matters were accommodated, yet the duties demanded by his Danish majesty were laid on; so that a heavy toll is demanded at this town, and it was declared a free port in 1773. In this town the police is rigid, and the punishment for offences singular. In some cases thieves are condemned to draw the dust carts, and are chained to them like Turkey galley slaves. Between Gluckstadt and Elmesborn the country is rendered very fertile by frequent inundations of the Elbe.

Itzehoe is a small town, lying on the river Stor, which abounds with fish, and falls into the Elbe at Gluckstadt. Itzehoe is 15 miles N. E. of Gluckstadt, at the foot of a mountain, and is defended by an old castle. Its inhabitants enjoy a good trade by means of its river. The place is in a flourishing condition, and its inhabitants daily increasing in number. It is very well built, especially that part of it which is called the New town, and there is a church in each. At Itzehoe there is a Lutheran nunnery, for an abbess and nineteen ladies of quality, who are not compelled to make any vows, or to practise any Romish custom.

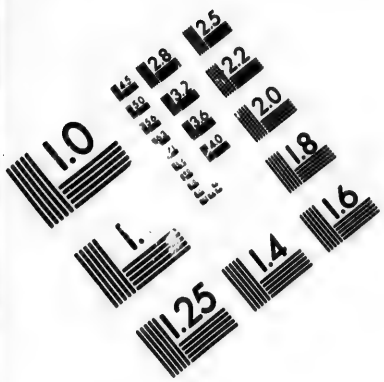
Meldorp is 24 miles N. of Gluckstadt, and is the capital of Ditmarsh, a canton of Holstein. It is situated a little above the river Milde, (which falls into the German Ocean,) near its mouth. Its church is large and beautiful. Here are three market places, *viz.* the north, the south, and the west; with an excellent seminary for teaching

teaching the classics and rhetoric, which was formerly a monastery. On account of this seat of learning young gentlemen from different parts of Denmark are sent to it for education. It is the seat of the judicial courts for the canton in which it stands, and is a place of some trade, but not so much as when the Milde was navigable for small vessels.

Rendsborg is another town of Danish Holstein. The road from Hamburgh N. W. to Gluckstadt, and from Gluckstadt by Itzehoe N. E. to Rendsborg, is through a charming country; as is likewise the road which leads directly North from Hamburgh to Rendsborg. That part which is called the Old Town is situated on an island formed by the river Eyder, which runs in two branches through the town, and separates itself at this place in such a manner, that the branch above the Old Town is called the Upper, and the main stream the Lower Eyder. That which is known by the name of the New Town or Neuewerk lies on the other side of the Lower Eyder, is regular and handsome, and has particular fortifications of its own, which environ the Old Town in the form of a half moon. It is well garrisoned; and here is the royal armoury, the carriage house, and the granary, all of which are large and spacious buildings. A commercial college or board of trade was established at this town about seventy years ago. It consists of about six hundred houses, and its inhabitants possess peculiar franchises. It owes its name and origin to the ancient castle of Reinoldsburg, which was erected by count Adolphus III. in 1200, and which was repaired and improved in the next century by Count Gerhard the Great.

Kiel is 12 miles E. of Rendsborg, 50 miles N. E. of Gluckstadt, and 58 miles N. of Hamburgh. This town is situated on a bay of the Baltic, in Holstein, and is a place of considerable trade. Its harbour is excellent, and is much frequented by shipping from Germany, Sweden, and all other parts of the Baltic, and is a populous and wealthy town. Both the town and the harbour are defended by a castle or a neighbouring hill. On the east side of this castle the sea washes its walls, and on the other side of the bay is a delightful, though woody country. A garden facing the castle is the only place by which Kiel has a communication with the main land. This garden lying along the sea side, is above two hundred paces broad, consisting of a terrace walk, level with the foundation of the castle, from which there is a small descent to parterres full of flowers, and adorned with a fountain and wilderness: and this leads to others, from which there is a little ascent to a second terrace. It suffered greatly in the wars between Denmark and Sweden. Here the duke of Holstein Gottorp founded an university in 1665, which had many learned professors. It is divided into the New and Old Town, the former of which is the largest and most pleasant, the streets of which are planted with rows of trees. The old town, which stands on a kind of peninsula, is fortified with deep ditches; and on the harbour are fine walks with trees. Here is a palace which faces the north side of the town. At Kiel are several good buildings, particularly a large church and hospital, which before the reformation was a Franciscan monastery. The town is much enriched by its annual fair, which is held for three weeks after Twelfth-day, and is frequented by multitudes of all ranks, especially the nobility of the duchies of Sleswick and Holstein. Vast sums of money are here negociated, and payments according to previous contract punctually made; insomuch that he who does not keep his credit at this fair, is looked upon as in a state of bankruptcy, and is liable to punishment as well as disgrace. During this fair even Hamburgh is, as it were, deserted, every body hurrying hither to pay rents, renew leases, or let out money to interest, &c. by all which means the town is so full, that it is a difficult task to procure a lodging in it. The Old and New towns are joined by a bridge, at the end of which is a draw-bridge and a gate, where a guard is constantly kept. There was a project on foot some years ago to cut a navigable canal from the river Eyder to this town, by which ships of two hundred tons were proposed to be carried immediately from the German Ocean into the Baltic, without going round Jutland and through the Sound. This was intended to be done by the czar Peter the Great, who stipulated that for this service Russian ships should not be obliged to pay toll to Denmark; but on that monarch's death the design was laid aside. At the mouth of the harbour is the small fort of Christian Preiss, which entirely commands the entrance.

About six miles N. of Kiel, but in Sleswick,



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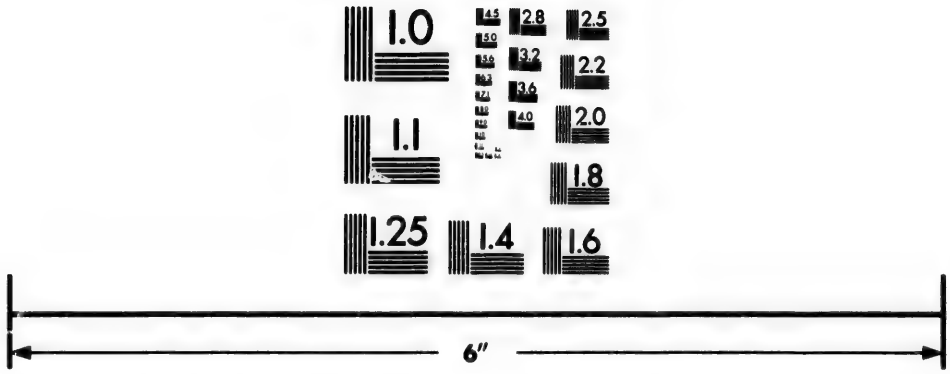

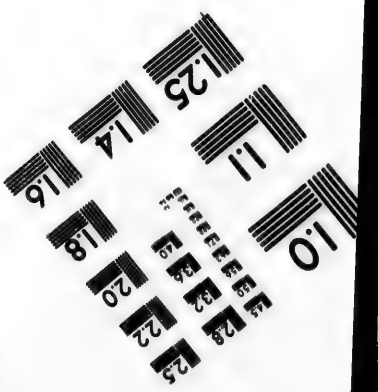

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is Ekerolforde, which is a well inhabited and flourishing place, being almost surrounded with water and situated on the same bay as Kiel is, so that its harbour is both capacious and sufficiently deep. Formerly it was a pretty large staple, but its navigation seems now to be on the decline. The streets are broad, and planted with rows of trees. The town has suffered very much by fire.

Sleswick is 15 miles N. of Rendsborg, and 25 miles N. W. of Kiel. It is the capital of the duchy of Sleswick, and takes its name from being situated on the Weick or gulph of Sley. The duchy of Sleswick is about eighty miles long and forty-four broad, having Jutland on the N. the Baltic on the E. Holstein on the S. and the German Ocean on the W. It is watered by several rivers, which in most places render it beautiful and fertile. The eastern parts of the duchy lie considerably higher than the western; and in the latter particularly are many extensive and fruitful plains, which produce great quantities of all kinds of grain. The nobility of Sleswick are very rich, and the common people enjoy more independence than in any other of the Danish dominions. The cities in this duchy have their own magistrates, altogether independent of those in the country; but the governor-general for the time being is also president or chief judge in all the separate towns. The town of Sleswick was formerly a place of great trade, where merchants from all the ports of Europe were to be found. Many are the revolutions it has undergone, and various the efforts it has made to overcome its numerous misfortunes. It has more than once been plundered and ravaged by the sword; and in 1447 was entirely consumed by a dreadful conflagration. It recovered, however, in part at least, from all these disasters, and was in a flourishing condition till the removal of the ducal court, in the beginning of the last century; so that even at the present day many of its principal buildings are destitute of inhabitants. Its streets appear desolate, its markets forsaken, and its shipping annihilated. In former times a causeway, leading from the west end of the quay to several places, lay on the south side of the town, and was defended by the strong castle of Jurgenburg, which is now in ruins. At the end of this mole, which is now only to be seen at low water, stood the castle on the main land, where Abel, when duke of Sleswick, resided; who, on ascending the throne by the murder of his brother, bestowed it on the Augustine monks, by whom was converted into a convent, and stood where the orphan house now stands.

From Sleswick to Flensborg the distance 21 miles N. Flensborg is a large and handsom town, situated at the bottom of the bay of Flen which is twenty-four miles inland from th Baltic. It is a fine haven, where ships of th greatest burden may ride with the most complet safety, and even come up to the warehouses. O the land side it is encompassed with mountains upon one of which, near the suburbs, is a castl commanding the bay on that side. Here ar four churches. The town of Flensborg is th capital of a bailiwic called Angelen or Engelan which is the country of the English Saxons, o Angles, who came over into Britain, and gav it the name of England.

Tonder is 24 miles W. by N. of Sleswick, an is an inland town on the river Widaw, whic had formerly a harbour that has been for sever years choaked up; but it is defended by a sma fort.

Hadersley, or Hadersleben, is a sea-port tow of Sleswick, 32 miles N. of Sleswick. It watered on the W. by the lake of Haderslebe upon the E. by the gulph of Haderslebfiord which is so shallow near the town, that ships o burden are obliged to anchor two miles o This gulf, into which the lake empties itself, very narrow, and falls into the Baltic about te miles E. of the town. Hadersleben is well buil its streets being broad, and its houses uniform It had formerly a castle, which stood on the to of a neighbouring hill, but has been long sinc demolished, and a new one built, called Han burg, which stands between the lake and gu above mentioned. On the W. of this cast stands the new town, which is separated fro the old one by a small stream, and is better bui than the old town. The country in its vicinit abounds with corn-fields, and excellent pasture which, with the fish caught in the lake an neighbouring gulf, render this a very flourishin place. This place gave birth to king Freder II. in 1534, and Frederic III. in 1609. Hader leben is the capital of a considerable prefector ship, which is divided into the seven districts o Hadersleberharde, Tusterupharde, Gramharde Froesharde, Kalshinharde, Giddingharde, an Northerangstorharde.

Colding, or Kolding, is a small town in th bailiwi

bailiwic of Koldinghuus, and diocese of Ripen, 19 miles N. of Hadersleben. It stands on the river Truethis, or Koldinger-aue, which falls into a bay that extends itself from the Little Belt. It lies low, being situated between two mountains; is a pretty old place; has a parish church, a rich hospital with a church of its own, a Latin school handsomely endowed, and a harbour, which by the neglect of its inhabitants is now choaked up; so that ships of small burden only can at present resort to it. On the N. W. side of the town stands on an eminence the castle of Koldinghuus, anciently called Oernsborg, *i. e.* Eagle Castle. Among its greatest curiosities is the giant tower, built by Christian IV. which is flat at top, and surrounded with a stone balcony, or range, at the four corners of which is a stone image seven feet high. This castle has a church of its own. The air here is reckoned very fine and healthy, wherefore Christian III. made it his usual residence, and here he died in 1559*.

Aarhuus is 50 miles N. E. of Colding, and 43 miles S. E. of Wiburg. It is the capital of a bishopric of the same name, which is 15 geographical miles in length and between eight and nine in breadth. This bishopric is the best of all the Jutland dioceses: the soil is uncommonly fruitful, and vast quantities of corn are annually exported. Here are many navigable bays, lakes abounding with fish, good rivers and streams, and spacious forests; the diocese contains about seventy seats of the principal nobility. The town of Aarhuus lies low, in a beautiful plain between the sea, and an inland lake, from which last the water is conveyed, by means of a pretty broad canal, through the town. It is entirely open, large, and populous; has two market places, two principal churches, an university, a palace for the bishop, a free cathedral school of six classes, and a well-endowed hospital. The cathedral church is a handsome building, begun in the year 1201, and contains many beautiful monuments. The inhabitants of this city carry on a good trade. The harbour, which is situated at the mouth of the river Gude, is safe and commodious, but not remarkably large; and, at certain seasons, the water in it is not of a sufficient depth for large vessels. At this place is the usual ferry to Kallundburg in Zealand.

The town of Wiburg is 43 miles N. W. of Aarhuus, and 38 S. W. of Alborg. Wiburg is a considerable town, is the capital of the bishopric of Wiburg, and is remarkable for being the seat of the chief court of justice in Jutland. The hall where the council assembles has the archives of the country, which escaped the devastation occasioned by the dreadful fire that happened in 1726, and which burnt the cathedral church, that of the Black Friers, the town house, and the bishop's palace; but they have all been rebuilt more magnificently than before. It is seated on the lake Weter, on a kind of peninsula, at the southern extremity of the lake.

Alborg, or Aalborg, is 38 miles N. by E. of Wiburg, and 65 N. by W. of Aarhuus. It is the capital of a bishopric of the same name. It is called Aalborg, or Eal-town, from the vast quantities of eels which are taken there. It is seated on a branch of the Lymfiord lake, about 20 miles from the sea. Here is an exchange for merchants, and a safe and deep harbour. The inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in herrings and corn, and have several good manufactories of guns, pistols, saddles, and gloves.

The island of Funen, which is one of the Danish islands, has the Great Belt on the E. the Baltic on the S. the Little Belt on the W. which separates it from Jutland and Sleswick in Denmark Proper, and the small island of Samsoe on the N. This is the most fruitful country belonging to Denmark, having a good and well cultivated soil. It consists of small and very fertile hills, some of them woody, and is in general well peopled. From Funen are exported great quantities of corn, large herds of black cattle, and abundance of hogs. This is an appendage to the king of Denmark's eldest son, and its government is the most considerable in Denmark. Odensee, which is 85 miles W. by S. of Copenhagen, is the capital of Funen, and is the see of a bishop. Its cathedral church is a remarkable building. The Danish language is spoken here in its greatest purity; and in 1538 a diet was held at this place, in which the reformation of this kingdom was settled.

* Colding is principally remarkable for the toll paid at the bridge over the Aue, for all foreign goods carried in carriages that way; also for all black cattle and horses that go into the duchy of Sleswick or farther. The number of oxen alone, which are annually driven through Colding, is computed at forty thousand head, for each of which a rix dollar is always exacted.

settled. There are four churches in this town, and the best beer in Denmark is brewed here.

On the sea coast of the isle of Funen is Faaborg, which is 28 miles S. W. of Odensee: it lies in a low and fruitful spot, and its inhabitants carry on a good trade in corn and all sorts of provisions, but the harbour is rather indifferent. Here is a pretty good hospital. The town has suffered much from accidental fires, and from burning and plundering by the enemy, particularly the Swedes. Not far from this town, at the church of Horne, is a ferry to the isle of Alsen; and in the bay near the town are several small islands.

Alsen is another island belonging to Denmark, of which the principal town is Sonderberg, which is about 18 miles E. by N. of Flensborg. Alsen belongs to the duchy of Sleswick, and is near the main land, from which it is separated by a narrow strait called Alsensund. This island is upwards of 12 miles in length and about six broad. It is populous and fruitful, being a rich and pleasant spot, having an exuberance of all sorts of grain, wheat alone excepted. It produces excellent fruit and vegetables; and has no want of woods, in which wild game of various kinds are to be met with. Here are several fresh water lakes, which afford abundance of fish. The island of Alsen is divided into the Suder and the Norder-Harde, or the jurisdictions of Sonderburg and Norburg.

The island of Langeland, which receives its name from its long form, is situated in the Great Belt, S. E. of Funen, and W. of Laaland: it is 32 miles long, and about six miles where broadest. The soil is fruitful throughout, abounding in wheat, rye, and barley, of which great quantities are annually exported. It is under the jurisdiction of the governor of Funen, and contains but one royal bailiwic, namely, Tranekia, to which belong Norre and Sonderherred; and in each division are seven parishes. Here is also a fort called Tranekiar, where is kept a strong garrison. Round this island are three smaller ones, viz. Omme, Agger, and Echolm. The principal town in this island is Budkioping, which is rather a small place.

Laalande is another island belonging to Denmark, which has Langeland on the W. Falster on the E. and Zealand on the N. E. This island is all low ground, which its name imports. Its greatest extent from S. E. to N. W. is 30 miles, and its greatest breadth from N. to S. is about 15 miles. It produces all sorts of corn in abundance, particularly wheat, with which it supplies Copenhagen and other places in the kingdom. This island is divided into three districts or bailiwics, viz. those of Halsted, Aalholm, and Marieboe-Kloster. The inhabitants breed but few cattle, because they find husbandry more advantageous; yet from the soil lying low and damp, the air is rather unhealthy. Of all the inhabitants here, the ministers are mostly in the easiest circumstances, on account of their plentiful income. About the middle of this island there is a lake, on the North of which lay the nunnery of Mariеboe. Besides noblemen's seats, here are four towns and a village, viz. Naskow, Rodbye, Marieboe, Nystadt, and Saxkiobing.

The island of Falster lies east of Laalande, from which it is separated by a narrow strait, and is in the diocese of Funen. The soil is of the same nature as that of Laalande. It is about twenty miles long, and its mean breadth about nine. It has been by some writers called the orchard of Denmark, from the vast quantities of fruit which it produces; and it abounds with wild game. The whole of this island belongs to the queen dowager, and is divided into two districts, viz. the southern, consisting of thirteen parishes, and the northern, which contains fifteen. Its chief place is Nycoping, or Nykiobing, or Stobbekiobing, which is situated 60 miles S. by W. of Copenhagen, and is defended by a strong fort.

The island of Seeland, Zeeland, or Zealand, is the largest and most fertile island of the Baltic Sea, and is the seat of the Danish government. On the east it has the Sund, which separates it from Sweden. Its greatest length from N. to S. is about seventy miles, and its mean breadth, from E. to W. is about fifty miles. The land here is pretty low, and has but few hills, though there are many woods and forests which take up almost a fourth part of the island, which abounds with wild game, excellent pasture, and plenty of grain, especially barley, oats and rye. Round the coast are several deep bays, some of which run many miles inland. These and the adjacent sea are exuberant in fish, as are the fresh water lakes and rivers which wash the island. Although the air of Seeland is thick and foggy

foggy, yet, it is observed, that many persons attain to a great age. On the coast are several safe and commodious harbours, particularly Copenhagen, Callundborg, &c.

Copenhagen, called in old writings Hafnia, is the capital of Seeland, and is the metropolis of Denmark. Its name, Copenhagen, literally signifies the Merchants' Port, and seems to have originated from the convenience and utility of its harbour, which is equally beautiful and capacious. The city is situated upon a fine bay of the Baltic Sea, near the strait called the Sund, on the eastern shore of the island. Copenhagen was originally but a mean little village of fishermen's huts, which, by the assistance of the bishops of Roeschilde, gradually rose to magnitude and consequence. In process of time it was constituted a city, and made the royal seat of the Danish sovereigns. The houses were formerly of wood, but in the year 1728 almost the whole were reduced to ashes by fire; and since that time they have been more sumptuously and securely built of free stone. The present superb palace was then erected at an immense expence, and the town embellished with various elegant houses for the nobility, magnificent churches, and some stately public edifices. The exchange of the East India Company, their military repository, the king's stables, the college, the magazine of provisions, the orphan house, the opera house, and the martial academy, are all structures planned and finished with taste and elegance.

The citadel is a regular fort defended by five regular bastions, a double ditch full of water, and several advanced works. The arsenal is furnished with naval stores sufficient for the equipment of no inconsiderable armament; it exceeds that of Venice, and the royal fleet usually lies here. The harbour is surrounded by the fortifications of the town; and the entrance is so narrow that only one ship can enter at a time. In the nighttime this entrance is shut up by a strong boom laid across. The passage is defended on one side by the cannon of the citadel, and on the other by a strong block house, well mounted with heavy artillery. The whole haven is capable of containing five hundred sail of large ships. It is enclosed by a wooden gallery, close to which every ship has her appointed station; a circumstance that adds greatly to the beauty and conveniency of the scene, than which nothing can be more rich and regular, when a number of shipping happen to be in the port. The harbour owes most of its excellence to the little island of Amack, which diverts the waves, and shelters it from the surge of the sea. Here stands that lofty range of houses known by the name of the New Town. The whole city is about five miles in circumference, and from the space it occupies in the bottom of a spacious bay, which embraces the sea in the form of an amphitheatre, and the declivity of the situation, exhibiting as it were in detail all the natural and artificial beauties of the place, it makes a most magnificent appearance at a distance. This metropolis contains four royal castles; ten parish, and nine other churches; a considerable number of public and private palaces; above four thousand burgher's houses, several of which contain ten or more families; and the whole number of inhabitants are estimated at one hundred thousand. The city is generally divided into three parts; Old Copenhagen, New Copenhagen, and Christianshafen. Copenhagen is one of the most magnificent, beautiful, and elegant cities in Europe. Between Copenhagen and that part called Christianshafen there is a lofty pillar erected in the middle of the water, on which is a statue representing a naked woman with a swan. The royal palace, called Rosenburg, is a small edifice, and is built in the semi-gothic taste. It is, however, a grand structure, and is surrounded by a ditch and sort of fortification. The adjoining gardens are extensive, and are embellished with a profusion of ornaments. In summer they serve the inhabitants for a public pleasure walk. The new palace was built by Christian VI. and though it cost six millions of dollars, yet the inscription over the grand portal declares, that the sovereign erected it from the ordinary revenues of the crown, without laying any additional taxes or imposts on his subjects. Beside the supreme and other colleges, there are in this capital several literary societies, academies for painting and drawing, the surgeons' theatre, trading companies, the bank, insurance offices, and a great many manufactories, in which silk and woollen stuffs, cloths, linen, gold and silver lace, porcelain, &c. are made; and the port is frequented by a vast number of ships annually. The tower of Trinity Church is used as an

astronomical observatory: it is round, one hundred and fifteen feet high, and fifty-four feet in diameter: it is flat at the top, and is surrounded by an iron balustrade. The ascent to this tower is spiral, and so spacious and easy, that a coach and horses may be drove up and down with ease; which experiment was tried by Peter the Great, czar of Russia, in 1716.

In the history of this city, it is observed, that from a mean fishing place in the eleventh century, it rose to a city in 1254, and then continued an episcopal see till 1443, in which year it became the residence of the kings of Denmark, and has remained such till the present time. In 1360 and 1372 it was taken and plundered by the Hanse towns, and in the years 1306, 1428, 1523, 1535, 1658, and 1659, it was closely besieged. The plague visited it eight times, between 1546 and 1711, and swept away a great number of its inhabitants. In 1626 it was considerably enlarged, and in 1700 it was bombarded by the British, Dutch, and Swedish fleets. The fire in 1728, alluded to above, broke out on the 20th of October, and in forty-eight hours destroyed twenty-four streets, &c. sixteen hundred and fifty houses, five churches, the university, the council house, and several public buildings: The anniversary of this accident is kept in a religious manner.

In August, 1807, the English government fitted out a large fleet and a body of thirty thousand land forces, which were sent to the isle of Seeland, with a view to compel the Danes to enter into the measures of the English, and to force them to join them in hostilities against the French; but the Danish government resolutely refused to yield to the terms of accommodation proposed by the English. In consequence of this refusal to the menaces of the British government, the English army of thirty thousand men were landed, and the city of Copenhagen was invested on the 17th of that month; but the Danes did not allow the progress of the British army without interruption, although no serious conflict took place: and, after a most strenuous defence on the part of the Danes, the town and citadel of Copenhagen surrendered, on articles of capitulation*, the 7th of September†.

Roeschilde is 22 miles W. of Copenhagen and 35 miles S. W. of Elsineur. It is a very ancient, and was once a very considerable city of Seeland: it was indeed formerly the capital, and the royal residence of the kings of Denmark. Its bishops, as has been mentioned above, were the means of bringing Copenhagen into repute, and their munificence to that place paved the way for the ruin of Roeschilde; insomuch that since Copenhagen became the metropolis, and the removal of the episcopal see thither also, it has rapidly gone to decay. It stands at the bottom of Isefiord Bay, but that part of it is now so choaked up with sand, that Roeschilde has but little trade. Here were once twenty-seven churches, but they are now reduced to two only.

Elsineur, or Elsinore, is 35 miles N. E. of Roeschilde, and 25 miles N. of Copenhagen, on that strait of the sea called the Sound. This place, next to the capital, is the richest and most elegant town in the island of Seeland. It has two churches and a grammar school, where

* By the third article of capitulation it was agreed, that "the ships and vessels of war of every description, with all the naval stores belonging to his Danish majesty, shall be delivered into the charge of such persons as shall be appointed by the commander in chief of his Britannic majesty's forces."

† Besides getting possession of the town and citadel of Copenhagen, the dock-yards, storehouses, &c. &c. the English took eighteen ships of the line, *viz.* Christian the Seventh, 96 guns, built in 1803; Neptune, 84 guns, built in 1789; Waldemaar, 84 guns, built in 1798; Princess Sophia Frederica, 74 guns, built in 1775; Justice, 74 guns, built in 1777; Heir Apparent Frederic, 74 guns, built in 1782; Crown Prince Frederic, 74 guns, built in 1781; Fuen, 74 guns, built in 1787; Oden, 74 guns, built in 1788; Three Crowns, 74 guns, built in 1789; Skiold, 74 guns, built in 1792; Crown Princess Maria, 74 guns, built in 1794; Dannemark, 74 guns, built in 1794; Norway, 74 guns, built in 1800; Princess Carolina, 74 guns, built in 1805; Detmarsken, 64 guns, built in 1780, Conqueror, 64 guns, built in 1795; and Mars, 64 guns, built in 1784.—Fifteen frigates, *viz.* Pearl, 44 guns; Housewife, 44 guns; Liberty, 44 guns; Iris, 44 guns; Rota, 44 guns; Venus, 44 guns; Nyade, 36 guns; Triton, 28 guns; Frederigstein, 28 guns; Little Belt, 24 guns; St. Thomas, 22 guns; Fylla, 24 guns; Elbe, 24 guns; Eyderen, 20 guns; and Gluckstadt, 20 guns.—Six brigs, *viz.* Sarpe, 18 guns; Glommen, 18 guns; Nor Elven, 18 guns; Mercure, 18 guns; Courier, 14 guns; and the Flying Fish.—And twenty-five gun boats.—All this was atchieved, *viz.* the taking of Copenhagen, (from its in vesture on the 17th of August till its surrender on the 7th of September,) and the fleet above stated, with the loss (if any credence is to be given to the official documents signed Cathcart) of thirty-nine of the military killed, and one hundred and forty-three wounded only!!! *Gazette Extraordinary of Sept. 16, 1807.*

great many poor scholars are educated and maintained gratis. Here is also a good hospital, and likewise the king's custom house. The inhabitants of Elsineur carry on a considerable trade, and it is famous both on account of its being the place by which the Swedes and Norwegians usually pass into Denmark, and for the toll which is paid here by every ship that sails through the Sound. The celebrated castle of Cronberg stands an the north side of Elsineur, on the narrowest part of the entrance into the Baltic, and was certainly intended to command the mouth of the Sound, which is here not more than half a mile wide. This is one of the best and strongest fortresses in Denmark, and is in excellent condition. It is a fine Gothic chateau, and was built by Christian IV. and was often made the seat of the royal residence. It is here that the ships which enter the Baltic are obliged to come to and pay toll. It is built in the form of a square, and within is a fine quadrangle. The turrets at the corners are very superb, and in the most improved style of Gothic architecture*. There is a little hunting seat or palace about a quarter of a mile from Elsineur, whither the king makes excursions frequently for a few hours in the summer. Nothing worth seeing distinguishes the building, but the prospect from the roof is beautiful beyond description. It looks down on the town of Elsineur and the castle of Cronberg, and commands beyond these a view of the Sound and the coast of Sweden to a great distance.

Callundborg, or Calenberg, formerly called Herwig, is a good town, and stands at the bottom of a bay which opens in the Great Belt. It is 38 miles W. of Roeschilde, and 60 miles W. of Copenhagen. Originally this town consisted of a few fishermen's huts, but it experienced the bounty of the bishops of Roeschilde, who made it a city, and beautified it with a castle, a church, and other public buildings. At this place the gulph forms a safe and commodious harbour, by which means the town enjoys a pretty good trade.

SECTION II.

General Description of Norway; its Length and Breadth, Government, Mountains, Cataracts, Lakes, Forests, Climate, Air, Soil, Mines, Language, and Religion—The principal Towns of Norway described.

THE country of Norway is about a thousand miles in length, from Lindesnaes (the Naze) in the South, to North Cape at the extremity of Finmark in the North; and its breadth, from the frontiers of Sweden Westward to Cape Statt, is about two hundred and thirty; but the country grows gradually narrower towards the North, insomuch that in some places it does not exceed sixty miles. On the South it is bounded by the Skager-Rack, or Categat, the entrance into the Baltic; on the east it is separated from Sweden by a long chain of mountains; and on the West and North it is washed by the German Ocean or North Sea. The coast of Norway extends above fourteen hundred miles, and is studded with an immense number of islands, which afford habitation to a vast quantity of fishermen and pilots, and pasture for a few cattle. These islands form an infinite number of narrow channels, and a natural barrier of rocks, which renders Norway inaccessible to the naval power of its enemies. If any attempt of this kind were made it would be extremely hazardous, as the shore is bold, steep, and impending; so that close to the rocks, the depth of the sea amounts to one, two, or three hundred fathoms. The perils of the North Sea are moreover increased by sudden storms, sunken rocks, violent currents, and dreadful whirlpools. The most remarkable vortex on this coast is called Moskoe-strom, from the small island Moskoe, belonging to the district of Lofoden, in the province of Nordland. Norway

* The late unfortunate queen Matilda, sister to George the Third, king of Great Britain, was confined for some time in this castle as a state prisoner. She was brought here on the 17th of January, 1772, when the royal apartments were by no means fit for her reception; the colonel commandant therefore, with equal humanity and politeness, resigned his own to her majesty.

is divided into the four governments of Aggerhuus, Bergen, Drontheim, and Wardhuus. The great chain of Norway mountains, running from North to South, is called indifferently Rudfield, Sudefield, Skarsfield, and Scoreberg. The height and breadth of this extensive chain likewise vary in different parts. To pass the mountain Hardanger, a person must travel about seventy English miles, whereas Filefield is about fifty over. This last mountain rises about two miles and a half in perpendicular height; but Dofrefield is reckoned the highest mountain in Europe. The river Drivane winds along the side of it in a serpentine form, so as to be met nine times by those who travel the winter road to the other side of the chain. The bridges are thrown over roaring cataracts, and are but indifferently fastened to the steep rocks on either side; so that the whole exhibits a very dreadful appearance, sufficient to deter the traveller from hazarding such a dangerous passage: for which reason people generally prefer the road over Filefield, which is much more tedious. This, however, is the post road for the king's carriages. The way is distinguished by posts fixed at the distance of two hundred paces from each other, that in snowy or dark weather the traveller may not be bewildered. For the convenience of resting and refreshment, there are two mountain stoves or houses, maintained at the expence of the public, and furnished with fire, light, and kitchen utensils. Nothing can be more dreary and dismal than these mountains, which are covered with eternal snow, and where neither house, tree, nor living creature is to be seen, but here and there a solitary rein-deer, and perchance a few wandering Laplanders. Norway abounds with fresh water lakes; the principal of which are, Rysvand in Nordland, Snaasen, Selboe, Great and Little Mioes, Slirovand, Sperdille, Rand, Vestn. Saren, Modum, Lund, Norsoe, Huidsoe, Farisvand, and Oeyevand: all these are well stocked with fish, and are navigable for large vessels. Wars have been formerly carried on upon these inland seas, in some of which are small floating islands, or parcels of earth with trees on them, separated from the mainland, and probably preserved in compact masses by the roots of trees, shrubs, and grass, interwoven in the soil*. Of all the waterfalls in Norway, that of Sarp is the most dangerous for its height and rapidity. The current drives seventeen mills, and roars with such violence, that the water, being dashed and commuted among the rocks, rises in the form of rain, where a beautiful rainbow may be always seen when the sun shines. In ancient times this cataract was made use of for the execution of traitors and other malefactors; they were thrown down alive, that they might be dashed in pieces on the points of the rocks. Great part of Norway is covered with forests of wood, which constitute the principal article of commerce in this country. They chiefly consist of fir and pine, for which great sums are received from foreigners, who export an immense number of masts, beams, planks, and boards.

The climate of Norway is various in different parts of the kingdom. At Bergen the winter is so moderate, that the seas are always open and practicable both to mariners and fishermen, except in creeks and bays, that reach far into the country towards Filefield, when the keen N. E. wind blows from the land. On the E. side of Norway, from the frontiers of Sweden to Filefield, the cold generally sets in about the middle of October with great severity, and lasts till the middle of April; during which interval the waters are frozen to a very considerable thickness, and the face of the country is covered with snow†. The cold is still more intense in that part of Norway called Finmark, situated in the frigid zone, near the polar circle. But if the winter is generally cold, the summer is often excessively hot in Norway. The rays of the sun

* In 1702 the seat of the family of Borge, near Fredericstadt, being a noble edifice, with lofty towers and battlements, suddenly sunk into an abyss a hundred fathoms deep, which was instantly filled by a piece of water three hundred ells in length, and about half as broad.

† In the year 1719, seven hundred Swedes, who intended to attack Drontheim, perished in the snow on the mountains of Rudenor Tydel, which separates Jemptland in Sweden from the diocese of Drontheim in Norway. A company of two hundred Norwegian sledge men, under Major Emahus, found them all frozen to death on the ridge of the mountain, where they had been surprised by a storm accompanied with snow, hail, and extreme cold. Some of these unhappy victims appeared sitting, some lying, and others kneeling in a posture of praying. They had cut in pieces their muskets, and burned the little wood they afforded. The generals Labarre and Zoega lost their lives; and of the whole corps, consisting originally of ten thousand men, no more than two thousand five hundred survived this dreadful catastrophe.

reverberated from the sides of the mountains, as to render the weather close and sultry in the vallies; besides the sun's absence below the horizon is so short, that the atmosphere and mountains have not time to cool. The heat is so great that vegetation is remarkably quick. Barley is sown, grows, ripens, and is reaped in the space of six weeks or two months. The longest day at Bergen consists of nineteen hours, the sun rising at half an hour after two and setting a half after nine. The shortest day does not exceed six hours; for the sun rises at nine in the morning, and sets at three in the afternoon. In the beginning of the year the day-light increases with remarkable celerity; and, at the approach of winter, decreases in the same proportion. In summer one may read and write at midnight by the light of the sky. In the district of Tromesen, at the extremity of Norway, the sun is continually in view at midsummer. The air of Norway is generally pure and salubrious. On the sea coast, indeed, it is rendered moist by vapours and exhalations; but in the midland parts of the country, towards the mountains, the climate is so dry, that meal may be kept for many years, without being worm-eaten or damaged in the least. The inhabitants have no idea of sickness, except what is occasioned by excesses. The winds that chiefly prevail on the western coast are those that blow from the S. whereas on the other side of Filefeld, the winds that produce and continue the hard frosts are always northerly. In the summer, there is a kind of regular trade-wind on the coast of Bergen. In the forenoon the sea begins to be cooled with a westerly breeze, which continues till midnight. Then the land-breeze begins from the E. and blows till about nine in the morning. The coast is likewise subject to sudden squalls and storms. Hurricanes sometimes rise at sea, and in these latitudes the phenomenon called a water-spout is not uncommon. The fresh water of Norway is not very light or pure. The soil varies in different places according to the situation of rock or valley. The mountains here, as in every other country, are bare and barren; but the earth washed down from them by the rains, enriches and fertilizes the vallies. There is also clay found in different parts of this kingdom, of which the inhabitants begin to make earthen ware. In a cold country like Norway, roughened with rocks and mountains, interspersed with bogs, and covered with forests, we cannot expect to find agriculture in perfection. The ploughed lands, in respect to mountains, woods, meadows, and wastes, do not exceed the proportion of one to eighty; so that the whole country does not produce corn sufficient to maintain above half the number of its inhabitants. The kingdom is moreover visited by some unfavourable years, in which the sun seems to have lost his genial power; the vegetables are stunted, the trees bud and bloom, yet bear no fruit, and the grain, though it rises, will yet produce nothing but empty ears and straw. This calamity, however, rarely occurs; and, in general, the cultivated parts of Norway yield plentiful crops of excellent rye, barley, and oats. Pease are likewise propagated in this country, together with wheat, buck-wheat, hops, hemp, and flax, but not to any considerable advantage. The meadows are well stored with pasturage for sheep and cattle, and the fields are productive of those vegetables which are common in other northern countries. Within these eighty years the people of Norway have bestowed some attention on the culture of gardens, which in former times was so neglected, that cities and towns were supplied with leeks, cabbage, and roots, from England and Holland. At present, however, the Norwegians raise their own culinary and garden roots and vegetables, which thrive there as well as in any other country. The scurvy being a disease that prevails along the sea coast, nature has scattered upon it a variety of herbs, efficacious in the cure of that distemper, particularly a plant called erich's-grass, that grows in great plenty on the island of Northland; from whence the people of the Continent fetch away boat-loads of it to be preserved in barrels, as a succedaneum for cabbage. The common fruit trees thrive tolerably well in Norway, the inhabitants of which have plenty of cherries, apples, and pears. Some kinds of plums attain maturity, which is seldom the case with grapes, apricots, and peaches. But even the apples and pears that ripen here are summer fruits; that which grows till the winter seldom coming to perfection. Of the trees that grow wild in Norway, the principal are the fir and the pine. The first yields an annual revenue of a million of rix dollars, if we include the advantages resulting from the saw-mills and the masts, one of which

last has been known to sell for two hundred rix dollars. The red fir tree which grows on the mountains, is so rich in turpentine, as to be almost incorruptible. Even a hundred years after the trunk of the fir tree has been cut down, the peasants burn the roots for tar, which is a very profitable commodity. In the fens, the resin of the fir tree is by nature transformed into a substance which may be called Norway frankincense. Norway likewise produces some forests of oak, which is found to be excellent for ship building. Hazles grow here in such abundance, that a hundred tons of the nuts are annually exported from Bergen alone. A great diversity of stones is found in Norway, some of which are of a surprising figure. Several mountains consist chiefly of a brown pebble, which decays with age. In some places the grey and black pebbles are intermixed with iron, copper, black lead, silver, and gold.

In Norway are inexhaustible quarries of excellent marble. Gold has formerly been found in a small quantity in the diocese of Christiansand, and coined into ducats. There is at present a very considerable silver mine wrought at Kongsburg on the account and risk of his Danish majesty: the ore is exceedingly rich, but interrupted in such a manner that the vein is often lost. Many masses of pure silver have been found; and among the rest, one piece weighing five hundred and sixty pounds, preserved in the royal museum at Copenhagen. Such is the richness of these mines, that the annual produce amounts in value to a ton and a half in gold. About five thousand people are daily employed, and earn their subsistence, in those stupendous works. Other silver mines are prosecuted at Jarlesberg, but not to the same advantage; and here the ore is mixed with lead and copper. In many parts of this country copper-mines have been discovered; but the principal, and perhaps the richest in all Europe, is at Raraas about a hundred English miles from Dronthiem. This work yields annually about eleven hundred shippounds of pure copper, the foundries belonging to it consume yearly about ten thousand lasts of coals, and five hundred fathoms of wood. The next in importance is the copper work at Lykkon, about 20 miles from Drontheim. A third mine is carried on at Indset or Quickne, at the distance of 30 miles from the same place; and here they precipitate the copper from its menstruum, by means of iron. There is a fourth copper-work at Silboe, about 30 miles distant from Drontheim, although the least considerable of the four. Other copper-mines of less note are worked in different parts of the kingdom. Iron is still in greater plenty, and was the first metal wrought in this country. Many hundred thousand quintals are annually exported, chiefly in bars, and part of it in stoves, pots, kettles, and cannon; the national profit arising from this metal is estimated at about three hundred thousand rix dollars. There is a species, called moor iron, found in large lumps among the morasses of this the peasants make their own domestic tools and utensils, such as knives, scythes, and axes. The lead mixed in the silver ore is an article of small importance in Norway; yet some mines of this metal have been lately opened in the district of Soloer, by the proprietors of the copper-work at Oudal. A vitriol work has been begun near Kongsburg: the mines yield great plenty of sulphur; which, however, the Norwegians will not take the trouble to melt and depurate, because immense quantities are found at a cheaper rate in the island of Iceland. Alum is found between the slate-flakes near Christiana in such plenty, that works have been set up for refining this mineral, though they have not yet brought it to any degree of transparency. His Danish majesty has established salt works in the peninsula of Valoe, about six English miles from Tonsberg, where this mineral is extracted in large quantities from the sea water. Many Danish, English, Scotch, Dutch, and German families have settled in Norway, and now form no inconsiderable part of the trading people; but the original inhabitants are the descendants of those ferocious Normanni, who harassed almost all the coasts of Europe with piratical armaments in the eighth, ninth, and tenth centuries. They speak the same language as that which is used in Denmark, though their original tongue is the dialect now spoken in Iceland. They profess the Lutheran religion, under an archbishop established at Drontheim, with four suffragans; namely, of Bergen, Staffaner, Hammer, and Christiana. By the union of Calmar the two kingdoms of Norway and Denmark were united under one monarch, the viceroy resides at the capital, and presides in the supreme court, to which

which appeals are made from the subordinate courts of judicature. The Norwegians are generally well formed, tall, sturdy, and robust, brave, hardy, honest, hospitable, and ingenious; but savage, rash, quarrelsome, and litigious. The peasants never employ any handicraftsmen for necessaries to themselves and families. The Norwegians have evinced their valour and fidelity in a thousand different instances. The country was always distracted by intestine quarrels, which raged from generation to generation. Even the farmers stand upon their punctilios, and challenge one another to single combat with their knives. On such occasions they hook themselves together by their belts and fight until one of them is killed or mortally wounded. The nobility and merchants of Norway fare sumptuously: but the peasant lives with the utmost temperance and frugality, except at festivals: his common bread is made of oatmeal, rolled into broad thin cakes, like those used in Scotland. In times of scarcity, they boil, dry, and grind the bark of the fir-tree into a kind of flour which they mix with oatmeal: the bark of the elm-tree is used in the same manner.

Christiansand is the capital of the diocese of the same name in Norway, where the diocesan chapman and bishop have their residence. It takes its name from Christian IV. king of Denmark, and the large sandy beach upon which it is built. It is 240 miles N. W. from Copenhagen, and 55 miles N. W. from Runberg, the nearest town to it, on the opposite side of the Skager Rack, in Denmark Proper. The town is built in a quadrangular form, has broad and regular streets, good houses, and a town bailiff or magistrate. It is commodiously situated, for on three sides it is surrounded with fresh and salt water, and on the fourth side with fields and partly mountains. In 1734 the church with the greater part of the town was burnt by an accidental fire, but it it was shortly after rebuilt.

Stavanger is a town on the western coast of Norway, in the government of Christiansand, 70 miles N. W. of Christiansand. It stands on the southern shore of the bay of Bukkefiord, which is very large and full of small islands. This place, though small, is the see of a bishop under the archbishop of Drontheim, and is defended by the strong fortress of Doeswyck, which stands seaward about two miles from the town. The district in which Stavanger is situated is the most temperate and best peopled, perhaps of any in Norway, though it has no other town of note.

Bergen, the largest and most considerable trading place in all Norway, is 410 miles N. W. of Copenhagen, and is situated on the southern shore of a bay which the natives call Waag. On the land-side the town is defended by high mountains; so that no enemy can approach it. On the sea-side the harbour is sufficiently guarded by fortifications. The harbour is strongly defended on the north side by the citadel of Christiansholm, also by Rothouzen, Sverresborg, the Commun and castle, and on the left side by batteries erected upon Nordnas and Fredericksberg, which last is reckoned among the most considerable fortifications about Bergen. Besides, on Syndas is a black house, and a particular round citadel called Christiansberg. All the churches and public buildings, as also most of the burghers houses on the shore, are of stone. Formerly here were thirty churches and convents: but at present in Bergen are only four parish churches, three of which are Danish, and one German; and besides there is a church in the great hospital of St. Jurgen, and a little church in St. James's church-yard. The castle is a considerable building. The large cathedral or high school, was built in 1554 by bishop Petri, and endowed by him; the revenues of which have been since augmented: so that twelve scholars are annually maintained in it. The school for navigation was formerly very numerous, but is now much declined. The Frederick-seminary is also worth notice. The town carries on a large trade in all kinds of fish, coarse goods, hides, fine furs, tallow, fir-timber, and wooden-wares. These commodities are brought hither from the northern countries, and exported abroad; in exchange for which, corn and other goods are returned. The Hanse towns erected a factory or counting-house here; in which the towns of Lubeck, Hamburgh, Rostock, Deventer, Embden, and Bremen, have the greatest share. In the seventeen edifices with warehouses, are forty-two burghers shops, and seventeen factories with shops also; of which the Lubeckers have one, the Hamburghers one, and the Bremeners the other fifteen. They have altogether eight halls for the merchants to assemble and feast in. Three several councils have been holden here; and the

place

place has been five times burnt down; particularly in 1248, when eleven parish-churches were burnt; in 1756, when one thousand six hundred and sixty families were deprived of their dwellings. The number of its inhabitants amounts to about thirty thousand; and besides the magistracy, it has a town-bailiwic. It is the see of a bishop, under the archbishop of Drontheim.

Drontheim, which is 260 miles N. E. of Bergen, and 540 miles N. of Copenhagen, is the principal town of the government of Drontheim, and the see of an archbishop. It is situated on the river Nid, which issues from Tydel, a rising ground, and falls into the lake Selbosea. This town being the capital of Norway, had formerly ten churches and five convents; but at present there are no more than two churches and an hospital church. The cathedral, a magnificent structure, built of beautiful marble, was burnt as far as the choir in 1530; which part is still standing, and is large enough for a church. Here the diocesan amtman and archbishop reside. At Drontheim a considerable trade in timber, fish, coarse goods, and copper from the neighbouring works of Meldal and Roraas, is carried on. Its principal strength lies in the mountain fort of Christianstein, the fortifications on the land side, and Munkholm. This town, being built almost entirely of timber, has suffered considerably by three different conflagrations. In the summer time the inhabitants have no occasion to burn candles, since it is light enough to see without for a considerable time all night, the longest day being about twenty hours and a quarter long. On the E. side of the town is the suburb of Bakkelandat, with a church of its own, and not far from thence is Ladegaard, with another. The abovementioned fort Munkholm stands on a rock in the harbour, defending both it and the town towards the sea. In this fort it is usual to confine state prisoners.

Friderikstein. or Fredericshall, is a well built town of Aggerhuus in Norway, at the southern extremity of the country, on the borders of Sweden, and is situated on a bay of the Skager Rack, by the conveniency of which the inhabitants enjoy a pretty good trade. It is 246 miles N. of Copenhagen in Denmark, is a well fortified place, and is reckoned the key of the kingdom of Norway. Charles XII. of Sweden having set down before it in 1718, was killed as he was viewing the trenches. This town has been frequently burnt, and was totally destroyed by an accidental fire in 1763, when nothing escaped the ravages of the devouring element but a magazine.

At 12 miles N. W. of Friderikstein is Friderikstadt, which is another well fortified place, and is situated on another bay of the Skager Rack. The inhabitants of this town likewise enjoy a good share of commerce. It is 26 miles due W. of the frontiers of Sweden.

Christiana is 50 miles N. of Friderikstadt, and is the principal town of the diocese of its own name or Aggerhuus. It is one of the finest towns in Norway, where the sub-governor, or amtman of the diocese, the supreme juridical court, and the bishop, have their seats. In this town a provincial court is also held. It is large and regularly built, and the inhabitants carry on an extensive trade, its situation being well calculated for that purpose; for it is seated at the bottom of a bay called Christiana Fiord. It has two suburbs, called Waterland and Piveriagen. After Opslo had been burnt down, the town of Christiana was built in 1624, near the castle of Aggerhuus, so as its guns can command all the streets. Its school was made an academy in 1636, with a salary for the master, and foundations for twenty scholars; but on the declension of the academy in 1653, it again received the appellation of a school. The fortress of Aggerhuus is exceedingly strong, but the date of its foundation is not known. In 1310 it was in vain besieged by duke Erich of Sweden; and in 1567 the Swedish army, which closely besieged it for eighteen weeks, was shamefully defeated. In 1717 the like fruitless attempt was made upon it by the Swedes under Charles XII. Before the fortifications stands a cluster of houses called Hovedtangen.

Wardhuys is a sea-port town of Norwegian Lapland, and is seated on an island of the same name. The town is very small, and is situated near the continent. It has an old fort, where the governor resides, and a street consisting of poor cottages. The government of this province extends from the gulph of Ostrasion to Russian Lapland. and comprehends the most northern part of Norway, which produces little or nothing except a few pastures. The longest day at Wardhuys is about two months, and consequently the shortest day is the of the same duration.

SECTION

SECTION III.

General Description of Sweden; its Length and Breadth, Boundaries, Longest Day, Climate, Soil, Roads, Rocks and Islands, Lakes and Rivers, Minerals, Inhabitants, Wealth of Sweden, Language and Religion—Cattle and other Beasts, Trade and Manufactures, Money, Prerogatives of the King—The principal Towns of Sweden described.

THE kingdom of Sweden is one of the northern states of Europe, which comprehends the greater part of the ancient Scandinavia. It has Denmark and Norway on the W. Danish Finland on the N. Russia on the E. and the Baltic Sea on the S. and S. E. It extends about seven hundred miles in length, from Ystad in the S. to Utsjola in the N. and its mean breadth is about five hundred miles. Sweden is situated between the 11th and 32d degree of East longitude, and stretches nearly from the 55th to the 70th degree of North latitude. The longest day in the southern part of Sweden is about seventeen hours fifteen minutes, while at the northern extremity it is somewhat more than two months. At Stockholm, the capital of the kingdom, it is eighteen hours long.

Sweden can scarcely be said to enjoy either spring or autumn; for a severe winter prevails during nine months in the year, and insufferable heat immediately succeeds excessive cold. It freezes all at once in the month of October, without any of those insensible gradations which in other countries usher in the season, and render the variations in the atmosphere more pleasing and tolerable. Nature, however, to alleviate this inconvenience, has given to Sweden a serene sky and a pure air. The almost uninterrmitting heat of the summer's sun produces flowers and fruits in a short time. The tediousness of the long winter nights is mitigated by the evening and morning twilights, which continue in proportion as the sun is more or less removed from the Swedish hemisphere. Night in this country is every where singularly luminous and pleasing. The brightness of the moon, never obscured by clouds, but highly increased by the snow lying on the earth, and frequently by the northern lights, render it as convenient to travel and do business, either within or without doors, by night as by day. The air appears universally clear, keen, and salubrious. Violent storms of wind and rain are seldom known; and the steady piercing N. wind only serves to purify and refresh the atmosphere.

Though Sweden is extremely mountainous, it affords many tracts of even ground fit for agriculture. The soil is in general sandy and swampy, but is not void of fertility. Gothland produces the greatest quantity of grain, as wheat, rye, barley, oats, and pease: but every part of Gothland is not equally fertile. Sweden also affords good pastures, and in the southern parts some orchards which yield fine fruit; but this country is more famous for its mines than the produce of the soil. Nordland, being full of rocks and mountains, produces but little corn: however it has some spots for grazing. Lapland yields still less grain than Nordland; but Finland is in most places extremely fertile, though far from being properly cultivated. The corn in the short, but hot, summers of this climate suddenly grows up and ripens; but it is far from being sufficient for the subsistence of the inhabitants, and therefore several hundred thousand quarters are annually imported from abroad, particularly from Livonia, Pomerania, and Wismar. Mr. Wraxall's account of the soil of this country is superior to any thing yet published. "I think (says he) it may be very justly asserted, that not one twentieth part of this country is in a state to be cultivated. I have travelled near seven hundred English miles in this kingdom, and, except in the province of Scania and some parts of Finland, I did not see twenty acres of good land lying together. The soil in those places where it is capable of being cultivated is tolerably fruitful, though seldom more than eight inches deep. It is easily ploughed, and generally best, where there is least of it, that is, in the little spaces between the rocks; and frequently the barren land, enriched with the ashes of trees which are burnt upon the spot for making of charcoal, produces a plentiful crop; but

but the danger of destroying too much of the woods, which are so necessary for their iron works, has occasioned several laws to be published to limit that custom. It is true, that if agriculture had been properly encouraged, and the farmers permitted to make the most of their farms, they might have grain sufficient for their own consumption; but as things are managed at present, they cannot subsist without great importation of all sorts of grain." Some patriots among the Swedes strenuously endeavour to promote schemes for the encouragement of agriculture and manufactures: and if the success be answerable to the present favourable appearance, the produce of the country will soon be sufficient to support some millions of inhabitants more than it does at present, and that in greater affluence and plenty. In the year 1752, the king granted the new society of agriculture a great deal of waste land for forty or fifty years rent-free, and exempted them from taxes. Hitherto considerable advantages have been made in the forests by cutting down the trees, burning them, and strewing the ashes on the land before it is sown. This sort of ground thus prepared yields a great crop of corn for three years after. The south parts of Sweden produce pretty good fruit and vegetables; but towards the north these gradually become more scarce, they degenerate in flavour and goodness, and in the most northern parts no such vegetables are to be found. In the beginning of the summer the fields in the south are stored with a variety of flowers, and, according to some authors, strawberries, rasberries, and such kind of fruit, grow upon every rock. In dry years melons are brought to perfection in the gardens; but peaches, apricots, and other wall fruit, are extremely scarce: as are also pears, apples, and plums; and those they have are not well tasted. They have, however, cherries of several sorts, and tolerably good. According to Motraye, the gardens about Stockholm are very fine; and, notwithstanding the severity of the winter, their green-houses afford orange, fig, myrtle, and other trees, plants, and flowers, of the most tender nature. Finland produces excellent turnips: and flax, hemp, and tobacco are cultivated to great advantage. Their woods consist chiefly of pines, beech, birch, alder, juniper, and some oaks which are generally straight, tall, and fit for building. But the extensive woods in Sweden become thinner, and daily decline from the immense consumption of wood in making charcoal, tar, pitch, pot-ash, and in burning the land. Oaks in particular grow very scarce.

The highways in Sweden are better than can be imagined, considering the many rugged mountains and rocks in the country. These are in a manner planned and made even by the peasants, so that there are scarcely better roads in any country of Europe; nor can a man any where travel with more security and less expence, for horses are hired for about a penny a mile; but then there are very poor accommodations on the road both for lodging and diet. The easiest and most expeditious method of travelling is in winter, when they make use of sledges, especially in those parts of the country which abound in lakes and rivers; for these being all frozen, they meet with no obstacles in their way, and they can more conveniently carry provisions with them in a sledge than on horseback.

The coasts of Sweden are encompassed with innumerable capes, rocks, and islands; so that the approach to the continent is something dangerous: these which they call Sheers, derive their distinguishing names from the provinces opposite to which they lie, as the Upland Sheers, the Sudermanland Sheers, &c. These islands or rocks lie very near each other and are of different dimensions. Several thousands of them are inhabited by people who live chiefly by fishing.

The lakes of Sweden are very numerous: the large ones amount to seventeen. The number of rivers is likewise considerable: the largest of them are in the Swedish language called Elbe. The principal of these are the Dal-Elbe, in the Vale Country, which is the largest river in Sweden; the Gullspang, which divides West Gothland from Wermeland; the Gotheshe Elbe, or Gothic river, which rises in the lake of Wener, and about forty-five miles before it falls into the Skager Rack forms a cataract, by precipitating itself from a high precipice; the Slang, which divides East Gothland into two parts; and the Motalastrom, which issues from the Wetter-lake, being increased by seventeen smaller rivers, forms a cataract, by falling sixteen feet, and discharges itself into the Baltic. Both the lakes and rivers abound in fish of several kinds; the principal of which are salmon and trout of various

various sorts. Sweden likewise affords medicinal springs of experienced virtue.

This country abounds with minerals and fossils of almost all kinds, as topazes, amethysts, crystals, cornelians, agate, a reddish stone called holstein, coral, a greenish semi-pellucid stone, porphyry, lapis-lazuli, asbestos, load-stone, touch-stone, free-stone, mill-stones, stucco-stones, slate, lime-stones, coarse and white marble, and beautiful petrifactions; also excellent white marble with beautiful green veins, which are sometimes of a dark, and at others of a bright vivid green, finely interwoven; marienglas or isinglass, vitriol, mercury, amianthus, lead ore, cobalt, allum, fullers-earth, petrolium, sulphur, mother of pearl, &c. gold, silver, tin, lead, copper, and iron.

The Swedes are of a tall stature and robust constitution, capable of enduring hardships and fatigues. Where they are not too much exposed to the weather they have good complexions; and their hair, like that of other nations, is inclined to yellow. The women are of a just proportion; they have also fine features, and those who are employed at home are generally fair; but the peasants are accustomed to make their females undergo an equal share in all laborious employments. They go to plough, thresh their corn, row on the water, serve the bricklayers, and carry burthens like men. The inhabitants are, however, far from being sufficient to people the country. There is a remarkable instance of this in one place, where, though not the most northerly part, there are scarcely four thousand seven hundred people to be found in the compass of twelve thousand and seven square miles. The inhabitants of Sweden and Finland have been computed by some well-informed Swedes at about three millions six hundred thousand, reckoning eighteen thousand farms, on which are one million six hundred thousand souls, including the women, children, and servants; and it is said these farms make up above half the number of the inhabitants of the whole kingdom. Indeed, at present some parishes are so extensive, and at the same time so thinly inhabited, that a peasant must travel several Swedish miles to visit his next neighbour; others contain not more than twenty farms, and yet take a tract of land equal to the whole province of Holland, though perhaps such a parish has not so many cottages as there are towns in that flourishing country. The common people subsist by agriculture, working in the mines, grazing, hunting, fishing, and commerce both domestic and foreign.

The principal wealth of Sweden arises from its mines: some gold ore has been discovered, and there are several large silver mines, said to be very rich. The number of the copper mines, hammering-mills, and smelting houses, is considerable. Iron ore is in such plenty that it generally appears on the surface of the earth, and is remarkable for its richness. Indeed the produce of the mines constitute two-thirds of the national revenue. The inhabitants of the N. part of Sweden are strangers to delicacies and live very hardly. They have a sort of bread made of the bauk of birch and pine trees, straw, and roots. Their clothing in winter is suitable to the climate: the rich wear clothes lined with warm furs; instead of which, those who cannot afford them, make their clothes of sheep skins with the wool on; and thus are better provided with clothing to the season, and to their own condition than the people in most other countries. The fashion resembles that of the Germans and other European nations: and like them, they wear in summer such clothes and stuffs as they can produce: the great adorn themselves with lace and embroidery.

The Swedish tongue has such an affinity with the Danish and Norwegian, that the inhabitants of these three kingdoms readily understand each other: but Finland and Lapland have their respective dialects. Christianity was introduced into Sweden in the ninth century, and Gustavas Vasa was among the first princes who countenanced the doctrines of Luther, and gave them a legal establishment. The Swedes are singularly steady in their religious principles and have such an aversion to popery, that castration is the certain fate of every Roman Catholic priest discovered in their country.

In several parts of Sweden the inhabitants subsist by grazing, but in all the northern countries the cattle are small, and the wool of the sheep is very coarse, so that in order to mend the breed, rams are imported from England and Spain. The horses are strong, hardy, and vigorous. The kingdom affords plenty of all kinds of deer, elks, hares, and all sorts of tame and wild fowl: and some parts of Sweden are much infested with lynxes,

lynxes, bears, wolves, foxes, otters, martins, and weasels. All sorts of animals, quadrupeds, birds, and fish are similar in most particulars to those in the various territories of Denmark. The Swedish horses are well known to be much more serviceable in war than those of Germany.

The fresh and salt water fish, which are the same here as in the neighbouring countries, are however taken in such quantities, that their very pikes are pickled and prepared with others for exportation. The train-oil of the seals found in the Gulph of Finland affords a very lucrative branch of commerce. All the northern countries are more or less distinguished by such protuberances, declivities, or inequalities, as are evidently produced by their affinity to the pole, or the turbulent rigour of the climate. Their seas, bounded on all sides by rocky shores, rushing over innumerable shelves and promontories, and agitated without intermission by the fiercest winds, are generally stormy and furious; nor is the land less subject to that striking irregularity, which, under the directions of a boisterous atmosphere, so incessantly disfigures the face of the ocean. These appearances are common to all the countries in the world in proportion as they verge towards the polar regions. Those peculiar to Sweden are neither numerous nor extraordinary. A few leagues from Gottenburgh is a hideous precipice, down which a mighty cataract of water rushes with such impetuosity, and to such a depth, that large bodies of timber, precipitated from the height by the torrent, disappear sometimes for a half, and at other times for a whole hour. The bottom of this dreadful abyss, formed by the weight of a powerful stream falling some hundreds of feet perpendicularly, perhaps from the beginning of time has never yet been found, though sounded by lines of several hundred fathoms. There is in the southern parts of Gothland a slimy lake, which singes whatever is put into it of a combustible quality. Several parts of Sweden are also said to contain a stone or certain petrefaction of a yellowish colour intermixed with various streaks of white, which seem as if compounded of gold or silver, and which afford sulphur, vitriol, allum, and minium. The peasants in this country, as we have already observed, chiefly subsist by agriculture, mining, grazing, hunting, and fishing. Their materials for traffic are the bulky and useful commodities of masts, beams, deal boards, and other sorts of timber for shipping tar, pitch, barks of birch, pot-ash, wooden utensils, hides, flax, hemp, peltry, furs, copper lead, iron, cordage, and fish. Till the sixteenth century, they sold their own crude ore to the Hanse Towns, and bought it back again when manufactured; but since that time, the method of manufacturing all sorts of iron ware has been assiduously cultivated. Assisted by the Dutch and Flemings they have also set up several manufactures of glass, starch, tin, woollen, silk, soap, leather-dressing, and saw-mills. They have sugar-baking, tobacco plantations, and manufactures of sail cloth, cottons, fustian, and other stuffs. Ships of considerable burthen, for sale as well as for their own use, are likewise built in their docks. Those towns, though lying near the sea which have no foreign trade, are called Land Towns; others, and these are twenty-four in number, are called Steeple Towns, where the merchants are allowed to import and export commodities in their own ships. Those in the mine districts are called Mine Towns. The different branches of trade, however, and every thing relating to merchandize, are monopolized in this kingdom, and only a fixed number of artificers and traders allowed in every town. Thus when a young man has served his time to any particular business, he cannot exercise it till he has also served a certain number of years as a journeyman, and then not till there is a vacancy by the death of one of the masters. The stagnation of inland commerce prevents the inhabitants of the different provinces from bartering the superfluities of their respective products. The profits of agriculture, though the most important objects of commerce, are very much neglected, and little encouragement is given to carry the native produce of the earth to any foreign market: for this reason, many very extensive tracts of land in the most fertile provinces still remain uncultivated. Indeed, there has been no great progress made in the internal improvement of this country during the last two hundred years.

Very little of either silver or gold is to be found in this depopulated and half-famished country. The two things which supply their place, and by which a miserable semblance of commerce is still carried on, are paper and copper. Their bank notes are as low as one shilling

and six-pence; and they have them of all value rising gradually from that sum. This, too, is a misfortune which originated in Charles the Twelfth's unhappy passion for war. Baron Goertz, in the latter end of that monarch's reign, laid the address for facilitating the schemes of his master against the peace of Denmark, to give to copper the value of silver; by which the Swedes were obliged to give all the silver they then possessed, in exchange for this wretched and chimerical equivalent; the payments are therefore to this day made in copper, which is here the chief medium of trade, and extremely inconvenient. They have still, however, a few gold ducats, and pieces of silver about five shillings and two pence value each, in circulation: and the several subsidies which of late years, under Louis XV. and XVI. paid them by France and other courts have considerably increased their currency.

On the 19th of August, 1772, Gustavus III. found Sweden restored to the crown those prerogatives which it had lost for more than half a century. His profound secrecy and dissimulation in this dangerous and critical juncture, much surpassed what might have been expected from his youthful age. To this important plot, which was executed with as much dexterity and precision, as it had been planned, it is said, that only five persons in the kingdom were privy. The soldiery and people were successively gained by the eloquence of the young king, who addressed them in a language equally simple and forcible. No popular commotion took place, no conspiracies were formed, and few imprisonments clouded the memory of this illustrious occasion, nor did the most strenuous opposers of his measures experience in the smallest degree any diminution of the royal favour on that account: the senate only took a new oath of allegiance to the prince; and every part of the kingdom, cordially acquiescing in what had happened, reverted to its original tranquillity. We must not, however, suppose an unlimited monarchy or absolute government established in Sweden. Nor is this new political institution by any means an exact model of the English, though in some respects the Swedish is still more restricted than the British sovereign, as he can neither make war nor peace without the consent or concurrence of the other branches of the supreme

legislature. His prerogative is greatly enlarged; but he is not by any means superior to the laws of his country.

Opposite to Elsineur in the island of Seeland, in Denmark, is the town of Helsingborg, in South Gothland, in Sweden. This is a very ancient staple or trading town, and is situated at the foot and declivity of a high mountain, on the top of which it formerly stood. This place having suffered greatly by former wars, has now only a battery of a few guns. The harbour is shallow. From this place is the direct passage over the Sound into Denmark, from which it is distant but a small space. It carries on a good trade, and in their ribbon-weavery young girls are usually employed instead of young men. From a mountain in its neighbourhood issues the Helsingborg spring, which furnishes the town with forty-three large measures of cold, clear, and well tasted water, which is fetched from thence, and shipped off in large quantities. Helsinborg is 29 miles N. by E. of Copenhagen, and 290 S. W. of Stockholm.

Laholm is 32 miles N. by E. of Helsingborg, and 262 S. W. of Stockholm. It is situated at the mouth of the river Laga on the Cattegat, near the entrance of the Baltic. Here is a citadel and a good harbour. The inhabitants by means of its harbour enjoy a decent trade.

Halmstadt, which is 12 miles N. of Laholm, and 260 S. W. of Stockholm, is a pleasant well built sea-port town; it is the capital of Halland, a subdivision of South Gothland. It is situated at the mouth of the Nissa, which falls into the Cattegat, and its inhabitants carry on an extensive trade. It is famous for its salmon. In 1619 Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, and Christian IV. king of Denmark, had a friendly interview here: the latter had fortified it, but it was yielded to Sweden by the treaty of Bromsbo, in 1645; and in its neighbourhood Charles XI. of Sweden obtained a victory over the Danes.

Falkenberg is 22 miles N. by W. of Halmstadt, and 251 S. W. of Stockholm. It is a small, but ancient maritime town of Halland in South Gothland, and is seated at the mouth of a river of the same name, which falls into Cattegat. It has a considerable fishery of salmon, but that of herrings is small. The harbour here is tolerable, and is defended by a castle. Near the village of Axtorn in its neighbourhood, a

battle (called the battle of Falkenberg) was fought in 1565, in which the Danes were defeated by the Swedes.

Warberg is 12 miles N. of Falkenberg, and 245 S. W. of Stockholm, and is likewise in the subdivision of Halland in South Gothland. It is but a small town, but is defended by a strong castle. It stands on the Cattegat, and has a decent harbour.

Gottenburg, or Gothenburg, is 41 miles N. by W. of Warberg, and 240 S. W. of Stockholm. It is the capital of West Gothland, and is seated on the Skager Rack, at the mouth of the Gothesba, where it forms an excellent harbour. It was originally built by Charles IX. of Sweden, in 1607, on the island of Hisingen; but being destroyed by the Danes in 1611, the inhabitants, about seven years after, removed to the place where it now stands, and were favoured with several considerable privileges. Gottenburg carries on the greatest trade of any city in Sweden, except Stockholm. The streets are broad and kept very clean; and since the year 1746 the greater part of the houses have been rebuilt with stone. It is regularly fortified, and on the land side is defended by two citadels, called the Lion and the Crown; and towards the sea by the citadel of New Elsburg. The governor of the prefectures of Gottenburg and Bohus, who is also commandant of the forts and fortifications, resides in this city. Gottenburg is the see of a bishop, and has two printing-offices, a city church, a seminary, an orphan house, an edifice called the crown-house, where the garrison attend divine service, a German church, and several quays and docks. The number of its inhabitants are estimated at fifteen thousand. In 1731 an East India company was established in this city, for the harbour is a very fine one, and is resorted to by a great number of ships: there is here also a college of admiralty, and a court of appeals.

Marstrand is an old staple town of Bohus, a district of West Gothland, at the distance of 20 miles N. W. of Gottenburg, and 240 W. by S. of Stockholm. At this place is an excellent harbour, which is defended by the citadel of Carlstein, a fortress which is said to be impregnable.

This town has been so reduced by the wars between the Swedes and the Danes, and by several fires, that in the year 1745 there remained no more than twenty poor burghers to inhabit it; it has, however, somewhat increased, and even now is but thinly inhabited.

Lidkoping is 70 miles N. W. of Gottenburg, and 180 miles W. by S. of Stockholm. It is a small but well built town of West Gothland, and is situated at the mouth of the small river Lida, where it falls into the Wener Lake. It has one of the largest and most pleasant market places in the whole kingdom.

Falkioping is an inland town of West Gothland, 28 miles S. E. of Kidloping, and 60 E. by N. of Gottenburg. It is situated in a fruitful spot, but quite divested of wood, between two mountains, and on the south bank of a little lake which empties itself into the Lida. The country round about it is called Falbygden. In the neighbourhood of this place a battle was fought in 1388, between king Albert and queen Margaret, in which the former, together with his son, were taken prisoners.

Landscrona, or Landscroon, is 13 miles S. of Helsingborg, in Gothland. It is situated on the shore of the Sound, has a safe and good harbour, and is much more resorted to by merchants, especially at its annual fair on Midsummer Day. Here is a strong castle not far from the island of Huena, which is a place of great importance. Near this town Christian V. of Denmark was routed in a pitched battle by Charles XI. king of Sweden, on July 24, 1677; but the succeeding year the Danes took the place.

Malmo, (called by the Dutch Ellebogen, because it stands on an angle or elbow,) is 8 miles S. of Landscrona, and is a populous and pretty trading town of Schonen, in Gothland: it has a harbour on the Sound, upon which it lies. This town is reckoned to contain about two thousand inhabitants. It had formerly walls, ditches, and bastions on the land side, with a castle and fortress on the sea-side*.

Cimbrishamn is a small maritime town of Schonen in Gothland, 45 miles E. of Malmo, on the eastern shore of Sweden. Here is a harbour

* In the eleventh century a society was founded here in memory of king Canute IV. or the saint of that name, and called Canute's Gild, having members of both sexes, among whom have been several kings, princes, and persons of distinction.

its name imports, and its inhabitants have a retty good trade. From this place some of the ncient Cimbri are said to have migrated.

Christianstadt is 32 miles N. of Cimbrishamn, nd stands on the river Hedge-a, which surrounds on three sides. It was built by Christian IV. ing of Denmark, and had its name from him. he inhabitants carry on a good trade, and it ontains about eighteen hundred inhabitants. he town is surrounded with ramparts and horn-orks, besides a fort which lies near the church, f which is not considerable. The lands-anptman, or governor of the province resides ere.

Carlshamn (formerly called Christianshamn) 30 miles E. by N. of Christianstadt, and 250 by W. of Stockholm. It is situated in the istrict of Blekingen, in Gothland, and is a ople town. On a rock near the mouth of the ver is a fort, which defends both the town and commodious harbour. Here are two church-, a woollen manufactory, and a wharf for ipping; without the town, at a small distance, a copper work. The number of its inha-itants is about fourteen hundred.

Carlscrona, or Carlscroon, is a fine staple wn of Blekingen, in Gothland, on the Baltic. is 28 miles E. of Carlshamn, and 238 by W. of Stockholm. This is reckoned one the best towns of Sweden. Part of this town on the isle of Biorkholm, where is a laza-to for sailors, and on Stubholm, where is the enal. &c. and on the wharf, where the fleet . The small and great islands round the wn, with the forests of oak and beech, nder the situation very pleasant. It has ree churches; the number of its inhabitants computed at five thousand. Here is a royal llege of admiralty; also a dock which is sepa-ted from the town by a high stone wall. The ovincial governor resides here. The harbour ng between Aspoe and Stork-oe is so commo-ous, that the whole royal fleet may be quite cure in it, and its entrance is defended by the adel of Kongsholm and Drotningshiar. The ck is particularly remarkable; it is a large ex-vation made by art in a rock, about eighty t deep, and from three hundred to four hun-ed and fifty feet long, where the royal fleet . It has a large opening towards the sea for e greatest ships of war to come in. It is shu by two water gates, at which time the cavit may be drained in twenty-four hours, and left a quite dry dock for repairing or careening any ship. When she is to come out again, the water may be let in through two openings in the said water-gates; before which is an engine to hinder the waves of the sea from beating against them with all their force. In 1779, a grand bason was formed there by Mr. Tunberg, reckoned one of the finest performances of the age. It contains twenty-four places in which ships may not only be kept dry, but may be taken out by letting in water at any time, which may be done with any one separately.

Calmar is a fine staple town belonging to a district of the same name in East Gothland, and is one of the oldest towns in the Gothic kingdom. It is 43 miles N. E. of Carlscrona, and 195 S. by W. of Stockholm. It lies on the open sea, directly opposite to the isle of Oland, and is built nearly in a circular form, with regular streets. It formerly had a different site, and contained several churches and convents; but after it was burnt in 1647, it was removed towards the isle of Quarnholm. Its castle is well fortified. In the wars between the Swedes and the Danes this place has been often taken and retaken. Here the famous treaty was signed which united Sweden and Norway to Denmark in 1397. It is the see of a bishop, has an university, a fine cathedral, a ship dock a commodious quay, and is surrounded with a royal chace on the land side. The principal export trade of this place consists of deals, tar, and allum; it has likewise good linen and woollen manufactures. It is remarkable, that near this place is a spring of fresh water in the open sea.

Westerwyk, which is 60 miles N. of Calmar, and 120 S. by W. of Stockholm, is a sea-port town of the province of Smaland in East Gothland, and is a place of some trade, for its harbour is safe and commodious.

Nykoping is a large city, 70 miles N. of Westerwyk, and 54 S. W. of Stockholm. This town is the capital of Sudermanland in Sweden Proper, and is supposed to be the oldest in the kingdom. Here the kings and princes of this province formerly had their residence. It has a pleasant and healthy situation on a bay of the Baltic. It was defended by a strong castle till the year 1719, when it was taken and destroyed by the Russians.

Stockholm, the metropolis of Sweden, is 240 miles

miles E. by N. of Gottenburg, 340 N. E. of Copenhagen, 430 W. of Petersburg, and 920 E. by N. of London. This city is the seat of the Swedish government, and is situated at the junction of the Baltic with the lake of Maler. It seems to borrow its name from the materials of which it is built, and the foundation on which it stands. The houses are mostly timber, and built on a cluster of islands. The circuit it takes from one gate to the other is twelve miles, and the space it occupies contains six islands and some peninsulas. The islands which inclose the greatest part of the city are surrounded by two arms of a river, which run with great rapidity out of the Maler lake, over each of which there is a wooden bridge. From the city is a prospect on one side over the lake, and on the other over the sea, which here forms a gulph, that running between several rocks has the appearance of another lake. This place, about three hundred years ago, was no more than a bare island, with a few mean cottages for accommodating the fishermen and their families; but it was thought a proper spot for a fortress to check the incursions of the Russians. Here, therefore, a castle was first erected; next a palace for the Royal Family; and then a complete set of apartments for the whole court and principal officers of state. In this manner Stockholm soon surpassed in magnitude and splendour all the cities in Sweden. The castle, which has been repeatedly enlarged and refitted for these public purposes, is a place of no great strength or beauty, but is a very capacious edifice, containing accommodation for the king's household, most of the ministers, the national court of justice, the college of war, the chancery, treasury, colleges of reduction, liquidation, commerce, and execution. Here are also kept the public records, an armory, chapel, and a library. Most of the inferior officers and servants of the court are quartered on the burghers, at their landlord's charge, for lodging, fire, and candle. In this city are nine large and beautiful churches, all of which have lofty spires: and instead of bells, they have pretty musical chimes in their steeples, which play on festivals and other solemn occasions. The church of St. Nicholas is chiefly distinguished from the rest by its size and magnificence. It is covered with copper, supported by four massy pillars of marble and adorned with a great variety of elegant tombs and monuments. The statute of St. George on horseback trampling on the dragon is much admired*. Over the altar is a cabinet finely gilt, which holds a table of a pyramidical form with shelves of massy silver. On this are several historical scripture pieces in basso relievo. There are other silver statues about the altar of the same magnitude; as that of Moses with the two tables of the law, John the Baptist, with a cross and a larab; and the Evangelists, with the drapery usually assigned them by painters and statuaries. To Stockholm most of the goods of their own growth as iron, copper, wire, pitch, tar, masts, deals, &c. are brought for exportation. The greatest part of foreign commodities are imported into this port, where there is a haven capable of receiving a thousand sail, with a quay near an English mile long, close to which vessels of the greatest burthen may lie with their broadsides; the only inconveniency is its being ten miles from the sea, the river very crooked and no tides. It opens into the Baltic, but is of dangerous access, by reason of rocks; and its entrance is defended by two forts: within, ships are so secure from the wind, that it has been said they need neither anchor nor cable to hold them.

Soderhamn, *i. e.* the South Harbour, is a town of Helsingland in Sweden Proper. It is situated on the Gulph of Bothnia, 140 miles N. of Stockholm, at the mouth of the river Liusna; it has a good harbour, and has been built within about sixty years, nevertheless it appears to be in a flourishing state.

Umea is a town of West Bothnia in Sweden, 200 miles N. by E. of Soderhamn, and 312 miles N. by E. of Stockholm. It is situated at the mouth of a river of the same name, which empties itself into the Gulph of Bothnia. At this town the governor of Umea Lapmark resides, and the place enjoys a tolerable share of trade.

Pitea is a sea port town of West Bothnia, situated on a small island at the mouth of the river Pitea, where it falls into the Gulph of

* This is the fabulous history of his delivering Cleodoliuda, daughter of the king of Lydia, and twelve other devoted virgins, from the fury of the monster he subdues. The princess is represented kneeling, with her hands lifted up, and other signs of the sincerest acknowledgements to their gallant preserver.

Bothnia. It is 103 miles N. by E. of Umea, and 420 miles N. by E. of Stockholm. This town is joined to the continent by a wooden bridge, at the end of which a gate is erected. The streets run in parallel lines; but the church stands at some distance from the town; so that the bridge must be crossed to go to it. Pitea was originally built by Gustavus Adolphus in 1621, about three miles higher up in the country; but that town being destroyed by fire in 1666, was rebuilt on its present situation, where it has a very commodious harbour. The old town of Pitea is now only a village, consisting of a few houses irregularly scattered on a fine common.

Lulea, a sea-port town of West Bothnia, is 30 miles N. E. of Pitea; it is situated at the mouth of a river of the same name: its harbour is tolerably commodious, but the inhabitants do not enjoy much trade.

Tornea, the capital of Tornea Lapmark in West Bothnia, is 56 miles E. by N. of Lulea, and 490 N. by E. of Stockholm. It is seated at the mouth of a river of the same name, on an island, and at the most northern part of the Gulph of Bothnia. The inhabitants of Tornea carry on an extensive trade with the northern parts of Sweden; and although the cold is very severe in winter, they are exceedingly healthy. The longest day at this town is about twenty-two hours. The river Tornea rises in Norwegian Lapland, and falls into the Bothnic Gulph at Tornea, after a course of about three hundred miles. It is extremely rapid, receiving in its way twenty-nine other rivers, one of which is very broad. On the melting of the snow, this and the other rivers overflow their banks; and all of them have several dreadful cataracts.

Gamla Carleby, or Old Carleby, is a sea-port town of Finland, on the eastern shore of the Gulph of Bothnia. It is 375 miles N. E. of Stockholm, stands on a fruitful plain, and has a good and safe harbour. The business of shipbuilding is carried on here to a considerable extent, and affords employ to a great number of hands. The inhabitants likewise trade largely in tar. In spring and autumn the peasants of these parts make salt from the sea water, which by pouring a little sour milk upon it in the refining pan, turns immediately from a grey tinge to a colour as white as snow.

Ny Carleby, or New Carleby, is 29 miles S. W. of Gamla Carleby, and is likewise on the coast of the Gulph of Bothnia. Here is also a good harbour, and the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade in tar.

Wasa, Vasa, or (as it is sometimes called) Mustasar, is another sea-port town of Finland, at the distance of 70 miles S. W. of Old Carleby, and 280 miles N. E. of Stockholm. A considerable trade in tar is likewise carried on by the inhabitants of this town.

Christianstadt is a maritime town on the Gulph of Bothnia in Finland, 60 miles S. of Wasa, and 230 N. E. of Stockholm. This town which is populous, was founded by Count Peter Brahe, on the peninsula of Koppo, and received its name from his first wife.

Biorneborg, the capital of the district of the same name, in Finland, lies on the sea coast, at the distance of 60 miles S. of Christianstadt, and 185 miles N. E. of Stockholm. It is situated on a long strip of land on the eastern shore of the Kumo Elf, or Gulph of Bothnia, which below the town is subdivided into several arms, and by that means forms several small islands for the space of half a mile. It is said at first to have been built in the parish of Kumo, but was afterwards removed to Ulfsby or Wanhakyla, and in 1558, to its present site. From this place are sent annually great quantities of wooden ware, and abundance of fish, particularly salmon and large cod or white fish, not only to Stockholm, but also to other parts. The place where ships take in their lading is near Sandred, about a mile from the town.

Nystadt is 50 miles S. of Biorneborg, and 150 N. E. of Stockholm. It is seated on a commodious bay of the Bothnic Gulph, and is noted for a peace concluded here in 1721, between the emperor of Russia and the king of Sweden. It enjoys a good trade.

Abo is 32 miles S. E. of Nystadt, 158 E. by N. of Stockholm, and 284 W. of Petersburg. This town, which is the capital of Finland, stands on the angle formed by the Gulphs of Bothnia and Finland, on the river Aurojocki, which runs through the town. Abo is by far the best town in Finland, and was built as early as the year 1155. It is surrounded with mountains, has the privilege of a staple, and has an excellent and commodious harbour. Abo is the see of a bishop,

who is suffragan to the archbishop of Upsal, which was founded about the year 1226. In 1628 Gustavus Adolphus erected and endowed a college at Abo, which, in 1640, queen Christina turned into an university, granting it many privileges. The great or episcopal church, built in 1300, is a handsome structure. This is the only royal jurisdiction in the province, the governor of which resides here. It was almost entirely reduced to ashes in 1687. Near the harbour stands a rock surrounded by the sea; and, when ships pass it, the compass, they say does no longer point to the north; whence it is suspected that it contains mines of load-stone.

Helsingfors is the capital of the province of Nyland in Finland. It is 92 miles E. of Abo, 240 E. of Stockholm, and 195 W. of Petersburg. Helsingfors is but a small town, and is situated on a peninsula and gulph of its own name, at the mouth of the river Winda, which here falls into the Gulph of Finland, and forms a pretty good harbour, which is one of the best in the whole kingdom.

Tavastehus is an inland town of Finland, and capital of a district of its own name. It is 60 miles N. of Helsingfors, and 80 N. E. of Abo. The district in which this town is situated is a fruitful level country, intersected by rivers and lakes, which abound with fish. The inhabitants chiefly subsist by agriculture, grazing, and breeding of cattle, and some of them are employed in the fishery.

Louisa, or Degerby, is 55 miles E. of Helsingfors, and 145 W. of Petersburg. This is a well situated town, on an angle of the Finnic Gulph, where is a commodious harbour, by means of which the inhabitants carry on a good trade.

On the coast of Sweden there are an innumerable quantity of islands which belong to that kingdom, the principal of which are, the Isle of Gothland, the Isle of Oland, and the Isle of Aland.

The Island of Gothland is situate on the Baltic Sea, at the distance of 60 miles from the eastern coast of East Gothland. Its greatest length, from S. W. to N. E. is about 80 miles, but its mean breadth is about 24 miles. There is but one considerable town in this island, viz. Wisby, but there are a great many villages. Wisby is a sea-port town, on the west side of the island, and is 120 miles S. by E. of Stockholm. It is seated on a good harbour, which is defended by a strong castle. The town of Wisby has received so much damage from the sea, that it is greatly reduced from what it was formerly. The whole of the inhabitants on the Isle of Gothland are estimated at about ten thousand.

The Isle of Oland, or Oeland, is a beautiful spot directly east of the coast of East Gothland. It is 86 miles long from N. to S. but not more than ten in the widest part from E. to W. It is divided into two parts, viz. the North and the South. In the former are several fine forests and many quarries of stone; but in the latter, the ground being more level, is fit both for tillage and pasture. The island in general yields plenty of honey, wax, butter, and nuts. Both parts of Oland abound in mines of allum, black marble, and free stone, remarkable for its hardness. The number of its inhabitants are said to exceed seven thousand persons, who are chiefly employed in agriculture, working in the quarries in cutting free stone, burning of lime, in fishing and in navigation. The Isle of Oland is about 12 miles E. of the shore of East Gothland.

The Isle of Aland lies at the entrance of the Gulph of Bothnia, about midway between Sweden Proper and Finland. In the intermediate channel are many small islands, particularly between Aland and Finland. This island is about 27 miles long, and 16 miles broad, where broadest. The soil is so fruitful, that the inhabitants have a sufficiency of corn throughout the year. The pastures are very good, as are likewise the cattle. The inhabitants speak the Swedish language, and have their subsistence mostly from agriculture, breeding of cattle, the fishery, hunting, and navigation; also from the taking of sea fowl, and from the loppings or profits of the woods. They trade in butter, cheese, woodware, coals, and chalk. Formerly this island had its own kings; and even after it came under the dominion of Sweden it had, for some centuries, its own stadtholders or governors. The clergy of this island are under the bishop of Abo. The most remarkable places in this island are Castelholm, Grelsby, and Haga; which are domains belonging to the crown, in the first of which is a post-house.

END OF TRAVELS IN DENMARK, NORWAY, AND SWEDEN.

VIEW OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE,

BY

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SECTION I.

Introductory Remarks—Climate—Nature and Quality of the Ground—Face of the Country: Forests, Mountains, Steppes, Morasses, Wastes, Salt Places—The principal Mountains of Russia enumerated—The principal Plains of Russia.

THE Russian empire, which in various respects now fixes the attention of Europe, has for several years been the subject of a multitude of investigations and writings, by which the knowledge of that country is considerably improved and enlarged. The care which Catherine the Second, from her first accession to the throne, and during the whole of her reign, devoted to the cultivation of this knowledge, has been attended with so much success, that Russia, which, prior to the year 1762, was a sort of *terra incognita* in our part of the globe, is now in possession of a very considerable store of materials, from which the present state of this remarkable country may be illustrated and described.

Russia, an empire but little known or regarded in the seventeenth century, at the opening of the eighteenth made her appearance all at once among the states of Europe; and, after a short trial of her powers, became the umpire and the arbitress of the North. The whole system of Europe took another form; the arctic eagle extended her influence to the regions of the Adriatic and the banks of the Tagus, while the lightning of her eye struck terror into the recesses of Mount Caucasus and made the Hellespont tremble. The arts of Europe were transplanted, and bloomed both on the shores of the Neva and those of the Irtysh: a new world was opened to commerce; and the sciences, the manners, the luxury, the virtues, and the vices of western Europe have found their way into the deserts of oriental Asia, and to the i hospitable coasts of the Frozen Ocean. The æra of these remarkable phenomena was the commencement of the eighteenth century*.

By Russia is sometimes understood the whole Russian empire: yet these two expressions have properly a very different signification. Russia Proper implies those principalities and provinces which for many ages past have been inhabited by Russians†; and the following are its divisions, namely: 1. Great Russia, which has always bore the name of Russia in the strictest import, and comprises those large tracts of country, principalities, viceroyalties, and dukedoms which have uninterruptedly composed the Russian dominion; as Mosco, Vladimir, Novgorod, Pscove, Perieslaf, Riafanskoi, Kaluga, Tula, Yaroslaf, Kostroma, Tver, Vologda, &c. 2. Little Russia, comprehending the Ukraine‡, or in general the present three governments of Kief, Tschernigof, and Novgorod-Sieverskoi§. 3. White Russia,

* In the year 1697 Peter the Great began his first journey into foreign countries. In 1699 he concluded the armistice with the Porte, by which he acquired Azof, and was enabled to construct a navy on the Euxine. In 1700 the battle of Narva was fought, where the Swedes for the first time showed their superiority in discipline and the arts of war.

† For about thirteen or fourteen hundred years, as far back as authentic history reaches: this however is principally to be understood of Great and Little Russia.

‡ Which word signifies the *borders*.

§ It was long separated from Great Russia; but united to it again in 1654.

by which, for a long period of time, was meant the principality, or the present government of Smolensk; to which are now added the two governments of Polotzk and Mohilef, still sometimes called the White-Russian territory: otherwise the name of White Russia is no longer heard of. To these were added, 4. New Russia, by which were denoted the large tracts of country near the Ukraine, towards Poland and the Turkish dominions: namely, New Servia and the province of St. Elizabeth, which now belong to the government of Ekatarinoslaf, and therefore its name has fallen into disuse.—The three last have not always been united with Great Russia.

But, by the Russian empire, is likewise understood not only those just mentioned, but also such kingdoms, countries, and provinces as have been at various times since added to it by conquests and appropriations: as, 1. The kingdom of Kazan, which was conquered by tzar Ivan Vassillievitch in 1552, at present consisting of several governments. 2. The kingdom of Astrakhan, taken by the same monarch*; at present likewise divided into several governments. 3. The vast country of Siberia; which by calculation, contains upwards of ten millions and a half of square versts, comprehending within it several kingdoms, taken by roving Kozaks on their own account, and then surrendered to the tzar, who completed the conquest; this at present consists of several, but those the most extensive governments. 4. The provinces on the shores of the Baltic, captured from the Swedes by Peter I. and for ever incorporated with the Russian empire by two treaties of peace: Livonia, Esthonia, Finland, and Ingria or the present governments of Riga, Revel, Vyborg, and St. Petersburg. 5. The countries taken from Poland, now the governments of Polotzk and Mohilef, which the empress Catherine II. united to the empire. 6. The territory she annexed to Russia by the peace concluded with the Turks in 1774. 7. The Krim and the Cuban, or the province of Taurida and the government of Caucasus, united to the empire by that sovereign in 1783. 8. The tributary islands in the eastern ocean, now added to Russia. 9. The countries that have more recently submitted to the Russian supremacy, namely, Kartuelia, or Kartolinia, &c. 10. The possessions in America, consisting partly of islands, partly of the continent of California, where the principal establishment is called Donalesk. 11. Some other countries incorporated with the empire at various periods; as, the Kirghis-kozaks, of the middle and little horde, who submitted themselves in 1731, and several others.

Hence it appears that the Russian empire has not always been of such magnitude as at present. Even in the thirteenth century Lithuania was not so far from Mosco† as now. From this slight inspection it is manifest that the amplitude of the empire is far greater than that of the largest monarchy in ancient or modern times. Accordingly, the empress, in her letter of grace to the Russian nobility in 1785, expresses herself in the following manner: "The Russian empire is distinguished on the globe by the extent of its territory, which reaches from the eastern borders of Kamtshatka to beyond the river Duna which falls into the Baltic at Riga: comprising within its limits a hundred and sixty-five degrees of longitude: extending from the mouths of the rivers Volga, Kuban, Don, and Dnieper, which fall into the Caspian, the Palus Mœotis and the Euxine, as far as the Frozen Ocean, over two-and-thirty degrees of latitude." The same number of degrees is assigned it by this sovereign, in her instructions to the commission for framing a code of laws. But, from her own words, it plainly appears, that she only takes notice of the countries contiguous to each other, according to the general extent: but none at all of the islands, or the numerous promontories and points of land that strike out from them. The islands in the eastern ocean are not once mentioned. Even the isle of Oesel, with its western promontory reaches several degrees farther than the river Duna. If we take all these into the account the Russian empire, according to the newest and best charts, will be found to extend from about the forty-third to the seventy-eighth degree of north latitude; and from the thirty-ninth to the two hundred and fifteenth degree of longitude: this last, however, including the islands lying in the eastern ocean. Without reckoning the islands,

* Kabarda likewise soon afterwards submitted.

† The proper name of this capital is Moskva; but Mosco is grows into such familiar use by long established custom, that we should no more think of altering it than of reducing Warsaw to its right name of Varschau, or calling the Tartars by their proper name Tatar.

the

he empire extends in length nine thousand two undred miles, and in breadth two thousand four undred.

Russia, by its magnitude and situation, has ery various frontiers as well as neighbours. On wo sides, namely, to the north and the east, if e omit the establishment on the continent of America, it is bordered by seas. On the other ides it is bounded partly by Terra Firma, partly y seas, and here and there by rivers; viz. to the est by Sweden and the Baltic; but to the south, y Courland, Poland, Turkey, the Euxine, and he Caspian, by Persia, China, and various tribes f uncivilized nations.

From the enormous extent of the Russian emire it will naturally be inferred that the temeratures of the atmosphere must be various. t contains many regions that are blessed with the urest air, and the mildest sky; but a greater umber of others where the weather is extremely sle and cold, and many others again where the halations from the earth are not of the most lubrious nature. The parts towards the south joys a warm and agreeable temperature, in which most all the plants and vegetables of countries uated much nearer to the equator flourish and ound. Others again, in high northern latitudes, ough not congealed in everlasting ice, are yet pressed with so severe a frost as to exclude the ts of agriculture. On the whole, therefore, e climate is not excessively hot, except at cerin seasons in Taurida, seldomer and less sting in a few other places; but in many parts is extremely cold. However, the one tract of untry not only supplies the deficiencies of the ber; but nature has kindly provided that every imate should be fitted to the wants of its inhatants, and has adapted them to the temperature their sky. High to the north she has dispensed corn, but plenty of moss, for the animals; d for mankind, an infinite variety of berries, fish, and wild fruits. Farther to the south r liberality is displayed: beneath a mild and nial atmosphere she bestows on the inhabitants superfluity of the finest productions.

In the middle and northern regions the winters are very cold, and the days uncommonly short; but the summers are so much the longer, and the heats are sometimes great. In severe frosts it is no unusual thing for men to be frozen, so as either to die on the spot, or, without speedy assistance, for the limbs that are frozen to fall off by degrees.

The freezing of the rivers happens in various ways, according to the degree of cold, the quality of the water, the current, and the nature of the bed*. Some carry floating ice, which at length consolidates; others, on a sudden frost, are covered at top with icy particles like gruel, which in a day or two congeal; others again, of a gentle current, are in one night covered with a thin scum of ice which gradually increases in substance; while the rivers in Russian Dauria, or the province of Nertshinsk, differ from all these, and exhibit a quite different property: for there the ice first forms at the bottom; which is then lifted up by the water, where it remains till the whole river is entirely frozen up; and at times so much ice comes gradually to it, that the water can scarcely find a free passage beneath it. Some derive the cause of this either from the quality of the beds of the rivers there, which universally consist of chalk stone; or from the frigidity of the soil, which all the summer through never thaws to a greater depth than two arshines.

The frost, and still more the quantity of snow in connection with it, is of infinite advantage to the empire, as by that means the land-carriage is inconceivably facilitated. Many provinces could neither procure the necessaries of life, nor turn their own products into money, were it not for the frost and snow. No sooner is the sledgeway formed, than all the country roads are covered with carriages. In several districts, masts, balks, firewood, &c. can only be fetched in the winter, especially from marshy forests. Immense quantities of flax, hemp, tobacco, deals, tallow, &c. are brought by sledgeway from the distant provinces of Russia to the ports of the Baltic.

* In and about Mosco the rivers freeze about the middle latter end of November, and break in March or the bening of April. The birch-trees come out in May, and d their leaves in September. About Kursk all sorts of it are ripe in August, and then the corn is all got in. yef's *Travels*.

In Irkutsk the thermometer, on the 9th of December, 1772, stood at two hundred and fifty-four degrees; notwithstanding that the Angara there commonly freezes not till towards the end of December, and frequently not till the middle of January; and breaks up at the end of March, or before the middle of April. *Georgi's Travels*, vol. i. p. 36.

There are regions where the greater part of the year may be called winter, others where the winter lasts but a few weeks; some where storms are very frequent, others where they are extremely rare: of the latter sort are the parts about the Frozen Ocean.

The cold and its effects are here very remarkable. There are annually from one hundred and fifty to one hundred and ninety days of frost, the severity and continuance of which freeze the ground every winter from two to two and a half, and sometimes even three feet deep. The ice of the Neva is from twenty-four to thirty-six, but generally twenty-eight inches thick. It is curious to observe, that, though this thickness of ice is formed by the sheets of ice lying horizontally on one another, yet the huge blocks of it that are cut out for filling the ice-cellars, on being left exposed to the sun, fall to pieces in perpendicular spiculæ, each of the thickness of one's little finger. So likewise in the spring, by pressing on a walking stick; while the ice is still of its primitive thickness, the stick will go through, because it pushes down one or more of these spiculæ from their connection with the rest.

The covering of the Neva with ice, and the breaking up of it, are remarkable phænomena. When the ice is setting in, as it is called, small detached flakes of ice are seen floating down the current, which soon grow into large fields, and acquire so great a momentum, that the bridges must be hastily taken asunder, to prevent their being carried away by the ice; a disaster which has happened more than once. These large plains of ice continue for a day or two passing with the current, while the boats are seen rowing between them; till all at once the floating ice stops, either by the gulf being already closed below, or the flakes of ice freezing together: when immediately foot passengers, who have been waiting on the shores for this moment, go over in all safety. Nothing is more common than to see boats crossing the river, and, in two hours afterwards, to behold hundreds of people going over on foot.

No less rapid is the departure of the ice. In the spring the first indication of this approaching event, is the standing of the snow-water on the ice; then the ice becomes more porous, or divides into spiculae, lets the water through and becomes of a blackish colour. At length it parts, while the roads that have been well trod during the winter remain: so that often foot passengers are seen on these roads, and between them and the floating sheets of ice, boats in great numbers passing and repassing. By the force of the current, and shocks received from the floating ice, at length the roads give way; the ice continues to fall down with the stream for a day or two to the gulf, and the whole river is clear. A week or fortnight after this, the ice of Ladoga comes down, which, according as the wind may happen to be, continues a couple or more days, sometimes as many weeks, and renders the atmosphere uncommonly chilly.

The ice and the cold are of service to the inhabitants in various ways. Distances are much shortened by their means, inasmuch as people, horses, and carriages of all sorts, can cross the Neva, and the other rivers, lakes, and canals, in all places and directions: and the Cronstadt gulph supplies, in some measure, the want of navigation during the winter, by the transport of commodities of every denomination over the ice.

The Neva never broke up before the 25th of March, and never later than the 27th of April. The earliest standing of the ice was the 20th of October, and the latest the 1st of December. Its standing and breaking up determines the summer and winter.

On the breaking up of the ice, when the river is so far open as to be navigable for boats, the event is announced to the town by the firing of three cannons from the fortress. Upon this the surveyor of the city wharf goes in a barge with the city flag flying, accompanied by a number of other barges, to the fortress, and salutes it with seven guns, on which the fortress returns the salute with five. From the fortress he then proceeds to the imperial winter-palace, where, on being come near the shore, he again makes another discharge of cannon, which is followed by three cheers from the crew, repeated by the companies of the numerous barges. This done, they all return in procession to the place from whence they came. Previous to this ceremony no boat may dare to shew itself on the Neva: but from that moment any one may pass upon it that will: and so long as the Neva continues open the rising and setting of the sun are noticed by a gun from the fortress. But this is discontinued during all the time that the Neva is covered with ice.

The severe cold here has not that violent benumbing

numbing effect either on man or beast as people in southern climates might imagine. The drivers and their horses, from being seasoned to the cold, feel little or no inconvenience in pursuing their employment through the streets of the town and along the roads, though the beards of the former and the muzzles of the latter are covered with hour-frost and little icicles from the congelation of their breath; and in the severest cold they travel all day, without receiving any detriment. Nay, even from twenty to twenty-four degrees of Reaumur, women will stand rincing the linen through holes in the ice, four, five, or six hours together, often barefoot, with their hands dipping in the water all the while, and their draggled petticoats stiff with ice.

The winds are in some parts very violent, especially in Siberia, where reigns a certain tremendous kind of winter-hurricane, which they call bureen, and which not unfrequently buries both men and cattle in whirlpools of snow and sand. Storms, in most of the districts, are not very frequent, and generally speaking not so violent, as in other places; neither was any mischief ever known to have been done by lightning. In the parts to the north thunder and lightning are even great rarities. On the other hand, the northern lights are ordinary appearances; and in many of the northern districts, a few months excepted, are, in a manner to be seen daily.

Earthquakes in most of these parts happen but seldom. Yet there have been some, felt over Kamptschatka to the mountains of Altai.

In the northern districts the days in the winter are extremely short; but in summer therefore so much the longer. On the shortest day, the 10th of December, old stile,

	the sun rises		and sets	
Astrakhan,	about 48 min. after	7.	12 min. after	4.
Kief,	7	8.	53	3.
Mosco,	37	8.	23	3.
Riga,	47	8.	13	3.
Tobolsk,	56	8.	4	3.
St. Petersburg,	15	9.	45	2
Archangel,	24	10.	36	1.

The quality of the soil, in this enormous empire, as may well be supposed, is extremely various. There are entire, and these very extensive governments, that are full of mountains: but others, in still greater number, that consist of vast steppes and plains, some of which are inexplorable to the eye.

Captain Plescheyef says, "Russia is divided by nature into two great parts by a range of mountains called Vral, which form one continued uninterrupted barrier across the whole breadth of it, dividing Siberia from the rest of Russia.

"That part of Russia which lies on this side the Ural mountains presents a vast extended plain verging towards the west by an easy gradation. This plain, from its prodigious extent, has a great variety of climates, soil, and products. The northern part of it is very woody, marshy, but little capable of cultivation, and has a sensible declension towards the White Sea and the Frozen Ocean. The other part of this extensive plain includes the whole district along the river Volga, as far as the deserts reaching by the Caspian and the Sea of Azof, constituting the finest part of Russia, which in general is rich and fertile, having more arable and meadow land, than forests, swamps, or barren deserts.

"The most remarkable, for superior quality and flavour of every kind of fruit and other productions of the earth, is that part which extends towards Voronetch, Tambol Penza, and Simbirch, as far as the deserts. It every where abounds in an admirable rich soil, consisting of a black mould, strongly impregnated with saltpetre. But that part which commences between the sea of Azof and the Caspian, and extending near the shores of the latter runs between the Volga and the Ural, and then stretching as far as the river Emba, is nothing but a desert, level, arid, high, sterile, and full of saline lakes.

"The parts lying on the other side of the Ural mountains, known by the name of Siberia, is a flat tract of land of considerable extent declining imperceptibly towards the Frozen Ocean; and by equally gentle degradations rising towards the south; where at last it forms a great chain of mountains, making the boundary of Russia on the side of China. Between the two rivers Oby and Irtish, and the Altay mountains, runs a very extensive plain, called Barabinskaia steppe or the deserts of Baraba, the northern part whereof is excellently adapted to agriculture; but the southern, on the contrary, is a barren desert, full of sands and marshes. The country, between the rivers Oby and Yenissey consist more of wood land than of open field; and the other side of the Yenissey is entirely covered with impervious woods, as far as the lake Baikal; but the soil is every where fruitful; and wherever the natives

natives have been at the pains of clearing and draining the ground, it proves to be rich, and highly fit for cultivation. The parts beyond the Baikal are surrounded by ridges of high stone mountains. Proceeding farther on towards the east, the climate of Siberia becomes gradually more and more severe, the summer shortens, the winter grows longer, and the frosts are more intense.

"In such temperature of climate, the greater part of Siberia, that is, the middle and southern latitudes of it, as far as the river Lena, is extremely fertile and fit for every kind of produce; but the northern and eastern parts being encumbered with wood are deprived of this advantage, being unfit both for pasturage and culture. The whole of this part, as far as the 60th degree of north latitude and to the Frozen Ocean, is full of bogs and morasses covered with moss, which would be absolutely impassable, did not the ice, which never thaws deeper than seven inches, remain entire beneath it."

SECTION II.

Of the Seas forming the Boundaries of the Russian Empire—Of the Inland Seas, and principal Lakes of Russia—Its principal Rivers—Mineral Waters—Canals.

THE Frozen or Northern Ocean in ancient times was called by the Russians Morè Muremskoe, but at present Ledovitoe morè. By the Goths it was termed Gandawyk, by the Cimbrians Mare Marusa, and by the Latins, Mare Sarmaticum, and Mare Scythicum. The Swedes call it Is-Hafoet, and the Norwegians Lebersee. It borders the whole of the northern part of the empire, from the confines of Lapland to the Tschukotskoy-Noss; that is, from 50 to 205 degrees of longitude, and consequently laves the shores of the governments of Archangel, Tobolsk, and Irkutsk. Several bays of very considerable expanse are formed by this vast ocean. The greatest is the bay in the vicinity of Archangel, which commonly goes under the name of the White-Sea, extending from north to south within the land, from 69 to 63 degrees of north latitude, and contains a multitude of petty islands.—Next follows the Tcheskaia Guba, the Karian Bay, called also the Karian Sea, Karskoe morè; then the Obskoe bay, which is uncommonly spacious; the Taymurskaia guba, or bay; the Khatangskaia guba; two bays at the mouth of the Lena; and lastly, the Tashaunskaia guba, at 185 degrees of longitude.—Of the numerous islands in this ocean the most coniderable are; Novaya Zemlia and Kolgurva; but both of them are uninhabited, and only frequented by fishermen and hunters. Novaya Zemlia is indeed well supplied with waters but is rocky, unfruitful, and destitute of woods; scarcely are a few stunted bushes and poplar plants to be met with there. But, on the other hand, this island abounds in rein-deer, white bears, white and blue foxes, and the shores swarm with morasses, wallrusses, &c. Its magnitude is estimated at nine hundred and fifty versts in length, five hundred and twenty in breadth, and three thousand and ninety in circumference, without following the sinuosities, and four hundred and twenty-five thousand five hundred and nine German miles of superficies according to Mr. Storch. On the northern side it is entirely encompassed with ice mountains. Among the lakes there is one of salt water. From the middle of October till February the sun is not visible at all; but they have numerous and strong north lights. In summer there are no thunder storms. The snow falls in many places to the depth of four arshines. For two months, namely June and July, the sun never sets. Between this island and the main land is the famous passage known by the name of Vaygat's Straits.—Though this sea contains so many bays, not less numerous are the capes or points of land that strike out into it; these spits of land are called in Russian Muiss or Noss. In all this great sea there are only three harbours whence at this time any navigation is pursued, namely, Kola, Archangel, and Mesen, whereof that of Archangel is the most famous. But the navigation, in comparison of the prodigious ex-

ause of this sea, is very trifling; however it is hardly owing to the short portion of the year allowed by the ice for this purpose; and in some regions there is scarcely time for undertaking it at all. As for the northern passage to China, which, as every one knows, has been so often attempted, nothing has hitherto been discovered favourable to any hopes from future enterprises. The shores in many places, especially in those of the White Sea, are beset with rocks; in other parts low with shoals, that, in a manner, forbid access, and the country adjacent is very marshy. The water in this sea is proportionably but little salt, though near Archangel it is so briny, that some quantities of common salt are prepared from it. The ebb and flow are moderate, and in the parts lying most to the north scarcely perceptible. The fishery is very considerable, particularly of stock-fish, herrings, whales, morses, porpoises, sea dogs, &c.

The Euxine or Black-sea laves the shores of Taurida and a part of the governments of Caucasus and Ekatarinoslaf. It is divided into the Euxine Proper, the Pontus Euxinus, computed to be a thousand versts in length, and five hundred in breadth; and the sea of Azof, the Palus Meotides of the ancients, which (not including the bay of Taganrok) is stated to be two hundred versts long, and one hundred and sixty versts broad. Both these are now entirely within the confines of the Russian empire.

The Baltic or East-Sea, anciently called Variatzkoie morè, or the sea of the Varagians, lies westward of Russia. That part of it which washes the coasts of the governments of St. Petersburg, Reval, and Vyborg is called the Gulf of Finland, which is above four hundred versts long, and from a hundred to a hundred and twenty broad.

The Caspian, an inland sea, was anciently called by the Greeks, the Hyrcanian Sea; the Tartars give it the name of Akdinghis, the White-Sea; by the Georgians it is termed the Gurtshenskian sea and the Persians denominate it Gursen from the old Persian capital, Gurgan, which is said to have stood in the province of Strabat, only seven versts from the sea. The name Hyrcanian sea is as much as to say the Persian sea; for in the Persian language, Persia is not called the Persian, but the Hyrcanian empire. The Caspian reaches in length, from about the 37th to the 47th degree of north latitude, and in breath, where it is the widest, from the 65th to the 74th degree of its longitude. Its superficial contents amount to above thirty-six thousand square miles English.

There are several other seas or lakes in the Russian empire, the principal of which are, 1. The lake Baikal, in the government of Irkutsk, which extends from the 51st to above the 55th degree of N. latitude. 2. The Ladoga lake, in the government of Vyborg, between the Gulph of Finland and the lake of Onega. It is a hundred and seventy-five versts* long, and a hundred and five broad. 3. Lake Onega, in the government of Olonetz, between the Ladoga and the White Sea. It is one hundred and ninety versts long, and seventy versts broad. 4. The Peipus. 5. The Ilmen. 6. The Bielo-ozero, or White Lake. 7. The lake Ishany; and, 8. The Altynnoor.

The principal rivers are, The Duna, called by the Russian Dvina, and by the Lithuanians Daugava. It derives its origin from a lake in the government of Tver, at Biala, not far from the sources of the Volga, and falls into the Baltic at Dunamunde, not far from Riga. At Riga this river is nine hundred paces broad. The Duna is generally covered with ice in November, which breaks up again in March or April. This river has in general a sandy and clayey shore, and a discoloured water. 2. The Neva, which draws its current from the Lake of Ladoga, flows through the city of St. Petersburg, and falls by several arms into the gulph of Cronstadt. The Neva and its different branches (with the Livoga canal) supplies the city of Petersburg with water: its waters may be ranked with the lightest, clearest, and purest of those which flow in rivers†. 3. The Dvina, called

* A Russian verst is about three quarters of a mile English.

† It is a well known fact, that foreigners, for the first month or two of their stay at St. Petersburg, perceive a certain alteration in their habit of body, becoming more lax than usual, which has chiefly been attributed to the waters of the Neva. This circumstance induced Model, and after him Georgi, both professors of the Imperial Academy; to submit it to a chemical process, when the result of both these gentlemen proved that the charge was ill-founded. The accident to foreigners seemed therefore to arise from the difference in their way of living, rather than to the operation of the waters of the Neva.

by the Russian Sievernaia Dvina, *i. e.* the Northern Dvina, falls into the White Sea at Archangel. This river has the honour of having given reception, in 1553, to the first English ship that ever sailed to Russia. 4. The Petshora. 5. The Oby. 6. The Irtysh. 7. The Tobol. 8. The Yennissey. 9. The Tunguskis. 10. The Khatanga. 11. The Lena. 12. The Yana. 13. Anadyr. 14. The Kamshatka. 15. The Amoor. 16. The Yemba. 17. The Ural. 18. The Volga. 19. The Kuban. 20. The Don (formerly called Tanais). 21. The Dnieper (the Boysthenes of the ancients). 22. The Bog, or Bogue. And many others.

It is somewhat surprising, that in an empire so extensive as that of Russia, so few mineral springs should have hitherto been found. The mineral waters at present known, and occasionally applied to medicinal purposes, are, sulphureous and liver of sulphur waters; among which are reckoned the hot springs (which are the most numerous). Some are of lukewarm, others warm, and a few of hot water.—Strong martial, or vitriolic waters are not uncommon.—Bituminous waters, or those impregnated with Naphta, are not unfrequent.

There are in Russia a considerable number of canals; the construction of which was a principal object with Peter the Great. Some canals were begun by his orders, but were afterwards left unfinished from the difficulties which arose in the progress of the work. Four particularly derive their origin from him, viz. 1. That to Cronstadt, which, after being carried upwards of two versts, was then abandoned. 2. The Ladoga canal, which in length is one hundre and four versts, and seventy fathoms in breadt 3. A canal, along which, by means of so rivers, a communication is formed between Mo co and the Don. 4. That at Vishnei-Volotsho by means of which a passage is had from t Caspian into the Volga; and thence, in co junction with some rivers and lakes, into t Neva, and so into the Baltic. The late empre from the very beginning of her reign, bestow a peculiar attention to this important object, a actually caused three canals to be dug, besid those of Cronstadt and St. Petersburg; in ord particularly to render more commodious t passage from the Caspian into the Baltic; a then by means of rivers, to connect the Caspi with the Baltic; and then by means of so rivers, united by canals, to join the Caspian the White Sea. Several other plans have be set on foot, namely, the uniting of the Dnies the Dniepr, and the Volga.—Almost all t rivers of Siberia disembogue themselves into t Frozen Ocean. Not one of all that take th rise in Siberia, runs to the countries of the Mo gols, Bukharians, Kalmuks, and Tartars; whe as many of those which rise in the Mongol and the country of the Kalmuks, flow northwa through Siberia. They are so commodious f navigation, that a vessel might go from th through St. Petersburg to Selenhinsk, where is only navigable two voloks;* one between t river Tschussovaia and the Taghil, and t other one between the Ket and the Yesniss the latter of about ninety versts, and the form not so wide.

SECTION III.

General View of the Nations which compose the Russian Empire, whether descended from the Sclavonians, Finns, Mongoles, Tartars, or other Tribe

THE whole Russian territory at present consists of fifty alike organized provinces, which are called governments or viceroyalties. As in this distribution less regard was had to the superficial contents than to the population, so are the areal dimensions of the governments general various; while the population, with a few ceptions, is pretty equal. Each government again divided into several circles; some of t largest have also a farther distribution into d

* Avolok in the Russian language, signifies nothing more than a small tract of land between any two rivers that run nearly in a parallel between those two rivers, and ha communication.

tric

tricts. In each circle is a circle-town, where the circle-administration has its seat, and one of these circle-towns is at the same time the government-town, in which the governor-general and the principal officers reside, and by which the whole government is usually denominated.

Beside these fifty governments, belonging to the Russian empire, are two more countries, having a military-civil constitution, namely, the country of the Donskoy-Kozaks, and the country of the Euxine-Kozaks. Two-and-fifty provinces therefore, properly speaking, compose the Russian empire: the Georgian states, Harduella and Kakhetty, several petty districts of people, in the parts of Caucasus, with the country of the Kirghis-Kozaks, are to be reckoned among the countries under the protection and in the dependence of Russia.

Great part of the country now called Russia was, in periods of remote antiquity, inhabited towards the north-east and north, by a people of Finnish origin, perhaps descended from the ancient Scythians. Towards the north-west, were tribes consisting of a motley race of Sauromates and Grecian colonists; and from them are descended the modern Lithuanians, Lettorians, Livonians, and Courlanders; as were also the ancient Prussians. The whole southern part of Russia, even to the Krimea, was for some time inhabited by Goths; and, between the Volga, the Don, and Mount Caucasus, dwelled a nation descended from the Medes, called Sauromates, that is, the northern Medes. In process of time, when nations of barbarians issued, one after the other, in swarms, from the east, and some of the different tribes of Goths had, since the middle of the third century, penetrated into the western regions of the Roman empire; part of the Sauromates found themselves under the necessity of retiring farther toward the north and the west. Even at that early period they had the same political constitution we still see prevalent among them. Each individual of the nation was either master or slave. Those who were of distinction among them, called themselves tribes, slaf, and slavnè, or noblemen; whence again, all such as either were renowned for great atchievements, or only capable of performing them, were afterwards in like manner styled slavnè. Under this denomination it was that they became known to the Europeans, who were not till very lately acquainted with the particular tribes of those nations. These tribes had their appellation frequently from some river, town, or district. So the Polabes were named after the Laba, or Elbe; *po*, in the Sclavonian and Russian tongues, signifying *near*. The Pomeranians dwelt *po moree*, or *near the sea*.

No other country throughout the globe contains such a mixture and diversity of inhabitants. Russians and Tartars, Germans and Mongoles, Finns and Tonguses, live here at immense distances, and in the most different climates, as fellow-citizens of one state, amalgamated by their political constitution, but by bodily frame, language, religion, manners, and mode of life, diversified by the most extraordinary contrasts. It is true, there are some European countries in which we find more than one nation living under the same civil constitution: whereas in Russia dwell not only some, but a whole multitude of distinct nations; each of them having its own language, though in some cases debased and corrupted, yet generally sufficient for generic classification; each retaining its religion and manners, though political regulations and a more extensive commerce produce in some a greater uniformity; the generality of the main stems, in short, bearing in their bodily structure, and in the features of their faces, the distinctive impression of their descent, which neither time nor commixture with other nations have been able entirely to efface.

This extraordinary variety of inhabitants, while it gives great attraction to the study of Russian statistics, adds likewise to its difficulties. Instructive and interesting as it is to the reflecting observer, to trace the human being through every degree of civilization, in the several classes of manners, and in all the forms of civil society; yet toilsome and dry is the occupation which must necessarily precede that satisfaction. The united efforts of the numerous inquisitive historians, both foreign and domestic, who have employed themselves on these subjects, have hitherto been able to cast but a feeble light on the origin of the greater part of the nations of the Russian empire, and the researches of many of them have been lost in traditions, the romantic obscurity whereof has left us no hope of arriving at the truth.

Besides the Sclavonians, to whom the predominant

minant nation belongs, there are in the Russian empire three main national stems, whose original identity is historically placed beyond all doubt, and among whom several other tribes are to be counted as relative or collateral branches, namely, Finns, Mongoles, and Tartars. To these may be added the Tunguses; who, though not a primitive stock, yet are the only one of their race in Russia. A sixth class is formed by those nations, with whose language and history we are still too much unacquainted for being able with any degree of certainty to assign them a place in the national system at large; and this classification is terminated by the dispersed multitudes of European and Asiatic nations who have settled here and there in particular provinces; either as conquerors with violence, or voluntarily and on invitation as colonists: but their number is inconsiderable.

The Sclavonian stock is one of the most remarkable and most widely extended in the world. Next to the Arabians, there is no people throughout the globe that has diffused its language, its dominion, and its colonies to so surprising an extent. From the shores of the Adriatic northwards as far as the Frozen Ocean, and from the shores of the Baltic through the whole length of Europe and Asia, as far as America, and to the neighbourhood of Japan, we every where meet with Sclavonian nations, either dominant or dominated. All the branches of this grand stock, who have formed peculiar states, may be ranged by their present condition in seven classes, that is, into Russian, Polish, Bohemian, German, Illyrian, Hungarian, and Turkish Sclavonians. Three of these branches we find in the spacious territory of the modern Russian empire: the Russians, the Poles, and the Servians.

The aborigines of Russia were of two races: Finns and Sclavonians. The former possessed the regions of the Volga and the Duna; the latter dwelt about the Dnieper and the Upper Don.

A second main stem of the nations dwelling in Russia is that of the Finns, of which, though not one branch has ever arisen into a ruling nation; yet, as being the common stock of most of the northern nations of Europe, is exceedingly remarkable for its antiquity and its wide extent, from Scandinavia to a great distance in the Asiatic regions of the north; and thence again to the shores of the Volga and the Caspian. Dispersed as all the Finnish nations are in this prodigious space, yet the resemblance in bodily frame, in national character, in language, and in manners is preserved. It is scarcely less remarkable, that the generality of the Finnish races still dwell only in the north, which has ever been their favourite abode, and on which account they are likewise called inhabitants of morasses or fens; and the chace and fishery have ever been with each of them their chief occupation and trade.

The Mongoles, a nation remarkable as the disturbers of the world, every where extended their ravages, as if the annihilation of the human race had been their ultimate object. Had not their violences brought about revolutions in the state of governments and of mankind, and produced consequences that are still visible, the historian would never have profaned his pen by recording the catastrophies of these barbarians, and their bloody trophies would along ago have been consigned to oblivion. In the ninth century three nations appeared roaming about the northern side of China and the Korea; in the west, or in modern Mongolia, the Mong-u, were in the sequel called Monk-kos, and Mongoles. Part of these people are the same with the Tunguses. The Mongoles, at present among the inhabitants of the Russian empire, in the seventeenth century withdrew themselves from the Chinese dominion, and voluntarily put themselves under the Russian supremacy. The Russian Mongoles inhabit the regions about the Selenga in the Irkutskoi district of the government of Irkutsk.

A fourth primitive stock of the nations dwelling in Russia are the Tartars, who compose a distinct nation which originally belonged to the great Turkish stock. The first known mother-country of the Turks or Tartars lies on the eastern and northern sides of the Caspian, where their descendants have still their seats. Formerly they were spread from the Oxus or Gihon into the Mongoley and the Orenburg territory. Here they served from time immemorial as a mound against the incursions of the nations who would penetrate from the east to the west or contrariwise, till at length the Mongoles, like a rushing stream that has burst its banks, swept away all opposition, and established several independent kingdoms,

Modes of Travelling used by the YAKOUTES *a Nation of* RUSSIAN TARTARY.

doms, which were, however, after a lapse of many years, subjugated in their conquered countries; and the whole remains of this nation, once so great, now subsist under foreign sovereignty. Many hordes belong, either as subjects, or as dependent wards of the Russian empire; others are in like manner appanages to the Ottoman Turks, or subject to the great Mogul, to China, and to Persia. The Tartars belonging to the Russian empire inhabit the northern coasts of the Euxine and the Caspian, the north side of the Caucasean Mountains, the extensive steppes from the river Ural to the Soongarey, the southern Ural, in Siberia, the southern frontier mountains and steppes from the Tobol quite over the Yenissey, and the deserts in the middle region of the Lena; likewise not a few Tartar colonies are dispersed among the Russian habitations, particularly in the governments of Ufa, Kazan, and Tobolsk.

As these regions have for the most part, since the flourishing epocha of the Mongole-Tartarian monarchy, been inhabited by them, frequent memorials are found there of their ancient grandeur, magnificence, and culture, of which some are of an antiquity demonstrably of above a thousand years. It is no rare thing to come suddenly upon the ruins of some town, which, in its crumbling remains, plainly evinces the progress which the arts had made among a people whom we are wont to consider as barbarians*. Still more frequently are seen sepulchres, which, by their inscriptions, throw light upon the history of this nation; and, in the vessels and implements preserved in them, supply us with interesting proofs of its opulence, its taste, and its industry†. The Tartars, next to the principal nation, constitute the most numerous part of the inhabitants of the Russian empire‡. The branches of this nation which belong to Russia are, the Proper Tartars, the Nogayans, the Meschtscheryaks, the Baschkirs, the Kirghises, the Bukharians, the Yakutes, and the Teleutes; to which may in some sort be added the tribes of Caucasus.

The Mandshure swarms comprise two nations, viz. the Mandshures or Mandshu, and the Tunguses. Both nations are related by descent, as appears from their traditions, their language, and their bodily structure. The whole of these people together possess extensive countries and deserts in eastern Siberia and in the northern Mongolia: the Mandshu are even still very powerful; one of their princely families being in hereditary possession of the throne of China. The Mandshu, particularly the Daourian stem of that people, while they inhabited the modern Russia, were by no means an uncivilised people. According to their written accounts and traditions, they had a constitution composed of nomadic and civil parts, and adapted to their situation, their mode of life, and their various exigencies. They lived peaceably among themselves and with their neighbours, sedulously attending to agriculture, grazing, and mining. Traces are still seen about the Bargusin and other rivers, of their gardens, orchards, and fields artfully laid out, and watered with artificial water-courses. The Daourian mine works on the banks of the Argoon, still famous under the name of Nertschinskian Mines, as well as all Daouria, afford numerous proofs of the mineral labours of the ancient Daouarians.

That the Tunguses originally composed one people with the Mandshu, is apparent not only from the resemblance of their features, manners, and customs, but also chiefly from the agreement of their languages. The Tunguses called themselves Œvœes, probably from the supposed founder of their race; or, in the manner of most

* Near Kasimof, on the Oka, a circle town of the government of Riazan, is standing a Tartarian suburb, which seems formerly to have been the court residence of a khan. Among the ruins is a lofty round tower, an oratory or chapel, the remains of a palace and a mausoleum, all constructed of brick or burnt tiles. Not far from Astrakhan are the ruins of the old Astrakhan; and higher up the Volga, near Tzaritzin, similar heaps of rubbish, which have evidently been a spacious town. On the Volga, below the mouth of the Kama, are found well preserved and partly magnificent remains of the ancient Brachtimof, or Bolgar. In the citadel of Kazan are still seen monuments of the Tartarian monarchy. On the Irtysh, in the vicinity of Tobolsk, are the remains of Sibir, the capital. In Siberia, and the Kirghisian steppe, are many ruins of towns not to mention memorials of inferior consequence.

† In the Museum of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburg, are preserved a multitude of vessels, diadems, weapons, military trophies, ornaments of dress, coins, &c. which have been found in the Tartarian tombs on the Volga and in Siberia. They are of gold, silver, and copper. The greatest antiquity of the tombs is eleven hundred years, the latest four hundred.

‡ Not long since it was so; but at present, owing to the last division of ill-fated Poland, the Poles are more numerous than the Tartars.

of the Siberian tribes, from the word which in their language signifies *men*. The extensive deserts, in which they have now their nomadizing seats, reach from west to east, from the Yenissey across the Lena as far as the Amoor and the Eastern Ocean. From north to south they keep between the 53d and 65th degree of north latitude, and accordingly neither touch upon the Soongarian borders nor the coasts of the Frozen Ocean. Being a very accommodating people, they have admitted into these their seats; namely, the Ostiaks, Samoyedes, and particularly Yakutans. The districts are mostly in the government of Irkutsk. When the Russians attacked the Tunguses, the latter displayed more courage than the other Siberians, and not till the close of the sixteenth century were they brought into that imperfect state of submission in which they are held at present. The Tunguses on the coasts of the Eastern Ocean are known by the name of Lamuts.

Besides the several nations which have been mentioned, and the branches arising from them, there dwell in the Russian empire some nations whose origin is utterly uncertain, and who seem to stand in no relation with the branches that are known. These, from several particulars, may be reduced to two classes, one comprising the Samoyedian, and the other the Eastern Siberian Nations.

The history and the origin of the Samoyedes is not more known even among the people themselves, than by the Russians and the rest of Europe. Leading a nomadic life in bleak and savage deserts, without the arts of writing and chronology, they endeavour to save from oblivion the memory of their transactions and heroes only by songs; which, perhaps with some truth for their foundation, are embellished with so many fabulous additions, that even this mode of tradition affords us no means of becoming acquainted with their ancient state. The cold and trackless wilds of the Samoyede nations have never yet been trod by the foot of any inquisitive traveller; the collectors of the tribute and surveyors, from whom we might expect some sort of information, have naturally more in view their proper business and the advantages of traffic, than the collecting of historical accounts; and out of their territory individuals from the Samoyede tribes are very seldom seen. The present home of the proper Samoyedes are the coas of the Frozen Ocean, from about the 65th de gree of north latitude, quite up to the sea-shor Novaya Zemlia indeed is not inhabited by the but eastward across the Yenissey extend th coasts on which they live up to the 75th degre of latitude. In these regions, the coldest, rudes and most desolate of all the earth, dwell th Samoyedes, solitary indeed and scattered, fro the White Sea to the other side of the Yenisse and almost up to the Lena, therefore both Europe and in Siberia. They call themselv Nenetsch, persons, or Chosovo men. Sever petty tribes may also be classed with the Samoy edes.

The nations which we comprehend under th general head of Eastern Siberian nations are th Yukaghires, the Kamtschadales, the Koriak the Tschuktsches, and the inhabitants of th north-eastern Siberian-American Archipelag the Kurilians, and the Aleütans.

There are also in Russia very considerab colonies of the two wandering nations, who a every-where at home, and have no-where a country, viz. Jews and Gypsies. The Jews a in great numbers throughout the Polish provinc which now belong to the Russian empire; a they are seen in pretty strong bodies in the bo ders of the neigbbouring governments: where in the rest of Russia they are found very sparing ly, and in most parts not at all. Taurida, how ever, is an exception to this, where they a partly fixed as ancient inhabitants. At the tim when the Chazares were masters of the Krime even some of their sovereigns, according to the traditions, possessed the religion of Moses. The Gypsies are particularly in the provinces o both Great and Little Russia, where they stro about in large companies.

From this contracted view, in which some o the petty tribes have been entirely omitted, appears that the inhabitants of the Russian em pire form at least eighty distinct nations, as we in their lineage as in their manners and the language, essentially different from each other. To see so extraordinary a multitude of nation and tribes united in one body politic is certainl a curious phænomenon, of which we shoul look in vain for another example in the histor of the world. This mingled mass of people, s extremely numerous, presents a spectacle whic

must be highly interesting to every reflecting observer. Its physical, civil, and moral state, forms a grand and instructive picture, in which are seen all the modifications whereof this state, by the most various causes and operations, is susceptible: a commentary on the history of mankind, illustrative of the gradual developement of civilization by the most lively and striking example.—On the whole scale of human nature, from the rude and brutal condition to the summit of sensible and intellectual refinement, there is scarcely a remarkable transition which may not be matched from the list of these people. Here are seen nations of hunters and fishers, roaming about their forests, without permanent habitations, defying all dangers and indifferent to the accommodations of life, who have scarcely any notion of property, who feed upon raw flesh and unprepared fruits, and wrap themselves in the skins of the beasts with which they contend for their existence, and by which they sustain their lives.—Near to these we find pastoral nations, obtaining their nourishment, their clothing, and even a sort of affluence solely from their flocks and herds; living with them in moveable huts on everlasting perambulations, and passing their days in a patriarchal simplicity of manners, generally without the art of writing, and without the knowledge and use of money.—Again, we behold nations, who devote themselves to the labours of agriculture, carrying on their various occupations, one while incomplete and directed to single objects, at another on a general scale and with ingenuity and industry. We observe the progress of culture, in regions where the virgin earth, the first time for thousands of years, opens her bosom to the strange hand of the countryman; and where, instead of temporary huts of felt, houses and villages arise to our view.—With equal surprise we see villages changed into towns, and houses into palaces, where productive industry has erected her manufactories, and where diligence collects the products of the distant parts of the world for traffic.

As all the gradations of living are found among the inhabitants of the Russian empire, so we see also examples of all the modifications of civil constitution. Among the Tschuktsches and the inhabitants of the Eastern Isles we scarcely find an idea of social connection; among other nations in the east of Siberia and among the Laplanders, we perceive in the family government of fathers and elders, the first rude sketch of monarchy; but far more considerable is the number of those who divide themselves into stems and hordes, which are again parted into races. A pure democracy is discernible in the generality of the branches of the Kozaks; while the Kalmucs and Kirghises have a mixed republican-monarchy. Not less numerous are the corruptions of these several forms of government, which at last dissolve into the elements of unlimited monarchy.—Some nations have a family nobility hereditary in their offspring; while others have only a personal nobility, founded on the respectability of age, on the influence of wealth, or on the brilliancy of personal talents.—Of all the modifications of civil constitution none is perhaps so singular as the military democracy of the Kozaks, the essence and aim of which is war, and even of which we have been witnesses of a corruption, in its denying the other half of the human race all civil and domestic community.

Not less edifying and diversified is the view of the religious ideas and forms of worship which these nations have adopted for the service and the honour of the Supreme Being. We find in the Russian empire not only the generality of the known parties and seats of the Christian faith, but the Jewish, the Mahammedan, the Lama, and the Schamane religions have here their numerous votaries.—From the most monstrous polytheism to the total unacquaintance with any idea of a supreme intelligence, there are innumerable windings in which the human intellect may stray, and the religious opinions of the savage and half-savage tribes of the Russian empire present us with no inconsiderable supplement to the history of these aberrations.

Great as the difference is between the modes of life, constitutions, and religions of the inhabitants of the Russian empire, so motley and various is also the picture of their physical condition, their manners, customs, dresses, dwellings, utensils, and wenpons. What a contrast between the flat, broad, beardless physiognomy and the yellow figure painted skin of the east Siberian nations, and the European form and complexion of the several genuine Russian stems! What a distance from the earth-holes of the Samoyedes to the palaces of residence, from the needlework of fish bones and sinews to the weaving of tapestry,

tapestry, from the sling and the arrow to the fire arms of the modern mode of war in Europe! If the view of such a great and striking diversity in all the concerns of mankind, and in all the displays of their activity, afford instructive and entertaining matter for reflection, our astonishment is not less excited by the consideration, that this prodigious mass of people can be kept in the most unconditional submission to the unlimited will of one ruler, and the confluence of all forms of government, however great their diversity, maintained in the general form of one state. The key to this singular phœnomenon is to be drawn from the political and religious toleration which marks the spirit of the Russian monarchy. In no state of the world is there a complete uniformity and unity of administration, though nowhere is the physical and moral variety greater than here. Forbearance is shewn in all regards, which do not oppose the being and aim of the government; and the omnipotence of the unlimited will is only apparent where the direction of all the energies is necessary to one end.—Thus the individuals of this extensive empire have a sphere in which they may range, till, by their gradual approach to civilization, one great and happy nation may arise from the multifarious aggregate of hives of which it consists.

SECTION IV.

Of the Population of the Russian Empire, and the Public Institutions for the Preservation and Increase of the Population.

THE Russian empire, which, in regard to its superficial contents, is exceeded by no country in the world, must also, in regard to the number of its people, be reckoned among the most powerful. By the revision or enumeration of the people, made in 1783, in order to levy the personal tax on head-money, it was found to be, in the forty-one viceroyalties of which Russia at that time consisted, of male inhabitants: Merchants, one hundred and seven thousand four hundred and eight; burghers, two hundred and ninety-three thousand seven hundred and ninety-three; Odnodvortzi and free countrymen, seven hundred and seventy-three thousand six hundred and fifty-six; exempt from taxes, three hundred and ten thousand eight hundred and thirty; crown boors, four million six hundred and seventy-four thousand six hundred and three; private boors, six million six hundred and seventy-eight thousand two hundred and thirty-nine; making a total of twelve millions eight hundred and thirty-eight thousand five hundred and twenty-nine: which doubled on account of females, amounts to twenty-five million six hundred and seventy-seven thousand persons of both sexes. This, however, is supposed to be much below the truth; for since the year 1783, there have been great acquisitions; so that the population has considerably increased; therefore we may with safety assert that the population at present amounts to thirty-six millions.

Of this prodigious mass the greater part by far belongs to European Russia. The five governments of Perm, Ufa, Kolhyvan, Tobolsk, and Irkutsk, comprehended under the general name of Siberia, contain all together, according to the revision lists, only two million two hundred and fifteen thousand, or, with the unnumbered tribes and classes, perhaps above three million five hundred thousand inhabitants.

To preserve and increase the population of the empire, the Russian government have adopted several modes. It is certain that Nature, for wise and good purposes, has made the first period of human life dependent on the nursing and care of others, and the whole of its physical existence on a thousand accidental circumstances: but no less certain is it that man is his own destroyer, and that the physical and moral corruption of large societies begets numberless new evils the origin whereof can never be charged on Nature. If, for example, by well-attested observations, of a thousand children nourished by their mothers, only three hundred died; but of just the same number who are suckled by nurses five hundred are a prey to death,—if in Russia annually two hundred thousand grown persons are brought prematurely into the bills of mortality

tality by the immoderate use of strong liquors,—this surely is not the fault of Nature, who neither teaches us to keep nurses nor to drink brandy, and who, if we follow her simple and beneficent dictates, renders even mortal distempers innoxious.

Unquestionable as it is that the generality of physical evils proceed from man himself, not less so is it that he has the eradication or the mitigation of them in his own power. The care of his own preservation is implanted in the breast of each individual, which only needs some understanding and conduct in order to reach its end: in civil society the care for the preservation of all is a duty incumbent on the state, and requires to be supported with so much the greater energy the more its strength and welfare are dependent on that care. No one will make it matter of doubt, that a wise government possesses great and powerful means to check the mortality of its subjects; and of what may be effected in this regard by public institutions, history affords us instructive and striking examples.

From the following representation it will appear how much in Russia the government has hitherto done in this important part of public concern. A country in which most of the institutions for the preservation of the human race are of a new creation, and where the people live dispersed over an amazing surface, great difficulties naturally present themselves to the projections that may be undertaken for furthering the noble end for which they were set on foot.

Medicine, as a science, claimed the first attention; but it was not domesticated in Russia till the commencement of the eighteenth century. For though before that period foreign physicians were individually maintained at the court of the tsars, yet public medical institutions were unknown to the empire. Peter the Great first called expert physicians and surgeons, erected hospitals, and endowed a Medical Chancery, which had the supervisal of the whole state of medicine, committing it to the care of a foundation and enlargement. The Medical Chancery became extinct, in consequence of the erection by Catharine II. in 1763, of the Imperial Medical College, whose foundation forms a new and important epocha in the history of physic in Russia*.

Much has been done since the time of Peter the Great to advance the knowledge of the healing art by the founding of hospitals, establishing of apothekes, and inviting of foreign physicians. The sphere of this imperial college extends over the whole body of physic, and all medical persons throughout, excepting only the medical establishment of the court. It is its duty to see that all the governments and circles are provided with the requisite physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries, according to the imperial precept; it watches over the observance of the duties of every individual under its direction, and has inherently the power to reward and to punish. It has the inspection over the management of the apothekes belonging to the crown, over the hospitals and seminaries of education. It examines all physicians, surgeons, and operators before they can be permitted to practise in the empire, from which even academical testimonies and degrees will not exempt, and publishes in the Gazette the names of the persons to whom that permission is granted. It is competent to confer the degree of doctor in medicine. On learning that some infectious distemper has any where made its appearance, it loses no time in adopting the proper means for stopping its progress. Lastly, it attends to the improvement of the healing art in general; and to this end collects the cases transmitted by the several physicians of the empire, and publishes them from time to time in the Latin language†.

It is only of late years that hospitals have been founded in Russia for the sick, but they now become pretty numerous. The town hospital of St. Petersburg, which was founded in 1784, is built in one of the skirts of the city, and consists of a large, brick, insulated building of handsome but simple architecture. The ground floor is devoted to the œconomical purposes of the institution, and the upper stories are occupied by

* In the express instructions to the college and its members is the following: "Two things the college are to make their principal object: to preserve the people of the empire by the arts of medicine, to educate Russian doctors, surgeons, operators, and apothecaries, and in the next place to put the apothekes and their œconomy on a good footing.

† Among other establishments in different parts of the empire, the college, in 1795, erected its own printing office, with a type-foundery adjoining, which has already published several works, the typographical neatness whereof does honour to the overseer.

the patients. The rooms are lofty and spacious; and instead of ventilators, some of the window shutters are pannelled with wire work. This house receives all necessitous patients, venereal excepted, and attends their cure without fee or reward. All patients on admission are immediately bathed and have their heads shaven: this done, they receive the hospital clothing, and severally a bed. In 1790 six contiguous buildings of timber on brick foundations were erected behind the main edifice, by the college of general provision, and furnished with two hundred and fifty beds.

In the mad house, which with its small end abuts upon the back front of the main structure, is upon the same footing, and under the same direction, are forty-four rooms in two ranges, the one for male and the other for female lunatics. A broad passage divides them; the door of each chamber is fastened with a spring latch, which the keeper can open from without. The raving are not confined with chains but with leather thongs, while the quiet are suffered to walk freely in the passage or in the court. The whole establishment, treatment, method of cure, and diet, are well conducted, as plainly appears from their effects.

Beside the above and many others of a similar description, there are several Military hospitals, both for land and sea forces. For the land forces, exclusive of the two general land hospitals at St. Petersburg and Mosco, there are fourteen large field hospitals at Astrakhan, Bogoyavlensk, Kherson, Kriukof, Riga, Reval, Elizabethgorod, Orenburg, Vyborg, Frederiksham, Kazad, Lubenau, Smolensk, and in Caucasus, without reckoning the battalion lazarets, which are every where in great numbers. The Military hospital at St. Petersburg has commonly a thousand beds; but in time of war, and when recruits are raising, the number is twice or three times as great.

The eleven Naval hospitals at present subsisting are at St. Petersburg, Cronstadt, Oranienbaum, Riga, Archangel, Kazan, Tazanrok, Bogoyavlensk, Kherson, Reval, and Sevastopol. The Naval hospital at Cronstadt during the Swedish war was obliged to admit annually from sixteen thousand eight hundred to twenty-five thousand patients, a circumstance which may serve to shew the amazing extent to which these hospitals are extended.

Exclusive of the above there are houses for lying-in-women, foundling hospitals, small pox hospitals, and pest-houses: a particular description of them all would be unnecessary. We shall, however, say a few words on the Foundling Hospital at Mosco, which is a most noble and beneficent institution, by far exceeding that of London.

This foundling hospital receives children at all hours of the day or night, without any question being put to the bringer, except whether the child has been baptized, and whether it has a name. Children may also be carried to the parish priests, or to the monasteries and poor houses of the city, who immediately send them away to the foundling hospital, where the deliverer receives two rubles for each child. This is truly great. The carriers of such children are by day and night under the special protection of the police. At the reception of every child, the day, the time, and the sex are noted in a book with all that the bringer declares of the circumstances of the child, the clothes and other articles that he brings with it, and the birth marks and tokens observed upon it. Hereupon the baptism ensues, if not already administered; the name is entered in a book, and a little crucifix is hung round its neck with the number under which it is registered. It is now examined by the surgeon and brought to the childrens' rooms, where it receives new linen and clothes from the magazine; meanwhile the articles of dress brought with it, if they be not too miserable, are deposited in a magazine apart, there to be kept. The children are either suckled by strong and healthy nurses, each of whom can nourish two babes, or delivered to dry nurses who bring them up with other food. The physical education alone continues two years, when they come into the great room. Till the sixth year boys and girls remain together, and during this period are habituated to easy employments. With the seventh begins the moral and civil education; thenceforward the preservation of the physical existence is a subordinate object*. In the first twenty years since the opening of this hospital, including those born

* On the manner in which this beneficial plan is executed we will hear at least one witness, by citing the judgment of a sagacious and attentive observer, who, being an English man and a traveller, could probably have no interest in dissembling

born in the house, there were admitted thirty-seven thousand six hundred and seven children.—There are several other hospitals on a similar plan founded in different parts of the empire, particularly at St. Petersburg, Tula, Kaluga, Yaroslaf, Kazan, &c.

SECTION V.

Natural Characteristics of the Inhabitants.

THE Russians are a moderate-sized, vigorous, and durable race of men. The growth of men and longevity of this people are very different in different districts; but in general rather large than small, and they are commonly well built. It is very rare to see a person naturally deformed; which doubtless is chiefly owing to their loose garments and the great variety of bodily exercises. All the sports and pastimes of the youth have a tendency to expand the body and give flexibility to the muscles.

Easy as it is occasionally by comparison to discriminate the Russian by his outward make from other Europeans, it will, however, be found very difficult to point out the principal lineaments of the national physiognomy; as speaking features are in general extremely rare. The following may be deemed common and characteristical; a small mouth, thin lips, white teeth, little eyes, a low forehead; the nose has a great variety of forms: it is most frequently seen to be small and turned upwards. The beard is almost always very bushy; the colour of the hair varies through all the shades from dark brown to red, but it is seldom quite black. The expression of the countenance is gravity and good-nature or sagacity.—Hearing and sight are usually very acute; but the other senses more or less obtuse by their manner of living and the climate. The gait and gestures of the body have a peculiar and often impassioned vivacity, partaking, even with the mere rustics, of a certain complaisance and an engaging manner.

The same features, on the whole, are conspicuous in the female sex, but in general improved, and here and there actually dignified. A delicate skin and a ruddy complexion are in the vulgar idea the first requisites of beauty; but no where is paint so essential an article of the toilet as here, even among the lowest classes of the people. As the growth of the Russian ladies is not confined by any bandages, stays, or other compresses, the proportions of the parts usually far exceeds the line which the general taste of Europe has prescribed for the contour of a fine shape.—The early maturity of girls, at which they generally arrive in the twelfth or thirteenth year is only to be accounted for, in so cold a climate, by the frequent use of hot baths, which, while it accelerates this expansion, also brings

dissembling the truth. "The rooms of the foundling hospital," says Mr. Coxe. "are lofty and large; the dormitories, which are separate from the work-rooms, are very airy, and the beds are not crowded: each foundling, even every infant, has a separate bed; the bedsteads are of iron; the sheets are changed every week, and the linen three times a week. In going over the rooms I was particularly struck with their neatness; even the nurseries were uncommonly clean, and without any unwholesome smells. No cradles are allowed, and rocking is particularly forbidden. The infants are not swaddled according to the custom of the country, but loosely dressed. I could be no judge, merely by visiting the hospital, whether the children were well instructed and the regulations well observed; but I was perfectly convinced from their behaviour, that they were in general happy and contented, and could perceive from their looks that they were remarkably healthy. This latter circumstance must be owing to the uncommon care which is paid to cleanliness, both in their persons and rooms.

"In another visit which I paid to this hospital, I saw the foundlings at dinner: the girls and boys dine separately. The dining rooms, which are upon the ground floor, are large and vaulted, and distinct from their work-rooms. The first class sit at table; the rest stand: the little children are attended by servants; but those of the first and second class alternately wait on each other. Each foundling has a napkin, pewter plate, a knife, fork, and spoon: the napkin and table cloth are clean three times in the week. They rise at six, dine at eleven, and sup at six. The little children have bread at seven and four. When they are not employed in their necessary occupations the utmost freedom is allowed, and they are encouraged to be as much in the air as possible. The whole was a lovely sight; and the countenances of the children expressed the utmost content and happiness." See Coxe's Travels through Poland, Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, vol. ii. p. 63. 8vo edition.

brings on early decay of beauty and solidity of bodily frame. Married women seldom retain the fresh complexion and the peculiar charms of youth beyond the first lying-in. By their baths, their paint, and the great submission in which they live with their husbands, the moderate share of beauty with which nature has endowed these daughters of the northern earth is generally faded at an age when the husband is just entering on his prime.

Among the collateral branches of the Russian stock but few variations are discernible in the bodily form. The Malo-Russians have somewhat of the Poles in their physiognomy; the Donkozaks partake of the Tartarian, and the Uralkozaks of the Tartarian and Kalmuck, which proceeds from the commixture, wherein these people have long been accustomed to live. With all of them, however, the main lineaments are Russian, and so impossible to be mistaken, that the form of the face alone affords the strongest proof of their parentage.

The bodily frame of the Russians is excellent. Their happy organization, their cheerful and blithe temper, that hardness which they oppose to every inconveniency, the natural simplicity of their manner of living, and their rude, but dry and wholesome climate, procure to the great mass of the people a degree of physical complacency of which few other nations can boast.

There are not many peculiar diseases prevalent among the Russians, and against most of them they know how to guard themselves by simple diet and domestic remedies. The women every where bring forth with great facility, and usually in the bath-rooms; the number of still-born children is therefore, in comparison with other countries, extremely small. There the small-pox and measles carry off not nearly so many children as in the greater part of the rest of Europe; but on the other hand the effects of venereal disorders are more dangerous and infectious, the virulence of it being unhappily increased by the cold.—In Siberia, sometimes in summer, a disease called by the Germans the lustseuche or air sickness appears, an emidemical disease attacking both man and beast. It shews itself by a bile on some parts of the body, and, if no speedy assistance can be had, is mortal, though not infectious; but they have now found out an easy and safe method of cure.—About the Upper Lena croups or goitress are common enough; young people however, get quit of them on coming to parts where they have better water.—In the neighbourhood of the Caspian there is a horrible, tedious, and deadly leprosy, which happily, however, becomes less and less frequent in its attacks, and is generally called, from its former country, the Krimean disease.

Most of the household remedies of the common Russians are truly heroic. A mixture of leeks, garlic, Spanish-pepper, and brandy, seems with them to be the grand panacea, and is applied without regard or distinction in all diseases of whatever kind and how opposite soever; so also aconite, hellebore, and the like, are in high reputation for their medicinal virtues. In pains and aches of the bones or limbs, and in cholick complaints, they burn moxa of artemisia, &c. on the bare skin.—In general the common Russians use but few medicines; supplying their place in all cases by the sweating baths: a practice so universal among them, and which has had decided an influence on the whole physical state of the people, that we must absolutely dwell a little longer upon it*.

* The use of the bath, that venerable relic of the manners of the ancient world, is now almost entirely confined to the oriental nations, where it ministers both to health and to luxury, and is perpetuated by religion. In Europe it has been gradually declining for several centuries, though it was here also in some sort interwoven with religion; Russia and Hungary are at present the only countries in this quarter of the world, where it is still the custom to bathe after the manner of the ancients. In Russia particularly the bath makes so much a part of the system of living, that it is used by people of every age and in all circumstances, by infants, by women at their lying-in, in almost all sicknesses, before and after a journey, after hard work, &c. The bath is a necessary of life so indispensible to the common people, that they frequent it as often as possible well or ill, and without any particular occasion once a week at least. Persons of the middle station, in good circumstances, and the great, usually construct vapour baths after the Russian fashion in their own houses; though in these classes the practice is becoming more confined to foreign manners gain ground among them.

The baths have been common throughout Russia from time immemorial; they are described by Nester so long ago as the eleventh century precisely as they are constituted at present.—Among the ancients the baths were public buildings, under the immediate cognizance of the government. Their invention was owing to cleanliness and convenience, but in the sequel all the graces of architecture were lavished upon

The Russian language is an improved dialect of the Sclavonian, which, with its characters is still in use in the office of religion. The Russian alphabet has forty-one letters, whereof some are only notes of accents in pronunciation. The language is rich in words, soft, expressive, and requires great pliancy in the organs of utterance. Seminaries have been founded of old in the episcopal seats; gymnasiums and the universities of Kief and Mosco are foundations of great antiquity. There was, however, a deficiency in schools; and therefore the late empress was constantly adding to their number. Besides these, here are institutions for the education of the military and the nobility, and for young ladies of quality; an academy also of sciences; and another for the study of the arts, which were entirely re-erected on a magnificent plan by Catharine II. to whose munificence likewise the nation is indebted for the establishment of an academy for the improvement of rural economy, and a society for the cultivation of the Russian language. In the several institutions for the purposes of education throughout the empire, the pupils are found in every necessary article, such as board, lodging, food, raiment, washing, &c. and are dependent on the foundation. Accordingly the entrance into these schools is accounted a service rendered to the country; and in reckoning the years of service, in order to promotion in rank, the years of attendance at school are always included.

The native Russians are of different stature; some are very tall, but few much below the usual height; several of them are remarkably strong limbed; in general they are lean, but well built. Those deformities which in other parts of Europe are mostly owing to the refinements of luxury introduced into education, are here but rarely seen: their mouth and eyes are small, the lips thin, the teeth even and beautiful, the nose, as every where, various, in general not large nor very aquiline; the forehead frequently low, and their aspect rather grave: the beard is strong and bushy, their hair lank, brown, flaxen, or red, seldom entirely black: in sight and hearing they are uncommonly acute: the organs of feeling, smell, and taste, are hardened, like all the rest of their body, by the rudeness of their cli-

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upon them, and at length luxury and voluptuousness so diverted them from their primitive purposes, that they were offensive and shocking even to the moralists of antiquity. Alexander was astonished at the magnificence of the baths in Persia: at Rome, under the emperors, there were once eight hundred and seventy of these edifices, that in point of magnificence and taste might pass for master-pieces of art; and which were doomed in aftertimes to be demolished by the Goths, or converted into churches by bishops.—In our days Hungary is the only country that can still shew baths equal in magnificence to those of the ancient Romans. In Russia, on the contrary, they are always of that simple construction which bespeaks their primitive and most essential destination.

Here the public baths usually consist of mean wooden houses, situated, whenever it is possible, by the side of a running stream. In the bath-room is a large vaulted oven, which when heated makes the paving-stones lying upon it red-hot; and adjoining to the oven is a kettle fixed in masonry, for the purpose of holding boiling water. Round about the walls are three or four rows of benches one above another like the seats of a scaffold. The room has little light, but here and there are apertures for letting the vapour escape; the cold water that is wanting being let in by small channels. Some baths have an anti-chamber for dressing and undressing; but in the most of them this is done in the open court-yard, which on that account has a bordered fence, and is provided with benches of planks.

By far the majority of the baths are constructed as they where described. In the country, in parts where wood is scarce, they sometimes consist of miserable caverns, commonly dug in the earth close to the bank of some river. In the houses of wealthy individuals, and in the palaces of the great, they are formed upon the same construction, but infinitely more elegant and convenient.

The heat in the bath-room is usually from thirty-two to forty degrees of Reaumur, and that greatly increased by the throwing of water every five minutes on the glowing hot stones in the chamber of the oven. By this means the heat often rises, especially on the uppermost bench, to forty-four degrees of that thermometer.—The bathers lie, stark naked, on one of the benches, where they perspire more or less in proportion to the heat of the humid atmosphere in which they are enveloped. In order the better to promote perspiration and completely to open the pores, they are first rubbed, and then gently flagellated with leafy branches of birch. After remaining awhile they come down from the sweating-bench and wash their body with warm or cold water, and at last plunge over head in a large tub of water. Many people throw themselves immediately from the bath room into the adjoining river as the youths of ancient Rome used to leap into a pond after the violent exercise of wrestling, or roll themselves in the snow in a frost of ten or twelve degrees.

The Russian baths, therefore, are sweating-baths: not the Roman tepidaria and caldaria of a moderate warmth, but very violent sweating-baths which to a person not habituated to the practice, bring on a real, though a gentle and almost voluptuous swoon. They are vapour baths, not water, nor yet dry sweating-baths; herein they differ from all the baths of antiquity as well as from those of the modern orientals; and this is also their essential excellence, that they are beneficial in such a variety of cases where hot water baths would be useless or even pernicious.

mate and manner of life. They are mostly of a choleric temperament; in gait and action they are brisk, lively, and agile.

The complection of the females is brunette, with a fine skin; many of them very handsome. Girls generally arrive early at maturity, numbers in their twelfth or thirteenth year; but many of them lose all their beauty after being married about a couple of years. The frequent use of the hot bath promotes an early developement, and as speedy a decay; and the hideous practice of painting spoils the skin.

The general disposition of the people is gay, careless even to levity, much addicted to sensuality, quick in comprehension, and prompt in execution. Violent in their passions, they easily mistake the golden mean, and not unfrequently rush into the contrary extreme. They are attentive, resolute, bold, and enterprising. To trade and barter they have an irresistible impulse. They are hospitable and liberal, frequently to their own impoverishment. Anxious solicitudes about the future here cause but few grey pates. In their intercourse with others, they are friendly, jovial, complaisant, very ready to oblige, not envious, slanderous, or censorious, and much given to reserve. From their natural and simple way of life, their wants are few, and those easily satisfied, leaving them leisure for recreations and repose; and the constant cheerfulness of their temper frees them from troublesome projects, procures them satisfaction in all situations, keeps them healthy and strong, and brings them to an undisquieted, contented, brisk, sometimes a very advanced old age.

In the different villages all over the empire we see the mechanical businesses of towns carried on; but more especially in the parts adjacent to the Volga, and in the vicinity of the governments of Mosco, Nishney-Novogorod, and Kazran.

The employments of the female sex, both in town and country, vary but little from those in the neighbouring countries. They see to the cleanliness of the house, spin, weave linen and coarse cloth on frames, in quality but little inferior to what is brought from Germany; they bleach, full, and colour, knot the ends of the threads for a span long, for table cloths, neck cloths, &c. make felt, bake bread every day, &c. In general they are kept closer to work, and fare harder than is customary among their European neighbours.

The country market towns and hamlets are commonly open; and are mostly built in irregular streets, with little kitchen-gardens and large yards to the houses. They are situated on the banks of the rivers, since the digging of wells is not in practice: as in most parts pebbles are not to be had in any considerable quantity the roads and streets are frequently made of timbers, or banks laid close together, having the upper part made flat with the hatchet. They contain many, not large, but good-looking churches, mostly of brick and plaister. The monasteries in and near the towns, from their strong walls, massy gates, and numerous church towers, have the appearance of castles. The fortresses dispersed about the country, have seldom earth-ramparts, mostly batteries of bauks laid one on the other, in the same manner as they build their houses; and about these a low palisade. The cannons stand on the gates, and upon the angles of the ramparts or batteries on wooden carriages. Their design is to keep the tributary tribes in awe, and the neighbouring nomades from the borders. Ostrogs, or towns surrounded with a palisade of upright pointed banks, are either in towns, where they serve as prisons for criminals, or solitary in various parts of the country, for the same purpose as the fortresses. Villages, of extremely various dimensions, and parishes are situated on the margin of rivers, brooks, lakes, and sometimes on meadows and springs. The parishes, or church villages, are sometimes very extensive; and contain, it may be five hundred or even a thousand and more farms, from three to seven churches many of brick, markets, and trafficking places. Large villages are frequently called slobodes and are less than church villages: the houses are ranged in strait streets, and the streets mostly laid with timbers. The proper Russian architecture is alike in towns and villages. A messuage consists of a dwelling-house, with little store rooms, stables, and a stow, or hot bath, by which the yard is enclosed. All these structures are built of bauks, unhewn, placed on one another, and notched into each other at the four corners; sometimes, though but rarely, on a brick foundation: these houses are covered with boards, and when the owner can afford it, with oak shingles. The meanest dwelling-houses consist solely of one little room, which therefore has the door to the street. In it is an oven, taking

almost one fourth part of the whole space; joining to it, of equal height with the oven, a broad shelf of board. The top of the oven d this shelf are the sleeping places of the mily. The light is admitted into these houses rough two or three holes in the walls furnished th shutters, or through a little window of uscovy-glass, or only of bladder, oiled linen, paper. The smoke finds its way out as well it can through these apertures in the wall. ese rooms, as may well be supposed, are as ick as a chimney, and, as all the household nctions are performed in them, such as baking, oking, washing, &c. it is hardly possible to ep them clean. They are called, with the utst propriety, black rooms. Under the floor the room is a cellar*.

The corn kilns are without the towns and vilges. Places thus built must be very liable to ging fires; and, when once they break out, ey rarely leave any thing unconsumed. The usehold furniture, both in town and country, en among people of opulence, is very simple. the room which, with very few exceptions, is the same time, the kitchen, are a table, nches, the shelf, which serves for the dormiry, and in the corner one or more holy figures. ne rich have a great many of them, some with ns of beaten silver. Before these lamps or wax ndles are kept constantly burning, or at least all the festivals, which amounts to nearly the me thing; so that many of these summer-rooms ve the appearance of little chapels. Culinary ensils, and those for the use of the table, are few as can well be conceived. As vehicles ey make use of quite small open one horse rts, or somewhat larger, and half covered over a child's cradle, also with one horse, with- horses, so that a collateral horse can at any put to; both kinds of such a simple echanism, that almost any boor can make a w one, or at least repair the defects of an old e, even upon the road. They are extremely ght and commodious.—Splinters, like laths, of fir or very dry birch-wood are much more commonly used for giving light in the room, after dark, than tallow-candles.

The inferior houses are much pestered with domestic vermin; besides the common house-rat and mouse, they swarm with water-rats, bats, large beetles very frequent, crickets, bugs, fleas in abundance; various kinds of very troublesome flies, gnats, moths, woodlice; in southern low places frogs, toads, and tad-poles; in Siberia little beetles; and about the Tsheremtshan, Lapland beetles. The preparation for their victuals is so simple that foreigners do not easily bring themselves to relish it, but adhere to the customary way of dressing their food in their own countries.

Fresh meats with the watery sauce, or baked pasties of common crust, with minced-meat, or whole fish, fish with water and salt, without other sauce, cabbage and roots chopped together, cabbage-soup, which is never omitted, meagre fish and flesh soups, cool drink, quas, with eggs, minced-meat, and leeks, pancakes, soup of ground hemp and linseed, millet-soup and grits, turned milk with meal and sour milk, &c. almost all seasoned with onions, leeks, garlic, and sometimes pimento, are their ordinary dishes. Where Tartars dwell, they use likewise a few wild roots, especially dog tooth, lily-roots, and others. For the evening repast are served up nuts, orchard-fruits, and the several wild fruits produced by the country round; black strawberries, sloes, &c. At an entertainment of their friends and acquaintance they provide a surprising variety of these kind of dishes. The lower sort feed very poorly at all times, but particularly in the fasts. In large towns, the table in good houses is becoming more luxurious and fashionable from day to day.

The most common domestic drink is quas, a liquor prepared from pollard, meal, and bread, or from meal and malt, by an acid fermentation. It is cooling and well tasted. Corn-spirits, and rectified corn spirits, supply the place of wine.

* A complete town or country house, for the sake of ving a cellar, stands raised a fathom above the ground, d has a black room and a white room, and between the o, a small passage. The black-room has frequently a imney to the oven, and a window of glass or marienglas; t the white-room has the oven of tiles, or bricks covered th plaster. The entrance, by a covered flight of wooden ps to the aforementioned passage, is from the back-yard, not from the street. The magazines or store-rooms are small detached huts for provisions, corn, in short all the necessary stores. The stables are mere hovels or sheds, open to the yard, or at most fronted with wattles, paid with mortar; in the latter case they are called pokleti. The bath room resembles a detached black-room. It stands alone; has an oven like the other, smoke-holes, a water tub, brushes, and benches raised one above another.

In

In good houses are fruit-wines, rasberry-wine, cherry-wine, bilberry-wine, &c. from the juices of those fruits, meed and brandy made by fermentation, which are pleasant enough to the palate. Tea is in very general use. The true Russian tea, is a decoction of honey, water, and Spanish pepper, and drank warm. It tastes well and cheers the stomach.

In the article of dress they adhere as faithfully, in the country towns and villages, to the manners of their fathers, as they do in food and lodging. The noblesse, all the officers in the civil department; and, besides the light troops, the soldiery all over the empire, the merchants of the chief towns and those who trade with them, the mine-owners, and almost all the people of quality throughout the empire, dress after the German fashion; and the ladies, even in the remotest and most retired parts of the country, appear more modishly attired than would easily be imagined. The burghers and mercantile class, however, generally speaking, stick close to the national dress, no less than the peasantry.

The Russians are a race much hardened by climate, education, and habits of life, having their own peculiar usages, which have a greater affinity with the Asiatic than the European, only without the effeminacy. They sleep on the floor, the hard benches, or the boards placed shelf-wise for that purpose, in the summer contentedly lying down in the open air, in the field, or the yard of the house, as they do in the winter on the top of the oven without beds, or merely on a piece of felf, sometimes with, and often without any pillow, either under a thin covering or in their clothes. After performing their evening devotions, accompanied with frequent prostrations and crossings, before the sacred figures of the saints, they betake themselves early to rest, and rise again betimes in the morning, wash themselves, renew their pious orisons, and proceed with alacrity to business. Into the houses of the great and opulent, even at a distance from chief towns, feather beds, and late hours, with other luxuries, have long since found their way.

Whenever acquaintance meet together, their term of greeting is, Zdravstvui*! or sometimes, Zdarovui†! accompanied with shaking of hands, taking off the cap, bowing, and often with kissing, which is much in practice with both sexes. Even the lowest of the people greet one another with great civility. Inferiors kiss their superiors on the breast, and of people still more elevated above them they kiss the border of the garment; and when the difference is very great, they fall down and strike their forehead upon the shoe of the great man. When they have any thing to request, they assume a tone and gesture as if they were imploring mercy. It is indecorous to speak loud in the presence of superiors; and if any one happens to do so, he is presently chid by the bystanders, with "Do not bawl!" When a man designs to honour his guests, he lets his wife and daughters appear, full-dressed, who kiss the guests, and hand them what they want at the entertainment. They seem to vie with one another in the profusions of hospitality. Old age is universally honoured. On the breaking up of company, they depart, saying, "Proshai‡!" and never omiting the valedictory kiss. On the slightest interruption or alteration to the ordinary course of whatever they are about, at eating, drinking, sneezing, at a sudden start, &c. at the sight of a particular place, of a church, &c. they make the sign of the cross with the fingers, on the forehead, the stomach, and the shoulders, bowing several times, and adding with a deep-fetched sigh: "The Lord have mercy§!"

They have usually two meals in the day; in the forenoon about nine o'clock, and in the afternoon at three. The family at these times eat all together; and, when it is numerous, first the males and afterwards those of the other sex. They allow themselves but a short time at table, and are easy and cheerful. Even among the inferior people, the table-linen, and vessels are kept in great cleanliness. If strangers sit down with them there are very copious potations. Intoxication is not disgraceful, and even among people of good condition, if a lady be overtaken in liquor, it is no subject of reproach. They are never quarrelsome or scurrilous in their cups, but friendly, jovial, courteous, speak in praise of the absent, and boast of their friendship; and those that are not able to stand, find ready assistance from those that can. On journies, merchants and others take their food with remarkably few

* Which may be rendered, All hail! or God save thee! or good betide thee!—Salve! Sit saluti!

† Health! Sospes! Sanus!

‡ Farewell.

§ Gospodi pomilui!

A Russian Family partaking an Evening Entertainment

few formalities. In towns and great village stations, women sit in the street, near the public-houses, with tables having roast and boiled meat, fish, piroggees, cabbage-soup, cucumbers, bread, and quas, consequently a superb and every where a cheap repast, which is taken standing, and always accompanied with a glass or two of brandy.

To hot and cold bathing they are so habituated from their earliest infancy that the practice is indispensible. They usually go into the hot bath once a week, besides other frequent occasions, such as, after a slight indisposition, hard work, on returning from a journey, and the like. They use the bath very hot, heating the room with large stones made glowing red, and raising a vapour by repeatedly throwing water upon them; the room all the while being so tight that no particles of heat or vapour can transpire. The bather lies extended naked upon a mat thrown on one of the shelves of the scaffold already described, which the higher he ascends the greater the heat he feels. When he has thus lain perspiring for some time, the waiter of the bath, generally a female, comes and washes his body all over with hot water, scourges and rubs him with bunches of leafy birch, wipes him with cloths, and then leaves him to lie and sweat as long as he chooses. Numbers of them run from the hot bath into the cold water flowing by, and in winter roll themselves in the snow, without deriving any bad consequences from it.

With substantial people the marriage-contract is made with mercantile punctuality; the common sort enter into the nuptial state, for its peculiar purposes, as young as they can; and, as housekeeping is not expensive, and as education is neither attended with cost nor trouble, they live as much at their ease as before. The betrothing is performed with ecclesiastical rites, generally eight days previous to the marriage, and is indissoluble. During this interval, the bride is only visited by the bridegroom and the friends of her acquaintance, who amuse her with singing. On the last evening the young women bring the bride into the hot bath, where they comb and tie up her hair all the while singing songs descriptive of her future happiness. The marriage is solemnized in the church before the altar, whither they proceed, with the figure of the saint carried before them. During the ceremony a crown is put on each of their heads. The priest, with due forms, changes their rings, reads to them an admonition of their reciprocal duties, gives them to drink of a cup in token of the present union of their fortunes, and dismisses them with his blessing. At their return from church the father of the bride presents the young couple with a loaf of bread and some salt, accompanied with a wish that they may never know the want of either, for which they thank him on their knees. They then sit down to supper.

The national diversions of the Russians on holidays, at weddings, and other occasions of festivity, are very diversified, and have great resemblance with those customary among the Persians, the Arabians, and Egyptians. Their music is more usually vocal than instrumental. On the whole globe we shall scarcely meet with a country where the song is more jovial and universal than in Russia. They all sing from the child to the hoary head, on all occasions, old women excepted, even while at the most laborious and toilsome work, and generally with all their might; the country roads re-echo with the songs of the drivers, the village-streets with the merry voices of the girls, and drinking-houses are never without a concert. Their songs are simple recitations, ancient or modern; on the subject of love, nature, and tales of chivalry, giants, and heroes, frequently lewd, and their melodies uniform and monotonous, but sometimes pleasing enough. The little groups of girls sitting together of an evening and singing are very entertaining. The men sing, from the fullness of their hearts, exploits of soldiers or kozaks in time of war, or a thousand other subjects that will suit their own style of composition, and their tunes and their thoughtless merry dispositions, reciting sometimes single words or lines from different songs in every tune and for whole hours together.

The dead are sincerely and long lamented by their relations and friends; but, from a natural repugnance to the idea of death, they use but little ceremony with the corpse. They put on it a shroud, then lay it in a coffin, in which it is brought open, only covered with a pall to the grave, attended by priests, chanting hymns, and bearing crosses and lighted tapers in their hands. Being come to the place of interment, the attendants take leave of the body by a kiss, give it a blessing, then fasten up the coffin, let it down into the grave, and shovel in the earth. On these

occasions the nobles and the rich put on black, but others make no change in their dress. The lower sort bury their dead in their ordinary clothes. Such as die in the barks upon the rivers are taken to the shore by their companions, and there put in the ground, without any other ceremony. Great funeral feasts and mourning in black clothes are not customary: among the few dishes they serve about, one is usually a frumenty of soaked wheat, in reference to the passage concerning a sprouting wheat-corn in John xii. 24. In great towns the funeral obsequies are conducted, among people of condition, as they are in other countries.

At the new year is annually held a feast of the dead, on which every body visits the grave of his relations, lays some victuals upon it, and hears mass, in payment for which the priest gets the victuals. Profligates, such as have come to a miserable end, and all who have died without the sacrament, were formerly thrown, without inhumation, into a hut for that purpose, and, on the Thursday before Whitsunday, were buried by the clergy, who said masses for their souls, attended by the inhabitants of the place. At present greater indulgence is shewn to these poor wretches.

The ancient orthodox Greek religion, to which the whole nation is attached, is universally acknowledged in doctrine and discipline. We shall here speak only of its externals. The churches and the sacerdotal vestments are very magnificent. The people at large are very strict in the observance of the outward forms of worship, attendance on mass, keeping the fasts, (which take up one-third part of the year,) performance of domestic devotions morning and evening, confession, receiving the sacrament, &c. To build churches is a meritorious act; hence it is, that even the smallest towns have such a number of these structures, and some of them handsome. As, by reason of the severity of the winters, it is necessary to heat the churches, there are frequently two churches in one church-yard, a winter and a summer church; at other times they consist of two stories, used to the same purpose. The clergy are held in great honour, and are extremely tolerant towards all other professions of faith. The titles of metropolitan and archbishop are not attached to the see, but are at present merely personal distinctions conferred by the sovereign, which give the possessors no additional power, and scarcely any precedence. Every one on meeting a priest, kisses his hand, in return for which he receives his blessing with the sign of the cross: this custom is now, however, pretty much confined to country places. Passion week is kept by every person in great apparent solemnity, with frequent ceremonies of devotion to which they are invited by slow and dismal strokes of the church-bells: but the Easter-week is passed pretty nearly as in some other countries in various diversions, drunkenness, and debauchery. At this festival it is the universal custom all over the empire to present each other with an egg accompanied with a kiss, at the same time saying "Christ is risen!" to which the other replies "He is risen indeed!"

SECTION V.

The Chace, with a particular Description of the Methods made Use of for taking the several Animals

HUNTING was every where the first occupation of man. Impelled by hunger, and incited to resistance by the attacks of savage animals, his first business was to struggle with them for the support of his life. In most of the countries in our part of the globe the chace has lost this character: it is now, neither from want nor fear, a business of necessity: and even the employments which in the earlier stages of the European nations was a toilsome and dangerous pursuit, is become an object of diversion and pleasure. But in Russia are still numerous tribes who, in regard to their physical wants, are entirely or principally addicted to the chace, and are obliged to contend for their existence with the savage inhabitants of their deserts. Considered in this point of view, the chace is already a business of very great consequence to the Russian empire: but if we look to the quantity and the value of the products that are obtained

this pursuit, not only to the home consumption, but likewise to its commerce with foreign nations, it acquires one political importance more, which imposes on us the necessity of becoming somewhat more accurately acquainted with the manner in which it is conducted, and the objects to which it extends.

In Siberia the chace is confined to such beasts as have valuable skins, and in pursuance of supreme command to those nations who deliver their tribute in furs, and make hunting their chief employment; but here also the Russian boor never fails to devote to the chace the idle days of winter. The wild animals which are pursued for the sake of their skins are found in the greatest plenty in the most northern and eastern parts of Russia, principally on the islands between Kamtshatka and America, the discovery whereof is become of vast importance to the fur trade. Next to these the governments of Tobolsk, Perme, Usa, Viatka, Archangel, Olonetz, Vologeta, and some others, are most abundant in beasts of the chace.

But precisely where the chace is the most lucrative there it is a very difficult, toilsome, and perilous business; accordingly it is made a principal employment only by the most uncultivated nations, as, the Ostiaks, Samoyedes, Vogules, Tunguses, Tschuktsches, Kamtschadales, Yakutes, the Eastern islanders, and the majority of the Siberian Tartars. With several of these nations the chace is the sole means of profit by which they are enabled to procure food, clothes, and other necessaries; and these pay their taxes to government or their tribe, in furs. In defiance of all the hardships attending the chace of large beasts of prey in the monstrous forests and wildernesses of the arctic region, this trade is not only the principal but also the favourite employment of most of its inhabitants. It is by no means unusual for single hunters of these savage tribes to engage in duels with bears, wolves, and other ferocious animals, in which they are so sure of the artifice or their aim, that they seldom or never fall in the combat. Some nations, as the Ostiaks of the Oby, never go to the chace but in small companies, when they beat about the forests for four or six weeks together in quest of prey, taking with them no other provisions than frozen fish in little sledges. Whereas the Tunguses and others roam singly about their wilds, which are covered with mountains, fragments of rocks, and large rivers, and where they often fall a sacrifice to their fondness for this sport. When one of these hunters has the misfortune to break an arm or a leg, or to be wedged between two pieces of rock, in this helpless situation he must either perish with hunger or die of his wounds, or fall a prey to some savage beast.

The chace for the sake of furs being the most important to foreign commerce, we shall make it the first object of our notice. The most valuable of all the animals that are sought for their skin is the sable; to which, by the general consent of all the nations of Europe and Asia, so great and determinate a price has been affixed, that its skin still serves as a standard to the tribute which is paid to the crown by the Siberian nations of hunters. This animal is found in Asiatic Russia, from the Aleütan islands and from Kamtshatka to the districts of the Petschora and of the Kama: but the quality of its skin in this extensive region is extremely different. The finest sables come from Yakutsk and Nertschinsk, and among these are likewise, though rarely, yellow, and extremely seldom, white sables. The Kamtshadale sables are the largest of all. Their skin is thick and long haired, but not very black, therefore most of them go to China, where they are coloured. At the time of the conquest of Kamtshatka, the sables were there in such extraordinary numbers, that a single hunter could easily bring away sixty, eighty, and more of these animals in a winter, and they were held in such little estimation by the Kamtshadales, that they deemed the more useful skin of a dog to be of twice the value. For ten rubles worth of iron ware there was no difficulty in obtaining the value of five or six hundred rubles in sables; and whoever had only followed this trade to Kamtshatka for the space of a year, usually came back with a profit of thirty thousand rubles and upwards*.

The

* The manner in which the sables of Kamtshatka are taken is extremely simple. The Kamtshadales follow the track of this animal in snow-shoes, till they have detected the covert, which is generally a burrow in the earth. As soon as the little creature is aware of his pursuer, he escapes into a hollow tree, which the hunter surrounds with a net and then either cuts it entirely down or forces the sable by fire and smoke to abandon his retreat when he falls into the net and is killed. In other parts, where these animals are rare, the contrivances to take them are more artificial. Of this

The fox makes also a considerable article of trade, of which in Russia there are four distinct species: the common, among which are the red, the sorrel, the black-striped, (called the cross-fox,) and the entirely white, which are the rarest and clearest; the karagane, of a grey colour, the steppe-fox, and the rock or ice-fox. The latter, which are mostly white, but sometimes of a blueish colour, chiefly inhabit the islands on the coasts of the Frozen Ocean, Kamtshatka, and the Russian Archipelago. The black foxes, which at present fetch most money in commerce, are only found in eastern Siberia*.

Eastern Siberia, and particularly Kamtshatka, abound most in beautiful foxes: they were here in such great numbers about the middle of the eighteenth century, that the finest fire-red fox skins were never sold higher on the spot than at one hundred and thirty to one hundred and eighty kopecks. The black foxes are in general not so very plenty; their value in commerce is such, that sometimes even a single skin cannot be had for less than one hundred or five hundred, and at times even for a thousand rubles. These animals are naturally the choicest object of the chace among all the eastern Siberian nations, as one skin not unfrequently defrays the tribute of a whole village. The care, therefore, with which they keep the young foxes they take is so great, that the Ostiak women nourish them at their breasts. In summer, when they find young foxes of this sort, they at first feed them, but shortly before they kill them they break one of their legs that they may eat less, as lean foxes have better skins. The true native country of the rock or ice-fox are the islands of the Frozen Ocean and the Eastern Ocean, where they are found in incredible numbers †.

For

this kind is the sable trap of the Vogules, which is used in several parts of Siberia. A place is sought out where two young trees stand not far asunder, which are immediately stripped of their branches about the bottom. At one of these trees a post is stuck in the ground, and on it is placed a beam horizontally, fastened in such manner to both trees that one end of it lies between the post and the tree. Over this beam another is laid, as a trap-fall, at the end whereof a thin support is put, which, when the trap-fall is up, stands over the notched end of the post; at the extremity of the support is a mat-string, and another at the lower transverse beam tied very short. Both are brought together, and a bit of stick put through them, having at its longer extremity a piece of flesh of wild fowl attached, which by its preponderance keeps the stick down and thus holds the two strings together. The sable creeps cautiously along the lower beam till he can reach the bait and pull it to him: this lets go the stick to which the bait is tied and by which the strings were held together; the stay loses its hold, and consequently the upper beam falls upon the shoulders of the animal and holds him fast.—With the same kind of trap martens and other little beasts are killed.

* The ordinary method of catching these animals is by traps set for them; but the inhabitants of Kamtshatka most commonly make use of an ingenious invention for that purpose. They lay several snares of whalebone which are fastened like hoops to a board, within a circle in the snow; placing in the middle of this circle a mew or sea-gull as a bait. As soon as the fox jumps into the circle to seize his prey, the hunter, who lurks in a pit, draws the hoop together by means of a string, which catches the fox either by the body or the foot, and holds him till the hunter knocks him down with a stick. In Siberia it is very usual to make the fox shoot himself dead, by fastening a gently drawn bow with its arrow upon it to a post fixed in the ground: across the path or track a line is laid, in such a manner connected with the bow, that it is immediately discharged as the fox touches the string in running. The arrow generally pierces

the heart of the animal, and consequently kills it on the spot: to this end the hunter has a rule to determine the height at which the bow must be placed.

† The description which Steller gives of this curious and sly animal is so entertaining, that it may be read with pleasure even more than once. "During my unfortunate abode," says he, "on Behring's Island, I had opportunities more than enough for studying the nature of this animal, far excelling the common fox in impudence, cunning, and roguery. The narrative of the innumerable tricks they played us might easily vie with Albertus Julius's history of the apes on the island of Saxenburg. They forced themselves into our habitations by night as well as day, stealing all that they could carry off; even things that were of no use to them, as, knives, sticks, our cloaths, &c. They were so inconceivably ingenious as to roll down our casks of provisions several poods in weight, and then steal the meat out of them so ably, that at first we could not bring ourselves to ascribe the theft to them. As we were stripping an animal of his skin, it often happened that we could not avoid stabbing two or three foxes, from their rapacity in tearing the flesh out of our hands. If we buried it ever so carefully, and added stones to the weight of earth that was upon it, they not only found it out, but shoved away the stones, as men would have done, with their shoulders, and lying under them helped one another with all their might. If, thinking to secure it, we put any on the top of a high post in the air, they grubbed up the earth at the bottom, so that the post and all came tumbling down, or one of them clambered up and threw down what was upon it with incredible artifice and dexterity. They watched all our motions, and accompanied us in whatever we were about to do. If the sea threw up an animal of any kind they devoured it, ere a man of us could come up, to our great disadvantage; and, if they could not consume it all at once, they trailed it away in portions, to the mountains, where they even buried it under stones before our eye, running to and fro as long as any thing remained to be conveyed away. While

For smaller furrieries and edgings, the skins of the marten, the squirrel, the ermine, the rabbit and the marmotte are the choicest. All these little animals are coursed with dogs by the boors, who devote a part of their time to the chace; or caught in great numbers, with traps and gins set before their burrows.—The marten is not only found in Siberia but in European Russia, even about the Ladoga Lake and in Livonia; but those in the government of Tobolsk are the finest as well as the most plentiful. The blackest squirrels come from Yakutsk and Nertschinsk; but they are likewise the smallest. The teleutan are famous for their size, and have also the beautiful silver-colour that renders them so valuable. The striped squirrel is likewise plentiful in Siberia.

This delicate little creature climbs the trees and nimbly springs from bough to bough, but his winter holes and the magazines of provisions always found with them, in which various kinds of seeds are collected, he makes in the earth, though on account of the moisture of the ground not remarkably deep. Easy as it would be to catch these animals, and numerous as the fanciers which their beautiful striped fur would ensure, yet none apply to the capture of them.

To the other objects of the chace for furs must be added the bear, the wolf, the lynx, the glutton, the ferret, the polecat, &c. which, generally speaking, are spread over the whole of North Russia, and the prodigious quantities obtained of their skins are partly consumed at home and

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this was doing, others stood upon guard and watched us. If they saw any one coming at a distance, the whole troop combined at once and began digging all together in the sand, till they had so fairly put a beaver or a sea-bear under the surface, that not a trace of it was to be seen. In the night time, when we slept in the field, they came and pulled off our night caps and stole our gloves from under our heads, with the beaver coverings and the skins that we lay upon. In consequence of this we always slept with clubs in our hands, that if they should wake us we might drive them away or knock them down.

"When we made a halt to rest by the way, they gathered around us and played a thousand tricks in our view, and when we sat still, they approached us so near that they gnawed the thongs of our shoes. If we laid down, as if intending to sleep, they came and smelled at our noses to try whether we were dead or alive; if we held our breath, they gave such a tug to the nose as if they would bite it off. On our first arrival they bit off the noses, the fingers, and toes of our dead, while we were preparing the grave, and thronged in such manner about the infirm and the sick, that it was with difficulty we could keep them off. Every morning we saw these audacious animals patrolling about among the sea-lions and sea-bears lying on the strand, smelling at such as were asleep, to discover whether some of them might not be dead; if that happened to be the case, they proceeded to dissect him immediately, and presently after all were at work in dragging the parts away: because the sea-lions of a night in their sleep frequently overlay their young, they examine, as if conscious of this circumstance, every morning the whole herd of them one by one, and immediately drag away the dead cubs from their dams. Seeing now that they would not suffer us to be at rest at night nor day, we were in fact so exasperated at them that we killed them young and old and plagued them by every means we could devise. When we awoke in the morning, there always lay two or three at our feet that had been knocked on the head in the night; and I can safely affirm, that during my stay upon the island above two hundred of these animals were slain by myself alone. The third day after my arrival I knocked down, within the space of three hours, upwards of seventy of them with a club, and made a covering to my hut of their skins. They are so ravenous, that with one hand we could hold to them a piece of flesh, and grasp a stick or an axe in the other to knock them on the head.

"When these busy animals could not get hold on what they wanted, for example, the cloaths we occasionally put off, they voided their excrements upon it, and then scarcely one of the rest passed by without doing the same. From all circumstances it was clear to us that they could never before have seen a human being, and that the dread of man is not innate in brutes, but must be grounded on long experience.

"In October and November they, like the foxes, were the most sleek and full of hair. In January and February the growth of it is too thick; in April and May they begin to shed their coat; in June they drop their cubs, nine or ten at a brood, in holes and clefts of the rocks. They are so fond of their young, that to scare us away from them they barked and yelled like dogs, and thereby betrayed their covert. No sooner do they perceive that their retreat is discovered, than, unless they be disturbed, they drag away the young in their mouths, and try to conceal them in a more secret place. On killing the young, the dam follows the slayer with grievous howlings, day and night for a hundred and more versts, and never ceases till she has played her enemy some trick, or is killed by him herself.

"They stink much more horridly than even the red fox. In rutting-time they run together day and night, biting each other from jealousy, like dogs. When they couple they make just such a screaming as cats do. In storms and heavy falls of snow they bury themselves in the snow, and lie still as long as it lasts. They swim across rivers with great agility. Besides what the sea casts up or is destroyed by beasts, they seize the sea-fowl by night on the cliffs where they have settled to roost; but they themselves are frequently victims to the birds of prey.—These animals, which are now in such inexpressible numbers on the island, probably were conveyed thither, since there is no other land-animal upon it, from the continent on the drift ice; and, afterwards nourished by the great quantity of animal substances thrown a-shore by the sea, multiplied to such an extraordinary degree.

partly sent abroad. The bear is in many respects so useful an animal, and the manner of taking him in Russia so various and so ingenious, that our pains will be amply repaid in enlarging upon them.

The most usual way of killing the bear is with fire-arms and spears or darts. The Laplanders knock them down with clubs, as they can easily overtake them in running with their snow-shoes; but they are generally first shot and then dispatched with spears. In some parts of Siberia the hunters erect a scaffold of several bulks laid on each other, which fall down all together and crush the bear, on his stepping on the trap placed under it. Another method is, to dig pits, in which a smooth, solid, and very sharp-pointed post is fixed into the ground, rising about a foot above the bottom. The pit is carefully covered over with sods; and across the track of the bear a thin rope with an elastic bug-bear is placed. So soon as the bear touches the rope, the wooden bug-bear starts loose, and the scared animal, endeavouring to save himself by flight, falls violently into the pit, and is killed by the pointed post. If he escape this snare, at a small distance, perhaps, several caltrops and other instruments of annoyance await him, amongst which a similar terrific log is erected, and where the persecuted beast, the more he strives to get free, fixes himself faster to the spot at which the blood-thirsty hunter lies in ambush for him. Yet not only beneath and upon the earth, but even in the air has man's inventive genius contrived to lay snares for his liberty and his life. The Koriaks to this end look out for a crooked tree: grown into the form of a gibbet, at the bowed summit of which they attach a noose, hanging with it a bait. The hungry bear is so tempted by this object, that he eagerly climbs up the tree, and is infallibly the victim of his greediness; for, on his moving the branch, the noose draws together, and the bear remains suspended to the tree, which violently springs back into its former direction. But more singular and ingenious is the method adopted by the inhabitants of the mountainous parts of Siberia to make this ferocious animal kill himself. They fasten a very heavy block to a rope, terminating at the other end with a loop. This is laid near a steep precipice in the path which the bear is wont to take. On having his neck in the noose, and finding that he cannot proceed for the clog, he takes it up in a rage, and, to free himself from it, throws it down the precipice, which naturally pulls him after it, and he is commonly killed by the fall. Should this accidentally not be the case, he drags the block again up the mountain and reiterates his efforts, till with increasing fury he either sinks nerveless to the ground, or puts an end to his life with a decisive plunge.

The bear is found not only in all the Siberian forests, but also in great plenty in the northern provinces of European Russia. The white or polar bear, lives on the coasts of the Frozen Ocean, and on some of the eastern and northern isles where the chace of him is a collateral occupation of the mariners, who visit these coasts for the capture of the morse. Black bears are so numerous in Kamtshatka, that they are seen roaming about the plains in troops, and would infallibly have long since exterminated all the inhabitants were they not here more tame and gentle than in all the world besides. In spring they come in multitudes from the mountains in which they have passed the winter, to the mouths of the rivers for catching fish, which swarm in all the streams of the peninsula. If there be plenty of this food, they eat nothing but the he[ad] [of] the fish, and when they find nets laid in [the] they dexterously drag them out of the water and empty them of the fish. Towards autumn when the fish go up the rivers, they advance with them gradually to the mountains.—When a Kamtshadale spies a bear, he endeavours to conciliate his friendship at a distance, accompanying his gestures by courteous words. Indeed they are so familiar that the women and girls when they are gathering roots and herbs, or turf for fuel, in the midst of a whole drove of bears are never disturbed in their employment by them; and if any of these animals comes up to them, it is only to eat something out of their hand. They have never been known to attack a man, except when they are roused from their sleep, and they seldom turn upon the marksman whether they be hit or not. The humane character of the Kamtshadale bear, who differ so remarkably from his brethren in all other countries, procure him however no exemption from the persecutions of mankind. The great utility of this animal, whose bodily parts from the skin to the entrails are of service to the Kamtshadales in a thousand ways, is sufficient

sufficient motive to self-interested man to declare eternal war against him. When both parties meet, the contest is generally bloody, and almost always terminates to the advantage of the more artful creature. Armed with spears and clubs the Kamtshadales goes in quest of the peaceful bear in his calm retreat, who is meditating no attack, but only thinking of his defence, and gravely takes the faggots which his more brutal persecutor brings him, and with which he himself chooks up the entrance to his den. The mouth of the cavern being thus closed, the hunter bores a hole through the top, and spears with the greatest security his defenceless foe*.

Among the animals already named, the glutton deserves to be mentioned on account of his beautiful skin. These creatures, at the charge of whom credulous travellers have spread so many surprising falsehoods, are found both in northern and southern Siberia, principally about the Anadyr and the Kovyma, where they are famed for their ingenious artifices in taking and killing rein-deer. From the trees they watch these harmless creatures and strew moss upon the ground as a bait. Lured by this, as soon as the rein-deer comes under the tree, the glutton leaps upon his neck, scratches out his eyes, and torments him with such perseverance, that the poor sufferer beats himself to death against the tree. This done, he buries his prey very carefully in several places, and never yields to the suggestions of his ravenous appetite to taste a morsel till he has deposited the whole of his provision safely under ground. With equal cunning the glutton in the district of the Lena subdues the much larger and stronger animal the horse; when tamed however he loses of his entertaining pranks a most amusing companion to his master.

To these objects of the chace for furs, lastly, may be added the following animals with short web feet, since their dwelling and the manner of their capture allow them to be brought under no other rubric: the beaver, who is found in the great rivers of Siberia, and in the Sundsha among the mountains of Caucasus, &c. and the river or fish-otter, which likewise is at home in most of the Siberian and in some of the European rivers†.

In fact the uninhabited wilds of Canada and Siberia are the only regions in which the beavers are numerous, and even here they herd together only about the solitary and unfrequented rivers, therefore they are oftenest found singly on the woody banks. The usefulness of this animal sharpens the persecuting spirit of man, from which he is never safe even in the most latent coverts.—The skin of the beaver has hair of two kinds: the short, implicated together and as fine as down, the upper grow more sparingly and are thicker and longer. This latter is of little value; but the flax or down is wrought up into hats, stockings, and caps.—The hunters prefer the winter season for seeking out the holes of the beaver; they stop up the entrance on the side next the water with stakes, enlarge the vent-hole

* It would be difficult to name a species of animals, excepting the sheep, so variously serviceable to man as the bear is after his death to the Kamtshadales. Of the skin of this animal they make beds, covertures, caps, gloves, and collars for their sledge-dogs. Those who go upon the ice for the capture of marine animals make their shoe-soals of them, which have this advantage, that the wearer is not in danger of slipping with them. The fat of the bear is held in great estimation by all the inhabitants of Kamtshatka, as a very savoury and wholesome nourishment; and when melted and thus rendered fluid, it supplies the place of oil. The flesh is reckoned such a dainty, that they seldom eat it alone, but usually invite a number of guests to partake of the delicious repast. The intestines, when cleaned and properly scraped, are worn by the fair sex as masks to preserve their faces from the effects of the sun-beams, which here, on being reflected from the snow, are generally found to blacken the skin; by which means the Kamtshadale ladies preserve a fine complexion: the Russians of Kamtshatka make window-panes of these intestines, which are as transparent and clear as those made of Moscovy-glass. Of the shoulder-blades are made sickles for cutting grass, and the heads and the haunches are hung up by the Kamtschadales as ornaments or trophies, on the trees about their dwellings. If the uses of the bear be so various to the Kamtshadales, not less general is the wear of fine and warm fur by persons of the higher classes in Russia. A light black bear skin is one of the most comfortable and costly articles of the winter wardrobe of a man of fashion at Petersburg or Mosco, even the small white hand of a belle is slipped into the large bear muff which covers the half of her elegant shape.

† The beaver, says the most learned naturalist of the age, Buffon, is perhaps the only example still left as an ancient monument of the intellectual faculties of the brutes. The solitary and insulated beaver, instead of shewing a cogitation beyond that of the other species of animals, seems ever, by his mere individual capacities, to stand far beneath some of them; his genius and his talents only shine forth when he lives united in society; and even these animals never think of building unless they dwell in desart regions, where men are in such small numbers, that they cannot easily molest them.

which

which they find on the land side, for the purpose of putting through it a dog, who is so trained that he holds the beaver with his teeth, and lets himself be drawn out with it by the hind feet. The otters are likewise either pursued with dogs, or destroyed by spring-guns placed on the margin of the streams they frequent. Among the animals that are sought as well for their flesh as for their skin, the first to be named is the roe-buck, which strays in herds about the Irtysh, the Yenissey, and in Daouria; and is likewise found in the confines of the Samara, the Sok, and in the regions of Caucasus. A tenant of nearly the same districts is the stag, whose degenerate race the deer is not unfrequently seen in Tauri. A third very considerable object of the chace is the elk, which roams over all Siberia, within the 65th degree of latitude, beyond which he is never seen: likewise in Russia Proper even about the Ladoga Lake and in Livonia.—Of these animals a very great number are killed every year. The ordinary hunting season is towards March; about which time the sun has melted the surface of the snow to a consistence which allows the hunter easily to follow his trade in large wooden snow-shoes, whereas the beasts with their claws, break through this crust, and are hindered in running. They are followed by the track, driven into vallies, where the snow is drifted frequently to the depth of several ells, and there are either shot, or kept at bay by the dogs till the pursuer can come up and kill them with his lance. The roe-buck particularly is so liable to wound himself in the feet by flight, that he is very soon incapable of running. The elks often stand on their defence against the dogs, killing several of them with their hoofs, which are the usual weapons of this animal. In many parts likewise the roe-buck and the elk are caught in strong gins and dispatched by spring-guns, which, where the country is woody, are fastened to the trees. The skin of the roe-buck sells cheap, and because they are very light and easily turn off the wet, are frequently used by the peasants as coverings to their huts, and sometimes made into winter garments: about Krasnoyarsk they are in such plenty, that flesh and all they scarcely fetch fifteen kopeeks a-piece. Generally, therefore, it is only their skin that is brought to market, which may be had for about ten kopeeks.

The rein-deer is extremely numerous through the whole of northern and eastern Siberia; less frequent about the Ural and in the European north. In woody districts, where springs, fire-arms, and spring-guns are applicable, they are the most usual means resorted to for taking or killing the rein-deer; but in the open downs adjacent to the sea, where these contrivances would fail, the Samoyedes, the Ostiaks, the Tunguses, and others have invented different arts, of which, as an example, we shall take those of the Samoyedes. The rein-deer are wont to go in herds from ten to a hundred, and sometimes even two hundred are seen together. When the Samoyedes go out in parties, and perceive one of these herds, they station their tame rein-deer on an elevated plain to the windward, then stick up, from this place to the savage herd as near as they can venture to come, without betraying themselves by the weather, long sticks, at small distances asunder, in the snow to which goose-wings are tied, to be fluttered freely by the winds. This done, they plant the like pinions on the other side, under the wind; and, the rein-deer being busy with their pasture beneath the snow, and being chiefly guided by their scent, they generally observe nothing of all these preparations. When every thing is ready the hunters separate; some hide themselves behind their snowy entrenchments, while others lie with bows and other weapons in the open air to leeward, and others again go to a distance and drive by a circuitous route the game between the terrific pinions. Scared by these, the wild rein-deer run directly to the tame ones which are standing with the sledges; but here they are alarmed at the concealed hunters, who drive them to their companions that are provided with arms, who immediately commit great slaughter among them. If it so happens, that a savage herd are feeding in the proximity of a mountain, then the hunters hang up all their clothes on stakes about the foot of the mountain, making also with the same frightful pinions a broad passage towards it, in which they drive the game together from a distance. As soon as they are come into this gang-way, the women go with the sledges right across the further end of it, shutting the rein-deer in, who immediately run round the mountain, and at every round are saluted by the shot from the hunters.

As on such occasions a number of people are requisite

quisite, the Samoyedes have recourse to other ventions to deceive the caution of these animals. he marksman goes, for example, clad entirely rein-deer skins, stooping in the middle of five six rein-deer trained to this purpose, which he ads by a rope fastened to his girdle, and thus is nabled to approach very near to the wild herd, ithout being betrayed. In autumn, when the ein-deer are in heat, the hunters choose out a igorous buck from their droves, to whose antlers ey tie nooses, and then turn him loose among e wild herd. The wild stag, on spying a range rival capering among his females, rushes to fight him. During the combat he so en-ngles his antlers in the loops, that when he scries the hunter and strives to escape, the tame uck strikes his head to the ground, and there ins his antagonist till the marksman can kill him.

The Shamois and the Bezoun Goat are an ob-ct of chace to the Caucasean nations, in whose ountains they abound. The Eweck is likewise native of these as well as the mountains of iberia. Antelopes traverse in droves the steppes out the Don, in the districts of the Volga, the ral, the Irtysh, and in the territory of Nerts-insk, another species of wild-goat, the Zob-ozel, or craw-goat, lives in Daouria and in the nfines of Mangolia. The first is found in great lenty, yet never transgresses the bounds to the rth of the 55th degree of latitude. The horns this animal are sometimes eleven inches long; s face is imperfect, as the eye-ball is obscured a spungy excrescence on the brow. Perhaps ature intended by this to temper the glave of e steppes which give birth to the antelopes. return she has endowed him with acuter factory organs, by which he has the faculty of enting both men and wild beasts, when the wind favourable, at the distance of several versts. is surprising that this animal, which seems as were framed for running, (since it is apparently r that purpose that he is provided with a wind-pe of nearly two inches in diameter, large lungs, d wide nostrils,) should be more easily put out breath, when hunted or vexed, than any other imal. The chace, on their running nags, of e antelopes is a favourite diversion of the ongales and the Daurian Tonguses of the ppes. For this purpose they unite in com-anies of fifty, of a hundred, or of two hundred rsons all well mounted and provided with led horses, all likewise armed with bows and hunting spears, and every one having with him a trained dog. They choose one of their company for their leader, who directs the chace, and has the command while it lasts. When the hunt is to proceed, early in the morning three or four men, who have a keen eye-sight, are sent forwards, that from certain elevations are to look round for game; and where they perceive them in troops to stand still till the whole party is come up to them, whom they point out, by signs agreed on, on which side the beasts are feeding, and what course they ought to take. In pursuance of these signals the company disperse, and gradually form a spacious arch, in which each man is not above sixty or eighty fathoms distant from the other, and by which the herd is cautiously surrounded. As soon as those latter are aware of the hunters, and are betaking themselves to flight, they rush in on all sides, at full gallop, upon them; who, panic struck at the shouts of the sportsmen and the whizzing of their javelins, start different ways, but are slain in great numbers from the dexterity acquired by all the nations of the Daourian steppes, who make it one of their constant exercises to shoot and throw their weapons at a mark. The chace is still more productive when the scene of it happens to lie near a river or a mountainous forest, for the goats of the steppes have this singular property, that they never take to the water, though long and furiously harassed, but rather strive to escape by sudden and vast leaps through the troops of their pursuers. They are almost equally shy of forests. No sooner are they hunted into a wood than they are so bewildered among the trees as not to be able to flee a hundred paces, but run their heads against every tree, and soon fall breathless.

The wild sheep, called by the Mongoles argali, and the rock-ram, kamennoi-baran, are met with in the Sayane, the Nertschinskian and Altayan mountains, also in Daouria, on Caucasus and in Kamtshatka. The argali is larger and more powerful than the dam stag; but the ram is larger still, whose exuberant horns alone weigh full forty pounds. The winter coat of this animal is long and shaggy, much mixed with wool; whereas the summer hair is short and sleek. They live on solitary, dry, and woody mountains and rocks, where they can feed on the various

various bitter and acrid mountain herbs. The stag is not so shy as the argali, with which it is almost impossible to come up. They are of uncommon speed in running, and when pursued make tortuous circuits, and often double upon the hunters. Though this animal be so wild when full grown, nothing is so easy to tame as the lambs that are taken, and to habituate them to milk and fodder. The kamennoi-baran keeps entirely to high inaccessible rocks and never approaches inhabited districts.—The wild boar is found in the steppes of the Samara and the Volga, in the confines of the river Vral, in Daouria, and even about the Irtysh. Between the Vral and the Yemba they are extremely numerous, where they are hunted in winter by the Kozaks, with dogs, and killed sometimes with carbines, and sometimes with lances. These animals, who feed solely on the roots of sea-weed and sedge, grow to such an extraordinary size, that they are frequently found weighing upwards of six hundred pounds; their bacon is near four inches thick in fat, though their flesh in general is dry and firm and well flavoured.

SECTION VII.

Description of the Fishery.

As the chace has always been the exclusive occupation of particular nations of the Russian empire, so there are also tribes who maintain themselves by the fishery, and with whom even the establishment of this trade forms a part of their civil constitution. It is naturally to be implied that this can only be the case with those nations and swarms whose habitations border on the sea, or comprise large rivers abounding in fish, and whose civilization is as yet by much too little advanced for selecting more productive and ingenious sources of livelihood. Some of these fisher-nations follow this trade solely for their own support; while others, as the Kozaks of the Don and the Ural, and the tribes on the shores of the Volga, carry on an important and lucrative traffic with the products of their fishery. With most of the hordes and swarms of Siberia the chace and the fishery are equally important as the means of profit; the former is followed chiefly in summer, and the latter in the winter months. The same severity of frost which covers the coasts and the rivers with ice, and thus makes the fisherman idle, smooths the way to the huntsman through forests and over morasses, which in a warmer season would be utterly impassable.

All the trades carried on by the Russians on the northern ocean are of the greater consequence, as the benefits of them extends over the whole empire, and because the consumption of the products thence obtained is general. The arctic waters, it is well known, breed the largest sea animals of the cetaxeous genus, whales of several species, dolphins, &c. for the capture of which ships are sent by various nations. Here, in the extremities of the north, are likewise engendered the numberless shoals of stock-fish, herrings, and other small kinds, supplying food to whole countries, and by the capture whereof more than one nation has been enriched. The advantages arising from the fishery in these seas are indeed many and great, but the difficulties and perils attending on it are not less either in number or magnitude, as the people here have not only to contend with the strength and cunning of the animals they are in quest of, but also with the terrors of an inclement sky, with raging storms and tempests, and with enormous masses of ice that obstruct their navigation, and threaten them every moment with destruction. As the huge sea-animals are seldom met with in the White Sea, and as, by reason of the inhospitable climate of these dreary shores the coast of the Northern Ocean are almost entirely destitute of human beings, the inhabitants of the governments of Archangel and Olonetz principally prosecute their fishery on Spitzbergen and Novaya Zemlia; these islands, therefore, as the chief scene of the northern fishery deserve to be briefly characterised.

Both islands are completely uninhabited. If by misfortune some poor mariners have been shipwrecked on their coasts, it is probable, that the severity of the climate, against which they

had not the means of defence, they have presently after perished. Some English and Dutch seamen, who in the first period of navigation in the Northern Ocean, wintered on these islands, for the most part lost their lives, or endured inexpressible misery. Yet the abode there is only dangerous to those navigators who have been used to a more genial climate, and have not been able by proper clothes, nourishment, and motion, to resist the attacks of the scurvy, which are so easily brought on by an indolent and confined life during the winter. The Russian sailors from Archangel and Mesen, who annually visit both Novaya Zemlia and Spitsbergen, are more able to defy the horrors of the climate. They afford frequent examples of a very long sojourn in the polar countries: a seaman from Mesen, Feodor Rachmanin, wintered six-and-twenty times on Novaya Zemlia, which he also visited twice in summer-time, lived six winters on Spitsbergen, and sailed five years successively from the Yenessey to the shores of Siberia.

The extreme cold which reigns here the greater part of the year is the most piercing with a north wind; south and west winds bring snow and rain. For about the space of three months, Spitsbergen and the northern parts of Novaya Zemlia are shrouded in one uninterrupted night.

This long night is however, somewhat cheared by the aurora borealis, which appears in its full magnificence and splendor only in the polar regions. During the impenetrable darkness, sometimes for upwards of eight days together, tremendous barricanes, with impetuous falls of snow and icy particles, raged with such fury that the wretched hunters dared not stir from their huts for fear of not being able to find them again. Through this deep polar night the Russian sailors marked the passing days by the burning of lamps, which they filled afresh with fish-blubber every four-and-twenty hours.

The principal objects of the sea-chace about Spitsbergen and Novaya Zemlia are whales and morses. For, though the Frozen Ocean produces a multitude of other marine animals, which in various ways might be made subservient to human industry, they seem to excite but little attention, or the capture of them is only an occasional or accidental employment. Every year a ship goes from Archangel to winter at Spitsbergen, and at least one, frequently more, to Novaya Zemlia. The inhabitants of Meseen, who cannot so well bear the expence of fitting out a ship for a winter voyage as the Archangel merchants, navigate only in summer the coasts of these countries.

Whales abound not only in the higher regions of the Frozen Ocean but they come in considerable numbers into the gulf of Kola; yet this useful fish, the products of which are so much sought after that the French and Dutch send out whole fleets to the North-Sea for them, still always escape the attention of the Russians that dwell upon the coasts.

The people who go out to catch the morse are hired for that purpose by a master or ship-owner, who not only furnishes them with the necessary vessels but fits them out with provisions, stores, and whatever they are likely to want on the voyage, but either agrees to give them a share of what they take, or pays them certain wages. The latter, however, seldom exceed five or ten rubles for the summer; a trifling sum when we consider the hardships, toils, and dangers attending this profession. The morse-catchers usually take with them a year's provisions as they are often obliged to pass the winter on board their ships. Every vessel has an oven for baking bread and cooking their victuals, for the supply of which they take a needful stock of wood. The only drink they carry out with them is water, with which when they go on shore they prepare quas.—The time of departure varies according to circumstances; some set out at the beginning of summer, when the White-sea is free from ice, others not till autumn, especially if they intend to winter on the voyage. The greatest peril to which they are exposed at sea, is that of being hemmed in by the driving masses of ice; in this case the ice by its force beats in the sides of the vessel, and the morse catchers are then reduced to the dreadful alternative either of being buried in the waves on the spot, or of getting on the fields of ice floating at the mercy of the winds, till cold and hunger put an end to their sufferings. And yet it has happened, though very rarely, that some of these poor fellows have been brought alive to land on their flakes of ice.

When the morse-catchers are happily arrived at their place of destination, the first thing they do is to conduct their vessels to some safe anchorage,

age, where they generally find several little huts that have been constructed by their predecessors in this hazardous warfare, and then commit themselves to the small boats, of which every vessel takes with it one or two, to proceed to the conflict with the beasts of the ocean. This is usually done on the first fine day, because then the morses delight in going on the land or on the ice to repose; and besides, they are at times stimulated to leave their native element for a length of time for the purpose of copulation, which business lasts with these monsters for a month or two, or to cast their young, or to rescue themselves from the bites of the sea-lice, by which the morse in summer is perpetually tormented, and from which they have no other means of escaping than by fleeing into an element which deprives these insects of life. All these causes together collect them frequently on the beach of fields of ice in prodigious numbers. When the captors discover one of these multitudes, they must have the precaution to approach them the wind at a great distance, and then immediately take to the water; whereas in the contrary case they continue lying undisturbed, though they even see the boats advancing to them. Besides the morse-catchers by this means have the advantage of discovering sooner the place where their prey has couched; for these fat animals, especially in summer, emit far round them a horrid stench.

When the captors have reached this formidable encampment, they immediately quit their karbasses or boats, armed with nothing but their pikes, cut off the way to the sea from the morses, and then pierce those animals which come first to save themselves in the water. As it is the way with the morses to scramble over one another in their attempts to escape, from the numbers of the slain there soon arises a bulwark which effectually choaks up the passage to the living; and then the captors proceed with the slaughter till they have left not one alive. It sometimes happens that after such an engagement so great are the heaps of the dead, that the vessels can only contain the heads or the teeth; and the people are obliged to leave the fat or blubber and the skins behind.

But, easy as it is for the captors to conquer the morse by land, more dangerous is the conflict with these animals in their own element. We have only to recollect that the morse is commonly of the size of a large ox, and that, besides their sharp teeth, they are provided with two long stout tusks, for judging how a sea fight of this kind is likely to terminate. When any of the morses escape into the water before they can all be killed, the captors leap upon the ice and fall upon the animals with harpoons which they strive to strike into their breasts or their belly, and to each of which is fastened a long cord. This done, they drive a stake into the ice, wind the other end of the long harpoon-string round it, and are now drawn about, on the piece of ice on which they stand, by the animal till he has lost his strength, when they draw him up upon the ice by the cord and kill him outright.—But when the morses lie so near to the water, that they can leap in ere the attack begins, then the captors fasten the cord, when they have thrown the harpoon, only to the head of the boat, which is then drawn by the huge animal so deep into the water that the sailors must all run immediately astern. The morse having fruitlessly endeavoured to get loose from the cord, rises erect upon the surface of the water and makes a furious attack on his persecutors. In this he is sometimes so successful as to shatter the boat with his tusks, or to throw himself suddenly by a proportionate leap into the midships. Then nothing is left to the crew but to jump overboard and to hold by the gunnel, till other morse-hunters come to their assistance in this desperate situation. To mitigate the danger of these misfortunes the captors not only previously take all proper measures, but it is even laid down by laws and regulations what conduct every one is to observe during the voyage, and in the actual encounter with the morses. Each of these companies consist generally of a master or pilot, two harpooners, two barrelling people, a steersman, and several rowers, each of whom has his appointed duty.

Though the morses spread from the Kurile islands along all the Russian coast of the Northern Ocean, quite to Norway, Iceland, and Greenland, this trade is the most productive about Spitsbergen and Novaya Zemlia, consequently the morse hunters preferably go thither. Many of them pass the winter on these inhospitable islands, in order to return with greater booty, or they then may pursue the white-bear, the rein-deer, and the ice-fox. In this case they build themselves little huts for the winter, which

times are so buried in snow that nobody can come out of them. As no wood at all grows on these islands, the morse-hunters must inevitably perish with cold, were not the sea to cast a great quantity of drift-wood on shore, among which are often found balks fit for building houses*.

Besides the marine animals already mentioned in the capture of which the inhabitants of the sea coasts are principally employed, the Frozen Ocean, likewise teems with the narhwal, the pott-fish, from whose brain spermaceti is prepared, the sea-dog, dolphin, sea-hog, hay-fish, sea-cow, the sea-bear, the sea-lion, the sea-otter, and many others, which animals are caught either for their skin or their blubber. The sea-dogs are commonly most numerous in the Frozen Ocean, and often proceed to the White Sea; there are even several species of them, at least those which are known about the Oby, the Yenissey, and the Lena, under the Russian name of morskoie saze (sce-hare), are entirely different from the common sort. These have a silver-white glossy skin and long woolly hair.—The Samoyedes watch for the sea-dogs, or seals, generally in the spring-season, when these animals repair to the mouths of the rivers and get out of the water, through holes which they have made in the ice by their breath. They usually lay near the aperture a board to which a rope is fastened. The Samoyede, lurking behind a block of ice, as soon as he sees the sea-dogs fairly out, draws the board over the opening; the animal's retreat being thus cut off, he is killed without trouble.

Another remarkable animal in these waters is the white-fish, known to the Greenlanders under this name, but to the Russians by that of beluga, and which professor Pallas, by way of distinction calls the sea bulga. He belongs to the race of the dolphin, is not above three fathoms long, and is every where found in the Frozen Ocean. These animals keep together in shoals, and are driven upon shallow places in the White Sea and the gulf of the Oby by the Samoyedes, who associate, into numerous companies for that purpose, and harpooned. Their flesh is black, but over the whole body is drawn a white rind, out of which a very pure fat may be prepared. According to Guldensteedt's opinion this species of fish might be beneficially used for obtaining train-oil. That the morse-catchers employ it in preparing the train-oil of that animal has already been remarked.

It is easy to conceive, that a people who make the fishery their principal occupation must have combined a great variety of means, some of them ingenious, for pursuing this business at the least expence of time and trouble. Besides the purse-nets, and the fish-weels, and wears that are every where in use, the Ostiaks and Samoyedes customarily go to fish in shallow places in the night-time, by the light of burning birch bark, which they stick on poles. In the secondary rivers most northward the Samoyedes as soon as the ice is strong make openings in it, over which they build huts, and sink in the water little lure-fish, cut out of wood, by lines made heavy with stones, by means of which they easily pierce with forked-spears the fish who are led to them by greediness or cu-

* The products which are brought into the channels of commerce by the morse-fishery are principally the blubber and the skin of these marine-animals. The captors usually bring home the fat unmelted, whereby it loses much of its goodness, and consequently of its price; but this cannot be altered, as both the want of wood in the countries where the morse is taken, and the haste which the men are obliged to employ, allow them to do no better. When the fat is melted over the fire by these people at home, they usually mix with it the fat of the sea-dog or the baluga, and sell it under the name of vervannoye-salo.—Of this oil is annually shipped from the port of Archangel from two to ten thousand tons, the ton at seven pood; the pood at Archangel costs a ruble and a half and upwards. This oil is employed in soap-boiling, in the preparation of leather, and for the consumption of lamps; it is likewise employed in various other purposes by different tradesmen and mechanics.

The morse-skins are hung upon poles, as they are taken out of the sea, in the open air till they are become stiff, when they are prepared for farther use. Of them are made traces for carriages, horse-harnesses, &c. and from the cuttings excellent size for the paper-manufactories. A morse-skin costs usually three, four, or more rubles.—The morse-teeth are transported partly to St. Petersburg and Mosco, and partly likewise to Archangel; where, and in the districts around it, they are wrought up into all the works for which ivory can be used. Here are made of them all sorts of elegant little boxes and caskets of open work in a variety of tastes, fan-sticks, knife-handles, card-counters, chess-men, &c. which according to the neatness of workmanship and the whiteness of the teeth bear a different price. The thickness of these teeth renders them so heavy, that sometimes five of the large tusks will weigh more than a pood: they are as white as ivory, having this advantage over it, that they are firmer and will not so soon become yellow. A pood of the largest morse-teeth costs upon the spot twenty or thirty rubles.

riosity. They also make little wears across such rivers, let through the aperture with tree-bark sunk by stones to the bottom, and spear those that are visible.—By these and many other inventions the Ostiacks and Samoyedes are enabled to supply themselves and the Russians their neighbours all the year round with fish. In summer they have such a great superfluity of sturgeon alone, which are often a fathom long, and yield two pood of kaviar that they throw away the smaller kinds of fish. The sturgeon, therefore, in Bereslof is never more than forty kopecks a pood, and the fat scarcely fifty kopecks, never above a ruble.

The fishery on the coasts and the islands of the Eastern Ocean is extremely remarkable for the multitude and quality of its objects, and in regard to the employment it occasions. In those districts where agriculture and the rearing of cattle are impracticable from the soil and the climate, and European cultivation can only be prosecuted in particular places as a frequently unsuccessful attempt, no other pursuit is left for the thinly scattered and partly savage inhabitants than the chace and the fishery. The latter principally affords them the greater part of their necessaries of life; and, parsimoniously as nature has dealt out to them the rest of her gifts, so richly has she supplied the waters with the choicest, most useful, and best-tasted kinds of fish.

To this class primarily belongs in more than one respect the whale; though found alike in the Frozen Ocean. About the coasts of Kamtshatka this huge sea-animal is so common, that on the reflux of the waters they are often seen sleeping on the shore, or pursuing the fish quite into the harbours. Neither is it here a thing unfrequent for the whales to be thrown dead on dry land, which the Kamtshadales regard as a lucky accident, as the capture of them is attended with great danger and numerous difficulties. From the southernmost cape of Kamtshatka the inhabitants go out to sea in baiders or little canoes, on the search for sleeping whales, which they wound with poisoned darts, and leave it then to their good fortune whether the animal be thus killed and cast upon their shores. In the northern districts of this peninsula the whale is taken in large nets made of thick hardened thongs of morse-hides, and sunk in the water at the mouth of the gulph with heavy stones. When the animal is entangled in it, the struggles he makes to get free generally cost him his life; and then he is towed ashore by the captors and slain amidst a variety of religious and fantastical ceremonies. But of all the tribes of these parts none are so addicted to the whale-fishery as the Tschuktschi, and the methods they use come nearest to those of the Europeans. They row to sea in very large baiders the crew consisting of eight or ten people: when they meet a whale one of these vessels bears up to him, whence the harpooner throws a spear into his body, leaving the iron or wooden hook sticking in him while the shaft of the spear is drawn home. To the hooks a cord is fastened several hundred fathoms in length, and lies coiled up in the bottom of the canoe. This cord is held fast by the harpooner, letting it out according to the violent motions of the enraged animal: if he plunges he has rope enough; if he rise the holders draw it in, who can always see which way the whale takes by means of a bladder attached to the cord. When the whale rises for the first time, the second canoe pursues him in like manner; and this is repeated by several vessels, till they have altogether sufficiently fixed and fatigued him. Then they suddenly set up a violent shouting, at which the raging animal is so confused that he makes for the land, and throws himself with amazing force upon the shore, where it is afterwards very easy to kill him. This method is in general practiced on most of the islands of the Russian Archipelego. The Ischuktschi rely so much upon their courage and dexterity in this business, that they only take the trouble to carry away the fat of the whale they have taken*.

* The uses made on the shores of the Eastern Ocean of the products of this capture are curious and manifold. The flesh of the whale, though so hard and coarse, will not keep long; it is therefore either immediately consumed, or hung up in the air to dry. The skin is separated from the lard, scraped, smoaked, and, to make it supple, beaten; it is wrought into cords and shoe soles, which are so strong that they never wear out or become unserviceable. The fat is laid in pits filled up with hot stones, purified from the blubber, and then yields a well-tasted lard. The blubber, which is good for melting as well as for lamp-oil, is poured into the cleansed intestines, which are used instead of barrels or casks, and in which they generally keep liquids. With the whalebone the Kamtskadales sew their baiders together, or they make fishing-nets, fox-traps and water-casks of it. Of the bones of the lower jaw they make under-lays to their sledges, knife-handles, and rings for their dog-harness. The sinews serve them for all the purposes of pack-thread, and the vertebrae of the back-bone are used as mortars for pounding.

The Eastern Ocean contains, besides the whale, a considerable number of other large and remarkable marine animals, of which, however we shall only notice such as by the capture of them employ the industry of the natives, and are useful to the purposes of life. Among these we may particularly reckon the sea-bear, the sea-lion, the sea-cow, and the sea-otter, all natives of that ocean, and of which, as the natural history of them it but little known, we shall at the same time give a short description.

The sea-bears appear in troops in the Eastern Ocean, principally between the Kurilly and the Aleütan islands. The largest of these animals are ninety English inches in length, and weigh eighteen or twenty pood. They resemble no land-animal more than the bears excepting only the feet, and the hinder part of the body, which terminates in a grotesque figure. What is more singular in the structure of these animals is their finny-feet, having not only joints and toes, by which they are enabled to go on shore, to set on their breech like the dog, and to use their paws in various ways, but likewise by means of the web between their toes, to swim with equal ease.—The manners of these animals are so peculiar and extraordinary that the account of them would be deemed a fiction, were it not accredited by the testimony of a sagacious and learned observer. The affection of the mother for her young is exceedingly great; and they in return endeavour to divert her by various kinds of frolicksome play. On seeing these gambols, it seems as if they were exercising feats of wrestling, one striving to give the other a fall; and if the father comes up growling, he drives the wrestlers asunder, coaxes the conqueror, and even tries himself to throw him on the ground: the greater the resistance shewn by the latter, the more he gains the love of the parents, to whom on the other hand, their deceitful or timid children, appear to give but little joy. Though polygamy prevails among the sea-bears, and some of them have as many as fifty wives, yet every one watches over his offspring with uncommon jealousy, and is excessively furious if a stranger come too near them. Even when they lie by thousands on the beach, they are always divided family-wise into companies, and in like manner they swim together in the ocean. The aged, who no longer have any wives, live solitary, and are of all the most grim; these frequently pass a whole month on the shore in sleep, without taking any food: but whatever approaches them, whether man or beast, they fall upon with the most outrageous fury. The sea-bears at times wage bloody wars together, the usual ground of hostility being either the females or a good couching place. When two are contending against one, others come up to assist the weaker party; and during the combat, the swimming spectators raise their heads above the water, and calmly look on for a length of time, till they also find a motive for mingling in the fight. Sometimes these conflicting armies cover a tract on the shore of two or three versts, and in all the air resounds with their dreadful yells and growlings. It often happens that the combatants make an armistice for an hour to recreate their forces, during which they lie beside one another without any danger: then both parties suddenly rise up, each takes its place, and the battle begins afresh with redoubled fury. This goes so far, that they pursue one another into the sea, when those of the victorious party drag their enemies back to land, and put them to the torture of their bites so long, till at length they lie faint and exhausted, and finally perish by the talons and beaks of the ravenous birds of prey that are hovering round.—The authority with which the husbands rule over their wives and children is frequently displayed in a very tyrannical manner. When the wives, on being attacked by the hunters, abandon their cubs from affright, and these are carried off, the husbands immediately cease from pursuing the common foe, and turn upon the mother, as if to demand an account of what is become of their offspring. Then seizing them with their teeth, dash them with violence against the rocks; the wives stunned with the blows, creep and crouch at the feet of their despots, and caressing them, shed abundance of tears. While the husband continues to feel his vexation, he goes growling to and fro, and rolling his eye-balls just as the land bears are wont to do; but when his rage is abated, he then begins also bitterly to weep for the loss of his young.

From June till the middle of August the sea-bears come ashore, in order, like the land-bears in winter, by three months of sleep and fasting to disburden themselves of their superfluous fat. This is the hunting season for them. The full-grown

and aged are not easily frightened, but go boldly up to the men to fight them; yet whole droves of them will plunge all at once into the sea from fear, as if seized by a panic, on any sudden occasion of alarm. On land they run with great swiftness, a man, therefore, who is pursued by them has no means of escape but by climbing up a steep mountain, where they cannot follow him so fast. The capture of these animals about Kamtshatka is prosecuted mostly at sea with javelins furnished with hooks, which quit their shafts. The wounded beast strikes with the speed of an arrow through the water, drawing after him the canoe; and rages till he has bled to death. The skins of the sea-bears are of no great value; as their hair is black, thick, and rugged, and the hide very thick and harsh, they are only used like seal-skins for covering trunks and boxes. Below the long hair, close to the hide, lies, as with the beavers, a fine wool of a black glossy colour. The skin of the young that are cut out of their dam, are far more beautiful, and among the Siberians are of great worth, as they make their whole dress of them.

The sea-lion is not so much unlike in shape to the sea-bear; only he is twice as large and heavy: and besides the male sea-lion has a shaggy mane about his neck. Tremendous as the look of this animal is, and furiously as he defends himself in case of need, yet at the sight of a man he takes immediately to flight, and rushes into the sea. In this his proper element no hunter dares attack him; the usual method is to fall upon him when asleep. When a sea-lion in this condition is luckily descried by a hunter who can depend upon his own strength and fleetness in running, he approaches the sleeping animal against the wind, in order not to be betrayed by the scent, and then strikes the before-mentioned hooked spear through the fore feet, while others are employed in winding the rope to which it is fastened round a post driven into the ground. This done, the animal, who now cannot easily escape, is shot with poisoned arrows, or knocked on the head with clubs. They frequently do no more than wound him with poisoned arrows, and then leave him to his fate; as the salt sea-water aggravates the smart of his wounds, he hastens soon back to the shore, where he then, dead or alive, becomes a prey to his captors. The chace of this animal implies so much courage and agility in the huntsman, that a Kamtshadale, who has been several times successful in it, passes for a hero, and all his life after is held in particular respect. The captors, not unfrequently go the distance of five-and twenty or thirty English miles out to sea in their canoes, made of the hides of marine animals and the bark of trees, on this perilous enterprise.

Tenderly as the sea-bears love their young, so little instinct the sea-lions seem to have for theirs; whereas the bloody conflicts of those animals are also customary with them. They couch on the same place with the sea-bears, who, from fear, resign to them the best spot; and never interfere in their intestine broils, though the sea-lions do so with them as often as an opportunity offers.—The utility of these animals is by no means trifling. The fat, the skin, and the flesh of them are generally sweet and well-tasted, and the webs of the feet yield a jelly which passes for a dainty among the Kamtshadales. Of the hide they make leather and the thong ropes which are used in the capture of these and other marine animals.

A third animal belonging to this collection is the sea-cow, called by the Spaniards manati, and is found both on the eastern and the western coasts of America. The largest of these animals are from four to five fathoms long, and about the umbilical region where they measure most in girth four fathoms and a half. The head resembles that of a buffalo, and is connected to the body by a short neck. The fore-legs consist of two joints the extremity whereof bears some resemblance to a horse's foot, but is provided beneath with several short bristles which the animal employs in scratching up the sea-weeds that serve him as food from the stones. His back is like that of an ox; the great circumference of the belly declines at once, but the tail is gradually thinner to the fins, which act instead of hind-feet.

These animals love wet and sandy places on the sea-shore; they therefore couch in whole droves about the mouths of rivers, and are here so tame that they will suffer themselves to be stroked and even struck at. The males seemed to cohabit with only one female; at least a herd consists generally of only a pair of old ones of different sexes, of one grown up, and a small young one. Their appetite is so insatiable, that to feed it they constantly almost keep their head under water and are little concerned for their safety. In their conjugal embraces they manifest an extraordinary tenderness

tenderness, on which occasion the female plays the prude, and not till after reiterated opportunities at last yields, as if forced to compliance. The attachment of the males to the females proceeds to such length, that they submit to the most certain danger of death, if the latter be taken; and it not unfrequently happens that they will starve with hunger by the skeleton of their murdered companion. The manner of taking these animals is with large spears barbed with iron; and fastened to a long stout rope. The hunters row warily up to a drove, and the marksman, who stands in the fore part of the canoe, throws the barbed shaft at the animal, who thereupon is drawn a-shore by means of the rope, by people placed there for that purpose. But as at least two persons are necessary for this employment, and the animal resisting with the utmost exertion of his strength, the canoe follows him, and the captors endeavour to harrass him with repeated wounds till he can no longer hold out. As soon as the sea-cows in the vicinity perceive the danger of their associate, they run up to his assistance. Some strive to overturn the canoe with their backs, others throw themselves athwart the rope, trying by that means to break it asunder, or they beat about with their tails in hopes to draw out the hooks from the skin of the wounded beast, in which too they sometimes succeed.

The thick and strong hide of these animals is employed by the Americans for shoe-soles and belts; the Tschuktsches stretch them out by sticks and make use of them as canoes. The flesh of the sea-cow is indeed more coarse and fibrous than beef, but when boiled it is very like it in taste, with this advantage, that even in the hottest weather it does not easily spoil; the flesh of the young calves is, however, far more tender. The fat under the skin, which surrounds the whole body to a hand breadth, is white and mild, smells and tastes very agreeable, and yields, when boiled, a butter resembling in taste the oil of almonds. As the multitude of these animals about Kamtshatka is excessively great in general, and one of them weighing about two hundred pods, or eight thousand pounds, this nourishment might be alone sufficient to supply all the inhabitants the whole year through with wholesome and well-tasted meat.

The sea-otter wrongly called the Kamtshadale beaver, differs from the river-otter only in this, that he lives in the sea, that he is about half as big again, and approaches nearer to the beaver in fineness of hair. There is no doubt of its being an American marine-animal, and only a stranger on the coasts of Asia, where it dwells in what is called the Beaver-sea, from the 50th to the 56th degree of north latitude. It is in length usually five and its circumference in the thickest part of the body is three feet; the largest of these animals weigh from about seventy to eighty pounds. Their fur, in length, beauty, blackness, and glossiness of the hair, far excels the fur of the river-beaver. One such fur will sell at Kamtshatka for twenty, at Yakutsk for thirty, at Irkutsk forty to fifty, but on the Chinese borders in barter for eighty or a hundred rubles. The flesh of this animal is tolerably palatable, and even the flesh of the female is, contrary to the stated laws of nature, the best shortly before and after the breeding season. The food of the sea-otter is crabs, conchylide, little fishes, some sea weeds, and also flesh. There is no manner of doubt that this useful animal, if some people of spirit would go to the expence, might be brought into Russia and there rendered tame, since they are as fond of living in lakes, rivers, and ponds, as in the sea.—In point of manners, there is no animal of all that we have mentioned so amusing and agreeable as this creature so much sought after for his fur. Their favourite manner of lying is family-wise together. The male caresses the female with his fore-paws, with which he can do every thing in the most ingenious ways; and the female plays with her young, and rejects the dalliance of the father with an affected coyness. Their love for their young is so great that they not only rush into extremities for their deliverance, but not seldom grieve to death at the loss of them. On their flight they carry their sucklings in their mouth and drive the full grown before them. When they are so fortunate as to escape their pursuers they deride them as soon as they are safe in the sea with all manner of diverting tricks; one while keeping them themselves right on end in the water and jumping over the waves, at the same time holding the fore paw over the eye as if to shade it from the sun while narrowly looking out for somebody; then lying flat on the back and stroking their belly; then throwing their young into the water, and fetching them out again.

When a sea-otter is closely pressed, and sees no means of escape, he scolds and grins like an angry cat, if he receives a blow he immediately makes himself ready to die; he lies on his side, draws up his hind-legs together, and covers his eyes with his fore-paws.

The Kurils in the spring-season go out to sea in leather canoes or baiders the distance of ten versts and more for the capture of these animals. When they surprise a sea-otter, they immediately shoot arrows at him; and, as the animal cannot keep long at a time under water on account of respiration, he presents himself repeatedly at short intervals to the attacks of his enemies. By the bubbles that rise the hunters know which way he turns, and follow him in the vessel. When at length exhausted and breathless, he wishes to repose on the surface of the water they kill him with a lance.

SECTION XII.

Account of the Mines of Russia.

THE empire of Russia possesses mines which may be matched with the richest and most productive of those in any quarter of the globe; the working whereof for a century past has created a new national occupation with ample returns, and the astonishing spoils whereof have afforded the means to a beneficent administration for the most extraordinary undertakings.

The principal scene of these transactions lies in the cold metallic regions of Siberia, the acquisition whereof, after the lapse of a hundred years, unexpectedly became of such great importance to the Russian empire; for though the soil of this enormous country is almost everywhere pregnant with ores and noble as well as useful minerals, the European part, however, is herein by no means to be compared with the Asiatic. The largest works are at present carried on in the Uralian, in the Altayan, and in the Nertschinskian mineral mountains: of less importance are some iron and copper mines in those of Olonetz, and in several other parts of the empire. In the Uralian mountains are gold, iron, and copper mines, which latter are some of the most important in the empire. The Altayan mountains contain the richest gold and silver shafts, also veins of lead, copper, and iron, impregnated with gold and silver. But in the Nertschinskian mountains are very rich mines of lead containing gold and silver.

The discovery of these shafts, as well as the origin of the proper mine working in Russia is of no older a date than the beginning of the eighteenth century, as the single attempts that were made prior to that period for finding and working the metals, were but very insignificant. The nation has possessed iron-ore from times immemorial. The boors formerly collected it themselves, smelted it and made iron of it. When they were deficient in this metal, instead of it they had recourse to hard wood, which, in order to make still harder for their own use and for posterity, they laid in bogs; both methods are practised still in some parts of the empire.—In Siberia at a time reaching back beyond all history mining was so vigorously practised by a nation who now bear the name of Tschudes, that the various and large Halde, still subsisting, have given rise to a great number of newly adopted and in part very rich mines.

Of the two proper gold-mines belonging to the Russian empire, that of Beresof near Ekaterinenburg on the Ural is by far the most material. Here annually is obtained about four hundred thousand pood* of ore, which on an average yields from every thousand pood forty to six solotniks of fine gold. To these mines belong the Cavaderous and the Pyschma, on the rivulet Beresof, and Uktus, together having eight hundred and sixty-one troughs. The whole number of men employed in these works amounts upwards of two thousand, whereof about one

* Concerning the Russian weights and measures it is to be observed, that a berkoretch contains ten pood; a pood forty pounds; a pound ninety-six solotniks; a solotnik ninety-six parts; three solotniks are one lote.

thousand two hundred are in actual employ daily. No enrolled boors are any longer allowed to them.

The mines of Beresof have afforded annually three, four, five, or six, but in later years seven or eight pood of gold. From the commencement of the works here in the year 1754 till the year 1788, therefore in thirty-four years, generally about a hundred and twenty pood has been gained, which in value is estimated at one million one hundred and ninety-eight thousand rubles, and, after deducting the costs, have yielded above four hundred and eighty thousand net profit. If we take the gold and silver here obtained, as it proceeds from the separation, according to its standard in coinage, and balance it with the expences, which are paid in copper money, according to the true value of it, then a profit of near eight hundred thousand rubles will appear.

The Voytzer gold-mines in the mountains of Olonetz, which annually afford only a few (from one thousand seven hundred and forty-four to one thousand seven hundred and seventy, in general fifty-seven) pounds of gold, have, on account of the smallness of their produce, been some years since abandoned.

The most important silver-mines are those of Kolhyvan in the mineral mountains of Altay, which were undertaken by the crown in the year 1745. The main shaft is the Schlangenberg, one of the richest ever known in the world; the Semeonofskoy in point of consequence holds the next station. Besides these two there are still others, of less importance, alternately or constantly worked; and from a new shaft, Filipofskoy, to the Ulba, it is expected that the produce will in time equal that of the Schlangenberg. From all these mines together are at present annually obtained upwards of two million pood of ore, the contents whereof have of late years become poorer by one half. At first the pood of it contained five or six solotniks of auriferous silver, since only four, and latterly, especially since 1785, it contains not above two and a half. Here are five founderies, and the head-quarters are at Barnaul. The workmen employed in 1786 were altogether fifty-four thousand. The whole expenditure amounts yearly to four hundred thousand rubles, of which one half is paid in copper coined on the spot, the other half in bank assignments.

From the year 1745, when the crown took these mines into possession, to the year 1787, therefore in forty-two years, they have afforded twenty-four thousand four hundred and sixty pood of fine silver, and about eight hundred and thirty pood of fine gold, which together amount in value to upwards of thirty millions of rubles. The expences for this whole time even including the charges of separation at St. Petersburg, come to not above seven millions, consequently here is a pure gain of twenty-three millions of rubles, which is very much increased if we estimate the copper coin, in which this expence is paid at its real value, and consider, that even this is got and coined at the mines themselves.

The silver, or rather the auriferous and argentiferous lead mines of Nertschinsk have been in constant work ever since their discovery in the year 1704, but with alternate success. Here, from the several shafts, more or less rich, are obtained annually about two million pood of ore, which however is very poor, and at present on an average scarcely contains a solotnik or one and a half in a pood. Here are five founderies of which Staroi-Nertschinsk is the chief, which is also the head-quarters. The workmen are about two thousand, and the boors inrolled to it for cutting of wood, about thirteen thousand. The annual expences amount to about two hundred thousand rubles in copper coin and bank assignments.

From 1704 to 1787, therefore in eighty years, these mines produced eleven thousand six hundred and forty-four pood of silver, from which since the year 1752 about thirty-two pood of gold has been separated. Both together amount in value to about ten millions of rubles.

According to the foregoing statements, therefore, in the interval between 1704 and 1788, at all the gold and silver mines were gained about a thousand pood of gold and about thirty-six thousand pood of silver, amounting together in value to upwards of forty-five millions of rubles, and on which the expences were not more than fifteen millions of rubles.

The most important copper-mines of the Russian empire are principally in the Uralian, Altayan, and Olonetzian mountains. The Uralian mineral mountains, which contain by far the richest mines, and to which belong all the copper-works in the governments of Perme, Ufa, Viaetka, and Kazan, had in the year 1779 in all sixty

sixty founderies, together containing two hundred and twenty-nine furnaces, and at which in 1782 above one hundred and ninety thousand seven hundred and fifty-two pood of copper were obtained. In the Altayan mountains is likewise a considerable copper-mine; besides, there arises from the cupriferous silver-ore a tolerable quantity of copper: at present in all about fifteen thousand pood. In the year 1782 here were coined eighteen thousand seven hundred and ninety-three pood of copper. The spoil got from the Olonetzian mountains, and the other separate copper-works cannot be computed at more than a few hundred poods.

The entire annual amount of the copper obtained is therefore about two hundred thousand pood, the value whereof in money, reckoning the pood only at ten rubles, makes a sum of two millions of rubles. As for some years past the extraction of the copper has greatly declined, we can in fact at present scarcely admit more than two hundred thousand pood as the certain yearly total; and the price of that metal has accordingly risen.

The iron-mines form the greatest of all Russia's mineral wealth, after the salt-works. It is known to all the world, that this empire has in all its mineral mountains, and even in many of its plains, a prodigious quantity of iron-ore of all the known sorts; but the most numerous and the richest mines are in the Uralian mountains, where in the year 1779 were generally at work seventy forges and five hundred and thirty-two large hammers. There are, besides, two smelting-houses in the Altayan and Sayane mountains and several in the governments of Olonetz, Vologda, Nishnei-Novgorod, Kostroma, Kursk, Tula, Tambof, &c. Without being liable to much mistake, we may at present admit for the whole empire, about a hundred forges and eight hundred hammers; but besides the iron-works that are carried on in the gross, there are a great number of boorsmiths who smelt the ore at home and of the iron make various kinds of utensils. Such little smithies are particularly in the governments of Olonetz and Archangel, in some regions of the Volga, and in Siberia near Krasnoyarsk, Yenisseisk, &c.

END OF TOOKE'S VIEW OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE.

AN

ACCOUNT OF AN EMBASSY

TO THE

KINGDOM OF AVA,

SENT BY THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF INDIA, IN 1795.

BY MICHAEL SYMES, ESQ.

LIEUTENANT-COLONEL IN HIS MAJESTY'S 76th REGIMENT.

INTRODUCTION.

THERE are no countries on the habitable globe, where the arts of civilized life are understood, of which we have so limited a knowledge, as of those that lie between the British possessions in India and the empire of China. Concerning India beyond the Ganges, scarcely more was known to the ancients, than that such a country did exist. Undeserved importance is sometimes attributed to that which is imperfectly known.

At length the enterprizing genius of Emanuel, at the close of the fifteenth century, opened a new world, and laid the foundation of general wealth to Europe, on the ruin of the Egyptian trade, and of the state of Venice. Early in the sixteenth century, the Portuguese made themselves masters of Malacca, and soon acquired influence among the neighbouring maritime states. To the writers of this nation history is principally indebted for whatever information has been obtained of the eastern countries of India.

The Portuguese acquaint us, that four powerful states divided among them the regions which lie between the S. E. province of British India, Yunan in China, and the Eastern Sea; their territories extended from Cassay and Assam, on the N. W. as far South-eastward as the isle of Junkseylon. These nations were known to Europeans by the names of Arracan, Ava, Pegue, and Siam. Arracan, properly Yee-Kien, borders on the S. E. province of British India, and includes the sea coast with what is called the Broken Islands, as far as Cape Negrais; Ava, the name of the ancient capital of the Birmans, has been usually accepted as the name of the country at large, which is Miamma. This empire is situated eastward of Arracan, being divided from it by lofty mountains, called Anou-pec-toumiou, or the great western hilly country. On the N. W. it is separated from Cassay by the river Keen-Duem; on the N. it is bounded by mountains and petty principalities, that lie contiguous to Assam; on the N. E. and E. it reaches China and North Siam; on the S. its limits have so often varied that it is difficult to ascertain them with precision. Pegue, called by the natives Bagoo, is the country S. of Ava, which occupies the sea-coast as far as Martaban, properly Mondimaa; Prome (or Pee) was its northern frontier, and Siam adjoined on the East. The kingdom of Siam, or Shaan, comprehended as far S. as Junkseylon, E. to Cambodia and Laos, and N. to Dzemee (probably the Chiamee of Loubere), and Yunan in China. This nation calls itself Tai, and is further distinguished by the appellations Tay-yay, or Great Tai, and Tai-nay, or Little Tai: their former capital was named Yoocia or Yoodra; whence the Siamese are frequently called Yoodras by the Birmans.

The Portuguese exercised an influence in the Birman and Pegue countries, as well as Arracan, so long as they maintained an ascendancy over

other European nations in the East; but on the seizure of their settlements and abridgement of their dominions by the Dutch, the consequence that had been annexed to the Portuguese name sunk into insignificance; and the Christian settlers degenerated into a contemptible race, distinguished only for their feebleness and vice.

In the beginning of the seventeenth century, both the English and Dutch had obtained settlements in the Birman dominions, which were afterwards forfeited by the misconduct of the latter; and Europeans of all nations were banished from Ava. The English, after many years, were reinstated in their factories at Syriam and Ava; and the island of Negrais was likewise taken possession of by the English, where the government of Fort St. George established a settlement; but little benefit seems to have been derived from it.

The supremacy of the Birmans over the Peguers continued throughout the seventeenth, and during the first forty years of the eighteenth centuries, when the Peguers revolted; a civil war ensued, which was prosecuted on both sides with savage ferocity. In 1744 the British factory at Syriam was destroyed by the contending parties, and the views of commerce were suspended by precautions of personal security. Success long continued doubtful: at length the Peguers, by the aid of arms procured from the Europeans trading to their ports, and with the assistance of some renegade Dutch and native Portuguese, gained several victories over the Birmans. These advantages they pursued with so much vigour, that, early in 1752, the capital of Ava was invested. The Birmans, disheartened by repeated defeats, after a short siege, surrendered at discretion. Dweepdee, the last of a long race of Birman kings, was made prisoner with all his family, except two sons, who effected their escape to the Siamese; from whom they found a favourable reception, and were flattered with assurances of security and succour.

Bonna Della, or Beinga Della, king of Pegue, when he had completed the conquest of Ava, returned to his own country, leaving his brother Apporaza to govern the late capital of the Birman king, whom he carried with him a prisoner to Pegue; enjoining his brother to reduce the refractory, displace suspected persons, and exact an oath of allegiance from such Birmans as should be suffered to retain their former possessions. Matters at first bore the appearance of tranquillity and submission; and the principal inhabitants acknowledged themselves vassals of the conqueror.

Alompra, a Birman of low extraction, was continued by the conqueror in the chiefship of Monchaboo, at that time an inconsiderable village, about twelve miles from the river, W. of Keoum-meoum. This man, who possessed a spirit of enterprize and boldness equal to the most arduous undertakings, at first, like many others, dissembled the reluctance he felt at the imposition of a foreign yoke, and submitted to the necessity of fortune; but, unlike others, he entertained hopes of emancipation, and meditated on the best means of accomplishing his future purpose. He had at this time, in the town and neighbourhood of Monchaboo, about a hundred devoted followers, on whose courage and fidelity he could safely rely. He strengthened and repaired the stockade that surrounded the town, without awakening suspicion in the minds of the Peguers, who did not imagine that a person so inconsiderable would attempt an act of rebellion under the check of a numerous garrison, distant only fifteen leagues. Thus resting in imaginary security, there were not more than fifty Pegue soldiers in Monchaboo, who, on all occasions, treated the Birmans with contemptuous arrogance. Alompra, availing himself of the resentment excited by some particular act of indignity, roused his already well-prepared adherents to active resistance, and attacking the Peguers with irresistible violence, put every man of that nation to the sword. Well-knowing the consequence should he be taken, he now thought of placing the crown upon his own head, and he waged war with the Peguers; meeting with encouragement he pursued the war, and at length entirely vanquished the Peguers, and wore the diadem. Partial to the scene of his first success, he removed the seat of government to Monchaboo, which he constituted his capital, and fixed on as the place of his future residence. Not content with obtaining the throne of the Birman empire, he pursued the Peguers, took the city of Pegue with the king, and annexed his kingdom to his lately acquired possessions. At length the Birmans attacked Arracan, which they likewise added to their empire; and also great part of the kingdom of Siam.

The tranquillity of the Birman empire was however

however, frequently disturbed by insurrections in the conquered provinces; at length, in 1793, a peace was concluded with the Siamese, by which the Birmans acquired a great accession of the more important parts of that kingdom. Become now pre-eminent among the nations which separate the gulf of Bengal from the Chinese sea; possessed of a territory equal in extent to the German empire, (before its dismemberment by Napoleon, emperor of the French;) blessed with a salubrious climate, and a soil capable of producing almost every article of luxury, convenience, and commerce, that the East can supply, Miamma, or Birma, thus happily circumstanced, enjoyed the pleasing prospect of a long exemption from the miseries of war; but unbending pride, and resentment unjustifiably prosecuted, nearly embroiled them in fresh troubles, before they had time to profit by the advantages of peace, and threatened to raise them up a foe far more formidable than the Chinese, Arracaners, Peguers, Siamese, and Cassayers.

The trade of Arracan, which is chiefly carried on with the eastern ports through an inland navigation, when the rivers are swollen by the rains, had suffered repeated interruptions from piratical banditii, who, infesting the Broken Islands, among which the channels wind, that are the usual course of boats, not only committed depredations on private merchants, but had even the hardiness to attack fleets laden with the royal customs*. These robbers, when the season of the year did not admit of their plundering on the water, sought adventures by land; and, as the Birmans alledge, conveyed their booty of goods and cattle across the river Naaf, into the Chittagong province, where, secure from pursuit, being then under the protection of the British flag, they disposed of their spoils to advantage, and lived at ease, until returning want impelled them to renew their predatory inroads†.

The banks of this river are covered with deep jungles, interspersed with scanty spots of cultivation, and a few wretched villages, where dwell the poorest classes of herdsmen, and the families of roving hunters, whose occupation it is to catch and tame the wild elephants, with which these forests abound. The asylum that such unfrequented places offered to persons concerned in a lawless traffic, rendered it easy to be carried on without the knowledge of the English officers of justice; nor could it possibly reach the notice of the Supreme Board, unless a proper representation was made, either by the individuals that were aggrieved, or by the government of their country. This, however, was a condescension, to which the mighty emperor of the Birmans, who conceives himself superior to every potentate on earth would never stoop. To ask redress was beneath his dignity; he proceeded by a more summary course to do himself justice. On its being ascertained that three distinguished leaders of the robbers had sought refuge in the British districts, his Birman majesty, without communicating his intention, or in any form demanding the fugitives, thought fit to order a body of five thousand men, under an officer of rank, to enter the Company's territories, with positive injunctions to the commander not to return, unless he brought with him the delinquents, dead or alive; further, to support this detachment, an army of twenty thousand men were held in readiness at Arracan.

So unexpected an aggression, offered without any previous remonstrance, or the assignment of any plea, left no room for discussing the merits of the case. The Birmans having taken upon themselves to redress their own grievances, it became necessary to convince them that they had mistaken the mode; and what they might readily procure from English justice, they could never extort through fear: to accomplish this purpose, a strong detachment was formed at the presidency, the conduct of which was entrusted to Major General Erskine; the troops proceeded from Calcutta to Chittagong, a battalion of Europeans and artillery by water, and the native sepoys‡ by land.

Serce Nunda Kiozo, the Birman chief, to whom the arduous task of reclaiming the fugitives

* Customs are usually received in kind, viz. one tenth of the commodity.

† The river Naaf, which bounds the British and Birman territories, is situated at a considerable distance from the town of Chittagong, the seat of provincial government, and residence of the English magistrate.

‡ The word *sepoy*, by which name the native troops of India are always called, is derived from the Persian word *sipah*, which means a soldier, and is constantly used to distinguish the native troops from European soldiers. EDITOR.

was assigned, acted with more circumspection and prudence than the government from which he had received his instructions. After he had crossed the river, and encamped on the western bank, he dictated a letter to the British judge and magistrate of Chittigong, acquainting him of the reasons for the inroad; that the caption of the delinquents was his sole object, without harbouring any design of hostilities against the English. At the same time he declared, in a style of peremptory demand, that until they were given up, he would not depart from the Company's territories: in confirmation of this menace, he fortified his camp in the Birman manner, with a stockade, and seemed determined to resist any attempt to oblige him to retire. These matters being reported to the government, the Governor General was pleased to order the magistrate of Chittigong to apprehend the refugees, and keep them in safe custody until further directions.

On the approach of General Erskine, the Birman general sent a flag of truce, to propose terms of accommodation, stipulating for the surrender of the fugitives as the basis of the agreement. General Erskine replied, that no proposals could be listened to whilst the Birmans continued on English ground; but so soon as they should withdraw from their fortified camp, and retire within their own frontiers, he would enter on the subject of their complaints; notifying also, that unless they evacuated the Company's possessions in a limited time, force would be used to compel them. The Birman chief, in a manly confidence of the English character, personally waited on General Erskine, and disclosed to him the nature of his instructions, the enormity of the offenders, and the outrages they had committed. General Erskine, whose moderation and judgement on this occasion cannot be too highly commended, assured him, that it was far from the intention of the British government to screen delinquents, or sanction in their country an asylum for robbers; but as the manner in which the Birman troops had entered the Company's district was so repugnant to the principles that ought to regulate the conduct of civilized nations, it was impossible for him to recede from his first determination. He gave hopes, notwithstanding, that if the Birmans peaceably retired, the Governor General would institute a regular inquiry into the charges preferred against the prisoners; adding, that instant compliance with the conditions prescribed, was the only ground on which they could expect so great an indulgence. The Birman general, either contented with this intimation, or convinced that opposition would be fruitless, professed his reliance on General Erskine, and agreed to withdraw his troops: the retreat was conducted in the most orderly manner; and so strict was the subordination observed in the Birman army, that not one act of violence was committed either on the person or property of British subjects while it continued within the Company's district. General Erskine was afterwards empowered, by the Governor General, to investigate the charges against the refugees, when, after a formal and deliberate hearing, their guilt being established on the clearest evidence, they were delivered over to their own laws, by whose sentence, two out of the three underwent capital punishment.

The amicable termination of this difference afforded a favourable opportunity to acquire a more accurate knowledge than had hitherto been obtained, of a people whose situation, extent of territory, and commercial connections with British India, rendered a liberal intercourse with them highly desirable. The trade between Calcutta, Madras, and Rangoon, had of late years so rapidly increased, as to become an object of national importance, more particularly on account of teak timber, the produce of Ava and Pegue, whence Calcutta and Madras draw all their supplies of wood for ship building, and for various other purposes. A commerce in one article so essential to us, and so extensive as to require an annual return of Indian commodities to the amount of two hundred thousand pounds sterling, was an object worth cultivating. Representations had, at different times, been made to the Supreme Board, complaining of injustice and oppression at the port of Rangoon: to prevent the recurrence of a like misunderstanding; to form a commercial connection on equitable and fixed principles, and to establish a confidential and authentic correspondence, such as ought to subsist between two great and contiguous nations, Sir John Shore (now Lord Teignmouth) thought proper to send a formal deputation to the Birman court. Nor were these the only ends to be answered by the embassy; the influence which the natural enemies of Great Britain had acquired in that quarter was to be combated, and, if pos-

sible, overcome; whilst the natives were to be impressed with an adequate sense of the power, the resources, and, above all, the equity of the British character, in such a manner as to convince them that their real interests were connected with a state that neither meditated, nor would suffer encroachments and sought for nothing beyond an interchange of merchandize, on terms mutually beneficial. The result of this mission, through the various stages of its progress and completion, will be detailed in the subsequent pages.

The Birmans, under their present monarch, are certainly rising fast in the scale of Oriental nations. Knowledge increases with commerce; and as they are not shackled by any prejudices of casts, restricted to hereditary occupations, or forbidden from participating with strangers in every social bond, their advancement will, in all probability, be rapid. At present, so far from being in a state of intellectual darkness, although they have not yet explored the depths of science, nor reached to excellence in the finer arts, they yet have an undeniable claim to the character of civilized and well instructed people. Their laws are wise, and pregnant with sound morality; their police is better regulated than in most European countries; their natural disposition is friendly, and hospitable to strangers; and their manners rather expressive of manly candour, than courteous dissimulation: the gradations of rank, and the respect due to station, are maintained with a scrupulosity which never relaxes. A knowledge of letters is wisely diffused, that there are no mechanics, few of the peasantry, or even the common watermen, (usually the most illiterate class,) who cannot read and write in the vulgar tongue. Few, however, are versed in the more erudite volumes of science.

SECTION I.

Sail from Calcutta, on board the Sea Horse—Make the Cocoa Islands—Touch at Port Cornwallis in the Great Andaman.—Some Account of the Island—Prepare to depart.

HAVING received my commissions from the Governor General, one appointing me Agent Plenipotentiary, with power to treat, in the name of the Supreme Government of India, with the Emperor of Ava; the other, vesting in me authority to take cognizance of the conduct of the British subjects trading to, or residing in, the countries that I was destined to visit; on Feb. 21, 1795, I embarked (says Col. Symes) at Calcutta, on board the Sea Horse, an armed cruizer belonging to the East India Company, Captain Thomas, Commander, attended by Mr. Wood, Assistant and Secretary, and Dr. Buchanan, Surgeon to the mission. Our numbers were more than twenty persons. On the evening of the 26th, our pilot left us in seven fathoms water; but the wind being foul, we anchored for the night, and next morning stood to the south-east with a favouring breeze, which blew without intermission till the 4th of March, when we made the Great and Little Cocoa Islands, so called from being clothed with cocoa nut trees of unusual luxuriance. These islands are flat, small, and swampy; they are uninhabited, and destitute of good water. Steering between the southern Cocoa and the north end of the Island of Andaman, we opened Port Cornwallis* on the east side of the latter. At eleven o'clock on the 5th, we hauled our wind and stood in; at one we came to anchor a quarter of a mile from the shore. On landing we were received by Captains Ramsay and Stokoe (Colonel Kyd, the Governor, being absent,) with the kindest hospitality, which continued during the time we remained their guests.

The Andaman Islands are a continuation of the Archipelago that extends from Cape Negrais to Atcheen Head, stretching from 10° 32′ to 13° 40′ N. lat. and from 90° 6′ to 92° 59′ E. lon. The Great Andaman, the most northern, is

* The settlement in Port Cornwallis is not situated on the principal island, but on a smaller one within the harbour, named Chatham Island by the English; the utmost length of which does not exceed two miles, and the breadth little more than half a mile: the southern extremity terminates in a narrow neck of land, fordable at low water to the main.

about 140 miles long, and 20 broad. A separation, or strait, however, has lately, owing to a fatal accident, been discovered in this island, which, in fact, divides it into two, and opens a clear passage into the Bay of Bengal*. The first settlement of the English was made in 1791, near the southern extremity of the island, in a bay on the east side; but was afterwards removed in 1793, by advice of Admiral Cornwallis, to the place where it is now established. The original object of the undertaking was to procure a commodious harbour on the east side of the bay, to receive and shelter his Majesty's ships during the continuance of the north-east monsoon; it was also used as a place of reception for convicts sentenced for transportation from Bengal.

In the evening we walked round the grounds that had been cleared, making a circuit of little more than a quarter of a mile. A small garden, diligently tilled, produced but a scanty crop of Indian vegetables. A shallow soil, impregnated with leaves and decayed brushwood, washed down by the mountain streams, proved at first unfavourable to cultivation; the pains, however, which had been bestowed, seemed likely in the end to overcome this discouragement. The situation of the settlement on the side of a hill, rising abruptly from the verge of the sea, although calculated to avoid the unwholesome effects of stagnant waters, was yet at times attended with great inconvenience, owing to the impetuosity of the torrents.

Notwithstanding the colony had been established on its present site little more than sixteen months, the habitations of the commandant and officers, were rendered extremely comfortable: the first constructed of stone and planks, the latter of mats and clay, thatched with leaves of the rattan, or covered with boards. The surgeon had a separate dwelling assigned him, and there was likewise a commodious mess-room. The number of inhabitants altogether was about seven hundred, including a company of sepoys as a guard over the convicts, and a defence to the settlement.

A situation more picturesque, or a view more romantic, than that which Chatham Island and Cornwallis harbour present, can scarcely be imagined: land-locked on all sides, nothing is to be seen but an extensive sheet of water, resembling a vast lake, interspersed with small islands, and environed by lofty mountains clothed with impenetrable forests. The scenery of nature in this sequestered spot is uncommonly striking and grand.

All that voyagers have related of uncivilized life seems to fall short of the barbarism of the people of Andaman. The ferocious natives of New Zealand, or the shivering half-animated savages of Terra del Fuego, are in a relative state of refinement compared to these islanders. The population of the Great Andaman and all its dependencies, does not, according to Capt. Stokoe, exceed two thousand or two thousand five hundred souls: these are dispersed in small societies along the coasts, or on the smaller islands within the harbour, never penetrating deeper than the skirts of the forests, which hold out little inducement for them to enter, as they contain no animals to supply them with food. Their sole occupation seems to be that of climbing rocks, or roving along the margin of the sea in quest of a precarious meal of fish, which during the tempestuous season they often seek for in vain.

The Andamaners are not more favoured in the conformation of their bodies, than in the endowments of their mind. In stature they seldom exceed five feet; their limbs are disproportionately slender, their bellies protuberant, with high shoulders and large heads; and, strange to find in this part of the world, they are a degenerate race of Negroes with woolly hair, flat noses, and thick lips; their eyes are small and red, their skin of a deep sooty black, whilst their countenances exhibit the extreme of wretchedness: a horrid mixture of famine and ferocity. They go quite

* In the month of February, 1792, a vessel was freighted from Madras to carry stores to his majesty's fleet at Andaman. The master, being unacquainted with the harbour, sent a small boat, in the afternoon, to explore an opening in the land, that appeared like the entrance; the boat stood in, it fell dark, and she was swept, by a rapid current, through a channel that divided the main island, and opened into the Bay of Bengal. The north-east monsoon prevailed with great violence: unable to work against stream and wind, the boat was borne to leeward, and driven irresistibly into the Indian Ocean. Eighteen days afterwards she was picked up by a French ship, near the equinoctial line. The crew consisted of two Europeans and six lascars; and, shocking to relate, when relieved by the French ship, three of the Lascars had been killed and eaten by their companions.

naked

naked, and are insensible of any shame from exposure*.

Their religion is the simple but genuine homage of nature to the incomprehensible Ruler of the universe, expressed in adoration to the Sun as the primary and obvious source of good; to the Moon as the secondary power; and to the genii of the woods, the waters, and the mountains, as inferior agents. In the spirit of the storms they confess the influence of a malignant being; and, during the south west monsoon, when tempests prevail with unusual violence, they deprecate his wrath by wild chorusses, which they chant in small congregations assembled on the beach, or on some rock that overhangs the ocean.

The language of the Andamaners has not been discovered to possess the slightest affinity to any that is spoken in India, either continental or islandic. Captain Stokoe informed me, that what he heard was not at all harsh or disagreeable to the ear; their songs are wildly melodious, and their gesticulation, whilst singing, is extremely impassioned.

SECTION II.

Sail from the Andamans—Arrive at the Mouth of Rangoon River—Arrival at Rangoon, and extraordinary Conduct of the Government—Concession on the Part of the Rangoon Government.

HAVING passed five days at the Andaman Islands; the Hindoos, whose religion forbids them to drink water drawn by impure hands, having filled their own casks; and the stock of our numerous company being replenished; we prepared to depart, and on the 10th we stood to sea. Next morning at day light we made the isle of Narcondam†. On the 16th we found ourselves nearly in the latitude of the roads of Rangoon: we anchored for the night in five fathoms, and perceived lights on the beach. Next morning we discovered low land, about six miles to the N. W. Here we remained till the 18th, waiting for a pilot, standing off and on with short tacks during the day, and at anchor in the night. Finding that our signals, by firing guns and hoisting colours in the usual manner, were not answered, Mr. Palmer, the second officer, was sent in the pinnace, with instructions to proceed up the river as far as Rangoon, in case he did not find a pilot sooner. On the ensuing day Captain Thomas ventured to stand in; and steering by land-marks, and sending a boat a-head, crossed the bar without a pilot, at half-flood, in four fathoms. At twelve o'clock we entered the Rangoon river. Four miles within the extremes

* The few implements used by the Andamaners are of the rudest texture; a bow from four to five feet long, the string made of the fibre of a tree, or a slip of bamboo, with arrows of reed, headed with fish bone, or wood hardened in the fire, is their principal weapon. Besides this, they carry a spear of heavy wood sharply pointed, and a shield made of bark to defend themselves from the assaults of their enemies; for even these poor wretches have rights to assert, and dignities to maintain; necessity has taught them an expert management of their arms, on which they rely for subsistence: happily for them, their numerous bays and creeks abound with fish, which they shoot and spear with surprizing dexterity. They are said also to use a small hand net, made of the filaments of bark; the fish when caught is put into a wicker basket, which they carry on their backs. Having kindled a fire, they throw the food on the coals, and devour it half broiled. A few diminutive swine are to be found in the skirts of the forests, and among the mangrove thickets in the low grounds; but these are very scarce, and are probably the progeny of a stock left by former navigators. When a native has the good fortune to slay one, he carefully preserves the skull and teeth to ornament his hut. They cross the bays, and go to fish either in canoes formed of a hollow tree, or on rafts of bamboo, which they direct by paddles. Their habitations display little more ingenuity than the dens of wild beasts: four sticks stuck in the ground, are bound together at the top, and fastened transversely by others, to which the branches of trees are suspended; an opening is left on one side, just large enough to admit of entrance: leaves compose their bed. Being much incommoded by insects, their first occupation in a morning is to plaster their bodies all over with mud, which, hardening in the sun, forms an impenetrable armour; they paint their woolly heads with red ochre and water: when thus completely dressed, a more hideous appearance is not to be found in human form. Although the principal food of the Andamaners consists of fish, yet they eagerly seize on whatever else presents itself; lizards, guanas, rats, and snakes supply a change of repast.

† Narcondam is a barren rock, rising abruptly out of the ocean, about twenty leagues E. of the Andamans. It is uninhabited, and seemingly destitute of vegetation.

we came to a small village, whence a boat rowed towards us*. The Birman officer on board the boat enquired, in broken Portugueze, the name of the ship, whence she came, what arms and ammunition were on board, and the name of the commander. Being satisfied in these points, he carefully committed them to writing. Mr. Palmer now appeared in the ship's boat, bringing a pilot with him from Rangoon; and our cautious visitor took his leave.

About two o'clock a small boat from Rangoon met the ship: a man in it hailed our pilot in Hindoostanee, and desired him to cast anchor, as it was the intention of the governor of Rangoon to come down and receive the British deputation in person. Of course we complied with his request. We continued at anchor till the next day, when about noon the fleet came in sight: it consisted of from twenty to thirty boats; on a nearer approach, only four out of the number seemed to belong to persons of superior condition. Three persons, apparently of higher rank, came on board: they meant to be civil, but were perfectly free from restraint, and took possession of chairs without waiting for any invitation, or paying the smallest regard to those who were not seated; whilst their attendants, seemingly as much at ease as their masters, formed a semicircle around them on the deck. The chief of the three, a good-looking young man, of short stature, I understood to be a person of consideration: he was governor of the province of Dalla. The second, an elderly plain man, said he was Nak-haan-gee; literally, the royal ear. I was afterwards informed he was transmitter of intelligence, or reporter, to the imperial court; an office of much confidence. The third, a Seree, an inferior secretary, was a man of little relative importance compared with the other two. We conversed for an hour, through the medium of an interpreter who spoke the Hindoostanee: they were extremely inquisitive, and asked many questions concerning the objects of the mission, which were answered in friendly but general terms. Having paid their compliments, they arose to depart, and returned to their boats, making lavish professions of friendship. At length we reached Rangoon. The Princess Royal East Indiaman, that had come from Madras for a cargo of timber, fired a salute to the Company's colours; and the Sea Horse paid a compliment to the battery on shore, of eleven guns, which were returned by an equal number: the pilot came-to below the town, apart from the other ships about half a mile. As soon as the Sea Horse dropped anchor, all the boats withdrew without further notice or explanation.

Being desirous of sending some of our attendants on shore to refresh themselves, particularly the Hindoos, whose religion enjoins them not to eat victuals dressed on board, and who were on that account put to great inconvenience, being obliged at sea to subsist on dried fruits, sweetmeats, and parched pulse: I sent one of the attendants to the governor of Dalla, to acquaint him with my wish. He, in reply, desired that I would defer landing till the following day, when a habitation that was preparing for our reception would be in readiness: with this request I acquiesced, and communicated the same to Captain Thomas, and the gentlemen of the deputation, who forbade their servants to leave the ship without express permission.

About five o'clock in the afternoon the interpreter returned on board, and informed me, that the Raywoon, or governor of the town, meant to wait on me the next day at the dwelling assigned to us; intimating also, that he was ordered to remain on board to receive my commands. He spoke the Hindoostanee fluently; and I desired the Moonshee, a discreet and sensible man, to entertain him. The night passed without any communication with the shore, or with the other ships in the river.

Next morning, the 21st, at ten o'clock, the Seree, or under secretary, came on board, accompanied by a man of Portuguese extraction, who spoke very imperfect English. The Seree told me he was about to depart for Pegue, charged with dispatches for the Maywoon, or Viceroy; and requested to know whether I had any commands: I replied in the affirmative; adding, that it was my wish to send a confidential person to his Excellency, to deliver to him a letter from the Governor General of India, and another from myself. Finding I would not trust my dispatches to him, the Seree promised to call at

* This proved to be a watch-boat, which is stationed at the mouth of the river, to send intelligence of the arrival of vessels to the nearest guard, whence it is forwarded to the governor of Rangoon.

noon,

goon, and convey my messenger to Pegue (about ninety miles distant) in his own boat; a promise which he omitted to perform.

In the afternoon, Mr. Wood, Dr. Buchanan, and myself, landed, and were conducted to a spacious temporary building which had been prepared for our reception: it was situated on the verge of the river, about five hundred yards below the town, opposite to where the Sea Horse was moored; it consisted of only one story, raised three feet from the ground, supported on posts driven into the earth; an elevation very necessary to the comfort of its inhabitants, as the high spring tides washed the foundation pillars, and almost insulated the building, by filling a channel which the rains had excavated. This edifice, about ninety feet in length, was entirely composed of bamboos and strong cane mats, and divided into several compartments; the roof was lofty, and covered with the same materials, which were laid in such a manner as to afford protection from rain, and shade from the sun: the floor, a bamboo grating, was likewise spread with mats; and in one apartment small carpets were laid, doubtless designed as a mark of distinction. On landing, we were received by the Seree, who made a frivolous excuse for not having called according to his promise. On entering the virando, or balcony, we were saluted by the sounds of very discordant music, issuing from the instruments of a band of musicians sent by the Governor to welcome us; to these he had obligingly added a set of dancing girls, and tumbling boys, who exhibited a variety of movements in attitudes, some of which was not ungraceful. Having dismissed this noisy assemblage, and taken a view of our habitation, we thought it more advisable and more commodious to sleep on board. Leaving therefore part of the guard and a few of our attendants to occupy the house, we returned at dusk, and passed the night on board the Sea Horse, better lodged, and more comfortably, than if we had continued in our new dwelling.

Not a boat, however, of any description, during all this time, came to our ship, either from the English merchantmen in the river, or from shore; a circumstance that bore the appearance of distrust and prohibition on the part of the government; but the truth was, that matters of etiquette had not been adjusted.

On the following morning, Captain Thomas and the gentlemen of the deputation accompanied me on shore to our habitation. We found no person of distinguished consequence there; but crowds of the lower class, both men and women, were collected from curiosity. In a short time several baskets were brought, with the Raywoon's, or Governor's compliments, containing venison, ducks, chickens, bread, and roots: the same company of musicians that had performed on the preceding day, attended to amuse us. At twelve o'clock the approach of a person of erudition was announced, when a tall elderly man, of a graceful appearance, followed by several attendants, was ushered in, under the title of Baba Sheen, whose manners were easy and respectful. After informing me, through the medium of a Portuguese interpreter, that he was second in authority at Rangoon, and held the office of Ackawoon, he apologized for the absence of the Raywoon, or Governor of the town, who, he said, was prevented from waiting on me by indisposition; and added, that he would be happy to shew me every attention in his power. I expressed my sense of his politeness; remarking, that my wants were confined to permission to purchase a few necessaries, and the means of finding a messenger to the Viceroy of Pegue, with a letter from the Governor General of India, and one from myself, which I was desirous should be delivered as speedily as possible. To this he replied, that he would forward by express any commands I might have; observing that it was an useless trouble to send a servant of my own. His meaning was obvious, and as this was his first visit, which might be considered rather as ceremonious, than as intended to discuss business, I did not press the matter farther; being, however, determined not to protract the purposes of the mission longer than was necessary. We parted about two o'clock; and, at his desire, my Moonshee wrote a list of such articles as we stood in need of, and tendered payment beforehand; an offer that was declined. Early in the afternoon Baba Sheen, the Ackawoon, paid us another visit, and brought with him, as interpreter, a Mussulman merchant, who spoke Persian tolerably well, through whom I was enabled to convey my sentiments with more ease than at our former meeting.

A great deal of trifling and evasive answers, however,

however, took place on the part of the Rangoon government; and the petty marks of authorized disrespect from different quarters, at length determined me to come to a full and satisfactory eclarcissement with that government, before I would consent to visit the Viceroy at Pegue. In pursuance of this resolution, I sent to Baba Sheen, desiring to see him as soon as convenient; and he accordingly soon after paid me a visit. After recapitulating the various causes of umbrage which had been given me, I added, that all these reasons combined, which were further strengthened by the Viceroy's returning a vague and verbal reply to the Governor General's letter, contrary to their known usage, rendered it impossible for me to proceed to Pegue, until he should explain the motive for such mysterious conduct; and I desired, that if any doubts were entertained respecting the objects of my mission, or the nature of my designs, he would express himself freely, and give me an opportunity, by removing them, to undeceive their government. He replied, as usual, in equivocal terms, and by an assurance that it was no more than what was conformable to custom. I said, I was sorry that our customs were so incompatible with theirs: that I could not, consistent with what I owed to the dignity of my own government, longer submit to my present situation; that as their forms and ours differed so widely, and, from what he said, were not likely to correspond, without a derogatory concession on one part or the other, there was no help for it; we could not apply the remedy, and should part as we had met, on terms of mutual good will and friendship. As I had thus far acquiesced, Baba Sheen did not expect that matters would take such a turn: intelligence of my arrival had been forwarded to the court, and the authors of my departure would be subject to its displeasure: he appeared alarmed, and earnestly asked, "What is it you desire?" I replied, immediate release from all personal restraint; that the spies which were stationed on board the Sea Horse, and the sentinels that accompanied every boat that left or came to the ship should be removed; that my servants should have the same liberty that the servants of other strangers enjoyed, with leave to purchase what they wanted; that boats from shipping in the river should have free access, and the commanders permission to visit me; that Mr. Wood should have safe conduct to the Viceroy of Pegue, to receive in person a verbal acknowledgement of the Governor General's letter, and an invitation to me to visit Pegue, or bring with him a written reply; that unless these reasonable requisitions were acceded to, I must beg leave to depart, which I should do on the most amicable terms; and only regret that the public character I had the honour to fill, did not admit of concessions on my part which would be considered as humiliating by my countrymen. To this Baba Sheen answered in his former strain, endeavouring to amuse me with a story quite impertinent to the subject. I told him it was very well; the English and Birman nations, I hoped, would long continue to maintain a friendly intercourse: at the same time begged to be favoured with his commands to Calcutta. Finding, however, that I was determined, he said he would consult the Raywoon, and give me a reply in the afternoon: he then took his leave.

At four o'clock, Mr. Wood and myself met the Raywoon and Baba Sheen at our habitation; they came accompanied by a numerous train of followers; among whom, the Nak-haan attended, to listen to, and note the conversation. After talking for three hours to no purpose, and offering to yield in some things, they at length agreed to give up every point. Mr. Wood was to accompany Baba Sheen to Pegue; the captains of the English ships were to have free access; our attendants liberty to purchase what they wanted, and to go where they pleased; the spies stationed on board the Sea Horse were to be removed, and boats suffered to pass from the ship to the shore without a Birman sentinel. These matters being stipulated, and a punctual performance solemnly promised, I relinquished my design of going away for the present, and we parted with apparent contentment and good humour on both sides: and the morning of the 29th produced a satisfactory adjustment of every point in contention, by an unqualified acquiescence on the part of the Rangoon government, to my several requisitions.

SECTION

SECTION III.

Consent to go to Pegue before the Return of Mr. Wood.—Suspicions of the Birmans awakened by designing Persons—Arts used to counteract the English Deputation—Embark for Pegue—Appearance of the Country—Destitute of Population, and infested by Wild Beasts.

AT the earnest solicitation of Baba Sheen, I consented to embark for Pegue on March 31, and not wait the return of Mr. Wood, who had gone thither to the Viceroy, as I had at first intended. The annual festival at the great temple of Pegue was about to be celebrated with sumptuous magnificence; and the Viceroy had expressed a particular desire that the English gentlemen should witness the rejoicings. I told Baba Sheen that I would relinquish my original determination in this point, as a mark of my confidence in him, and perfect conviction of the friendly inclinations of the Viceroy.

Previous to this amicable termination of a disagreement which at first bore an inauspicious appearance, I had conjectured what were the real motives of their distrust, and my conclusions afterwards proved to be rightly founded. Pride, the natural characteristic of the Birmans, was inflamed by the arts of designing men, and suspicion was awakened by misrepresentation. The Birmans, sensible of the advantages of commerce, but inexpert in the practice, desirous to improve, but unacquainted with the principles of trade, had of late years given toleration to all sects, and invited strangers of every nation to resort to their ports; and being themselves free from those prejudices of cast which shackle their Indian neighbours, they permitted foreigners to intermarry and settle among them. These settlers flocked to Rangoon, and were received with hospitality by a liberal nation: many of them soon acquired wealth by means of their superior knowledge. The Parsees, the Armenians, and a small proportion of Mussulmen, engrossed the largest share of the trade of Rangoon; and individuals from their number were frequently selected by government to fill employments of trust that related to trade and transactions with foreigners, the duties of which the Birmans supposed that such persons could perform better than themselves.

Several private merchants had thus acquired influence in Rangoon. These people naturally behold with a jealous eye any advance of a commercial nature, that may tend to diminish their influence, and deprive them of that dictatorial power, which they assume and exercise over all merchants and mariners that resort to Rangoon: but of none are they so apprehensive as of the English; a connection with whom, they apprehend, might teach the Birmans to transact foreign business without their assistance, and give them a more adequate sense of their own interests Under these fears they had long been discriminating the seeds of suspicion, and warning the Birmans to be on their guard against British fraud, as well as British force; but no sooner did they hear of the present deputation, than the alarm bell was sounded from all quarters. They represented our designs to be of the most dangerous tendency; and endeavoured to work on the superstition of the people, by the promulgation of a prophecy, that in less than twelve months the English colours would fly on the Rangoon flag-staff. These artifices, not now practised for the first time, were not void of effect. This accounts for the coolness of our reception at Rangoon.

This day the captains of the principal ships in the river dined with me on shore. The Raywoon, knowing that I was to have company, sent a whole antelope, with Indian vegetables in abundance; and acquainted me, that boats would be in readiness for us on the following day at noon, as I had promised to leave Rangoon by the evening's tide.

The morning of the following day was spent in preparation for our journey to Pegue; and about noon three boats were in readiness at the creek near our dwelling. The one designed for my conveyance was comfortable, according to Birman notions of accommodation*.

It was rowed by twelve Birman watermen, who

* It consisted of three small compartments, partitioned off by mats, neatly fastened to slips of bamboo cane: the centre room was lined with India chintz; the roof, however, was so low as not to admit of a person standing upright; an inconvenience scarcely to be endured by an European, but not at all regarded by Asiatics.

used

used short oars made in the English form, and who seemed to understand their business. A large heavy boat was provided for the soldiers and our domestics, and a small cutter attended as a kitchen: the boat destined for Dr. Buchanan did not arrive until it was dark, and being a very indifferent one we imagined it was kept out of sight for that reason.

The mouth of the Syrian or Pegue river, where it joins with that of Rangoon, is about three miles below the town; we therefore waited till the ebb tide was nearly spent, in order to drop down, and take the first of the flood to ascend the river of Pegue. At eight o'clock at night we embarked, accompanied by two war-boats; in one of which was the Nak-baan of Rangoon, and in the other an inferior officer. A black Portugueze, in the service of the provincial government, who spoke the language of Hindostan, came as official interpreter: we had likewise another Portugueze, named Pauntchoo, who engaged in my service at the Andaman Island, and who was a valuable acquisition to me during the mission*.

Early in the morning Dr. Buchanan and myself walked out with our guns, accompanied by half a dozen attendants: the country round, as far as our view could reach, displayed a level plain with clumps of trees at distant intervals; a thick reedy grass had grown in some places very high, in others, where it had been burnt, there appeared good pasturage for cattle: we saw the embanked divisions of a few rice plantations, and discovered the vestiges of former culture and population; but during a walk of two hours the eye was not gratified by the sight of a house, or an inhabitant: desolated by the contentions of the Birmans and Peguers, the country had not yet recovered from the ravages of war. The banks of the river, on each side, are low, and the land seems adapted to produce excellent crops; but it is now quite deserted, and become the undisputed domain of the wild beasts of the forest.

SECTION IV.

Arrive at Pegue—Polite Reception—Invited to the Celebration of the Annual Festival—Procession &c. described—Introduction to the Maywoon, or Viceroy—Grand Display of Fireworks—Curious of the Birmans—The Birmans close the Year with a purificatory Ceremonial, in which the English Gentlemen bear a Part.

AT noon we got under way, and soon passed a village on the right, consisting of about twenty houses; the river gradually diminished in breadth, and at this place was not more than forty yards wide, the banks covered with coppice and long reeds: after passing another and larger village where there was a chokey or watch-house, we proceeded through a cultivated country, and numerous villages appeared on each side. At seven in the evening we were in sight of Pegue, and judged the distance by water from Rangoon to be about ninety miles, most part of the way in a northward direction; but the windings of the river are so great, that the road in a strait line must be much less. When we approached the landing-place, Mr. Wood came down to meet us, and the favourable account he gave of his reception, added not a little to the satisfaction of having finished our journey: we also found Baba Sheen on the bank waiting our arrival; who conducted us with great civility to our habitation, which we were pleased at finding far superior to that we had left†.

We had each a small apartment as a bed chamber, with carpets spread over the mats, and a large room to dine in and to receive visitors; huts were also erected for our attendants; and a bamboo palisade, inclosing a court sufficiently spacious, surrounded the whole. Shortly after our arrival, two officers of government waited

* He spoke the Birman language fluently, and that of Hindostan intelligibly: the latter was the medium commonly used in my conversations with Birmans, and I was seldom at a loss to find some person that understood it.

† Like Birman houses in general, it was raised between three and four feet from the ground, composed wholly of bamboos and mats, and indifferently thatched. This is a defect that extends universally to their own dwellings, and affords matter of surprize in a country where the coarse grass used for thatching is so plentiful.

me, with compliments of congratulation from the Maywoon: they staid but a short time, perceiving that we were busy in arranging conveniences for the night.

In the afternoon of the next day an officer called Che-Key, second in rank to the Maywoon, and the Scree-dogee, or secretary of the provincial government, accompanied by Baba Sheen, paid us a visit to tea. They informed me, that the Maywoon, or Viceroy, who had been much engaged in directing the preparations for the ensuing festival, hoped we would wave ceremony, and give him our company on the following morning at the great temple of Shoemadoo, to view the amusements of the first day: an invitation that I gladly accepted, from motives of curiosity as well as of respect.

At eight o'clock in the morning Baba Sheen arrived, in order to conduct us to the temple; and brought with him three small horses, equipped with saddles and bridles. After breakfast, Mr. Wood, Dr. Buchanan, and myself mounted, and, attended by Baba Sheen, and an Ackedoo, an officer belonging to the Maywoon's household, also on horseback, set out to view the ceremony. We entered the new town by the nearest gate, and proceeded upwards of a quarter of a mile through the principal street till we came to where it was crossed at right angles by another, which led from the Maywoon's residence to the temple. Here our progress was stopped by a great concourse of people, and we perceived on each side of the way troops marching by single files, in slow time, towards the temple. By the advice of Baba Sheen, we occupied a convenient spot to view the procession*.

As we had not been formally introduced, the Maywoon passed by without honouring us with any notice. Proceeding to the foot of the steps that lead to the pagoda, his elephant knelt down to suffer him to alight. Whilst he was in the performance of this act, the parade elephants knelt also, and the crowd that followed squatted on their heels. Having ascended the flight of steps, he put off his shoes, and walked once round the temple without his umbrella, which was laid aside out of reverence to the sanctity of the place. When he had finished this ceremony, he proceeded to the scene of amusement, a sort of theatre erected at an angle of the area of the temple. Two saloons, or open halls, separate from the great building, formed two sides of the theatre, which was about fifty feet square, covered by awning of grass, spread on a flat roof of slender canes, supported by bamboo poles. Beneath the projecting verge of the roof of one of the saloons there was an elevated seat, with a handsome canopy of cloth, for the accommodation of the Maywoon and his three children; and on a bare bench beneath him sat the principal officers of his court. Seats were provided for the English gentlemen, covered with fine carpeting, but without any canopy. The diversions of the day consisted entirely of boxing and wrestling. In order to prevent injury to the champions, the ground had been prepared, and made soft with moistened sand. At the latter exercise they seemed to be very expert: a short man was particularly distinguished for his superior skill and strength; and it was said, that in former contests he had killed two of his antagonists. The first that encountered him on the present occasion, though much superior in size, was, after a short struggle, pitched on his head, and, as the bystanders said, severely hurt. Many others displayed great activity and address; but in the art

* The troops that we saw were the Maywoon's guard; five or six hundred men passed us in this manner, wretchedly armed and equipped; many had muskets that appeared in a very unserviceable state, with accoutrements not in a more respectable condition; some were provided with spears, others with sabres; whilst their dress was as motley as their weapons. Several were naked to the middle, having only a kummerband, or waist-cloth, rolled round their waist, and passed between their legs; some were dressed in old velvet or cloth coats, which they put on regardless of size or fashion, although it scarcely covered their nakedness, or trailed on the ground: it was finery, and finery in any shape was welcome. Some wore Dutch broad-brimmed hats bound with gold lace, others the crowns of hats without any brim at all: the officers of this martial band, who were for the most part Christian descendants of Portuguese ancestors, exhibited a very grotesque appearance. The first personages of rank that passed by were three children of the Maywoon, borne astride upon men's shoulders; the eldest, a boy about eight years of age; the youngest, a girl not more than five; the latter only was legitimate, being the first-born of his present wife; the two elder were the offspring of concubines. The Maywoon followed at a short distance, mounted on the neck of a very fine elephant, which he guided himself. His dress was handsome and becoming; a number of parade elephants in tawdry housings brought up the rear.

of boxing they seemed very deficient, notwithstanding they used fists, knees, and elbows. The battles were of short duration; blood drawn on either side terminated the contest; and even without it, the Maywoon would not suffer them to contend long. At the end of an engagement both combatants approached the Maywoon's throne, and prostrated themselves before him, with their foreheads to the ground, whilst an attendant spread on the shoulders of each two pieces of cotton cloth, as the reward of their exertions, which they carried away in a crouching position, until they mingled with the crowd. The places of those who retired were immediately filled by fresh pugilists. This amusement lasted three hours; then tea and sweetmeats were served up in great profusion in the name of the Maywoon.

Colonel Symes then received a message intimating that the Maywoon hoped to see him the next day at the government house. The English embassy then marched through the town, the objects of universal curiosity, till they reached the gate of an inclosure surrounding the Maywoon's dwelling. When the Maywoon entered he sat down, and silence was kept for some time, which I first interrupted, says Colonel Symes, by telling him, that the governor general of India, having received his friendly letter, and being well assured of the amicable disposition of the Birman government towards the English nation, had charged me with the delivery of letters and presents to his majesty at Ava, and had likewise requested his acceptance of a few articles which I had brought with me. I then rose, and presented the governor general's letter; he laid it on a tray before him, talked of indifferent matters, and was extremely polite in his expressions and manner, but carefully avoided all discourse that had the least relation to business, or the objects of the embassy. After half an hour's conversation, on uninteresting topics, he invited us to a grand display of fireworks, which was to take place on the following day, and soon after withdrew unceremoniously. Tea and sweetmeats were then served up.

Previous to the display of fireworks, the different companies from the several Mious or districts, passed the government house in review before the Maywoon and his family, each company distinct. A small waggon, drawn by four buffaloes, profusely decorated with peacock's feathers, and the tails of Thibet cows led the procession, on which were laid the fireworks of that particular company: next advanced the men belonging to it, dancing and shouting; the females, in a separate troop, came last, singing in full chorus, and clapping their hands in accurately measured time. Each division or company exhibited in turn its own fireworks; and the display of rockets was strikingly grand. Each company, after contributing its share towards the general entertainment, marched past the Maywoon, to the sound of musical instruments; after which they amused the Maywoon and his company with songs and dances, manifesting every lively demonstration of joy.

Every day during the abode of the Colonel and his retinue at Pegue, vast numbers both of men and women, prompted by harmless curiosity, surrounded the paling of the inclosure allotted for their residence from morning till night; those of a better class usually entered, some previously asking permission, but many without it. Perfectly free from restraint among themselves, the Birmans scruple not to go into your house without ceremony, although you are an utter stranger. To do them justice, however, they are not at all displeased at your taking the same freedom with them. This intrusion is confined wholly to your public room; they do not attempt to open a door, and where a curtain dropped denotes privacy, they never offer to violate the barrier. On entering the room they immediately descend into the posture of respect. Of all our customs, says the Colonel, none seemed to surprize them more than our preparations for dinner: the variety of utensils, and our manner of sitting at table, excited their wonder: they never took any greater liberty than merely to come into the room, and sit down on the floor; they meddled with nothing, and asked for nothing, and when desired to go away always obeyed with cheerfulness.

The three last days of the solar year of the Birmans are usually spent in merriment and feasting; and Colonel Symes and his company were invited by the Maywoon to be present on the 10th of April, at the exhibition of a dramatic representation. At a little before eight o'clock, the hour when the play was to commence, they were to the house of the Maywoon. The theatre was the open court, splendidly illuminated by lamps and

and torches. The performance far excelled any Indian drama the Colonel had ever seen. The dialogue was spirited without rant, and the action animated without being extravagant: the dresses of the principal performers were showy, but becoming. By way of interlude between the acts, a clownish buffoon entertained the audience with a recital of different passages; and by grimace, and frequent alterations of tone and countenance, extorted loud peals of laughter from the spectators*.

On the 12th of April, the last day of the Birman year, the embassy were invited by the Maywoon to bear a part in a sport that is universally practised throughout the Birman dominions on the concluding day of their annual cycle. To wash away the impurities of the past, and commence the new year free from stain, women on this day are accustomed to throw water on every man they meet, which the men have the privilege of retorting: this licence gives rise to a great deal of harmless merriment, particularly amongst the young women, who, armed with large syringes and flaggons, endeavour to wet every man that goes along the street, and, in their turn, receive a wetting with perfect good humour; nor is the smallest indecency ever manifested in this or in any other of their sports. Dirty water is never used: a man is not allowed to lay hold of a woman, but may fling as much water over her as he pleases, provided she has been the aggressor. If a woman warns a man that she does not mean to join in the diversion, it is considered as an avowal of pregnancy, and she passes without molestation.

About an hour before sun-set, says the Colonel, we went to the Maywoon's, and found that his lady had provided plentifully to give us a wet reception. In the hall were placed three large china jars, full of water, with bowls and ladles to fling it. Each of us, on entering, had a bottle of rose-water presented to him, a little of which we in turn poured into the palm of the Maywoon's hand, who sprinkled it over his own vest of fine flowered muslin; the lady then made her appearance at the door, and gave us to understand that she did not mean to join in the sport herself, but made her eldest daughter, a pretty child, in the nurse's arms, pour from a golden cup some rose-water mixed with sandal-wood, first over her father, then over each of us: this was a signal for the sport to begin. We were prepared, being dressed in linen waistcoats. From ten to twenty women, young and middle aged, rushed into the hall from the inner apartments, who surrounded and deluged without mercy four men ill able to maintain so unequal a contest. The Maywoon was soon driven from the field; but Mr. Wood having got possession of one of the jars, we were enabled to preserve our ground till the water was exhausted: it seemed to afford them great diversion, especially if we appeared at all distressed by the quantity of water flung in our faces. All parties being tired, and completely drenched, we went home to change our clothes, and in the way met many damsels who would willingly have renewed the sport: they, however, were afraid to begin without receiving encouragement from us, not knowing how it might be taken by strangers; but they assailed Baba Sheen and his Birman attendants, who accompanied us, with little ceremony. Having put on dry clothes, we returned to the Maywoon's, and were entertained with a dance and puppet-show.

SECTION V.

State of the ancient City of Pegue—Description of the new Town—Account of the Temple of Shoemadoo—Monastic Retreats of the Rhahaans—Officers of the Provincial Government—Administration of Justice.

THE extent of ancient Pegue may be still accurately traced by the ruins of the ditch and wall that surrounded it: from these it appears to have been a quadrangle, each side measuring

* The Birmans seem to delight in mimickry, and are very expert in the practice, possessing uncommon versatility of countenance. An eminent practitioner of this art amused the company with a specimen of his skill, and exhibited a masterly display of the passions in pantomimic looks and gestures: the transitions he made from pain to pleasure, from joy to despair, from rage to mildness, from laughter to tears; his expression of terror, and, above all, his look of idiotism, were performances of first rate merit in their line. Had his fates decreed him to have been a native of Great Britain, his genius would have rivalled that of any modern comedian of the English stage.

nearly a mile and a half; but in several places the ditch is choked up by rubbish that has been cast into it, and the falling of its own banks. The fragments of the wall likewise evince that this was a work of magnitude and labour; its breadth at the base not being less than forty feet. In the centre of each face of the fort there is a gateway about thirty feet wide; and these gateways were the principal entrances. The passage across the ditch is over a causeway raised on a mound of earth, that serves as a bridge, and was formerly defended by an entrenchment, of which there are now no traces. It is impossible to conceive a more striking picture of falling grandeur, and the desolating hand of war, than the inside of these walls displays. Alompra, when he got possession of the city in the year 1757, razed every dwelling to the ground, and dispersed or led into captivity all the inhabitants. The temples or praws, which are very numerous, were the only buildings that escaped the fury of the conqueror; and of these the great pyramid of Shoemadoo has alone been reverenced and kept in repair.

The present king of the Birmans, early in his reign, sought to conciliate his subjects by mildness, rather than to govern them by terror. Indeed no act of the Birman government seems more likely to reconcile the Peguers to the Birman yoke, than the restoration of their ancient place of abode, and the preservation and embellishment of the temple of Shoemadoo. The king, sensible of this, as well as of the advantages that must arise to the state from the increase of culture and population, issued orders in 1790 to rebuild Pegue, encouraged settlers by grants of ground, and invited the scattered families of former inhabitants to return and repeople their deserted city. The more effectually to accomplish his purpose, the king ordered the Maywoon of Rangoon to make Pegue the place of his future residence. These judicious measures have so far succeeded, that a new town has been built within the site of the ancient city. The number of inhabitants at present amount to about seven thousand. There can be little doubt that the respect paid to their favourite temple of worship, and the security and encouragement held out to those who venture to return, will, in time, restore the city to its ancient splendour. The plane of the town is not yet filled with houses, but a number of new ones are building. The Kioums or monasteries of the Rhahaans, and the habitations of the higher ranks, are usually elevated six or eight, those of the lower classes from two to four feet. There are no brick buildings either in Pegue or Rangoon, except such as belong to the king, or are dedicated to their divinity Gaudma; his majesty having prohibited the use of brick or stone in private buildings, from the apprehension, that if people got leave to build brick houses, they might erect brick fortifications, dangerous to the security of the state. The houses therefore are all made of mats, or sheathing boards, supported on bamboos or posts; but from their being composed of such combustible materials, the inhabitants are under continual dread of fire, against which they take every precaution. The roofs are lightly covered, and at each door stands a large bamboo with an iron hook at the end, to pull down the thatch: there is also another pole, with a grating of iron at the extremity, about three feet square, to suppress flame by pressure. Almost every house has earthen pots, filled with water, on the roof; and a particular class of people*, whose business is to prevent and extinguish fires, also perambulate the streets during the night.

The object in Pegue that most attracts and merits attention, is the noble edifice of Shoemadoo or the Golden Supreme. This extraordinary pile of buildings is erected on a double terrace, one raised upon another. The lower and greater terrace is about ten feet above the natural level of the ground, forming an exact parallelogram: the upper and smaller terrace is similar in shape, and rises about twenty feet above the lower terrace, and thirty above the level of the country. A side of the lower terrace is one thousand three hundred and ninety-one feet long, of the upper six hundred and eighty-four. The walls that sustain the sides of the terrace are in a ruinous state: they were formerly covered with plaster wrought in

* These people are called Pagwaat; they are slaves of government; men who have been guilty of theft, and, through mercy, had their lives spared. These men are distinguished by a black circle on each cheek, caused by gunpowder and punctuation; as well as by having on their breast, in Birman characters, the word *thief*, and the name of the article stolen, as on one was *Putchoo Khoo*, *cloth thief*. These men patrole the streets at night, to put out all fires and lights after a certain hour. They act as constables, and are also the public executioners.

various figures. The area of the lower is strewed with the fragments of small decayed buildings, but the upper is kept free from filth, and is in tolerably good order*.

The terraces are ascended by flights of stone steps, which are now broken and neglected. On each side are dwellings of the Rhahaans, raised on timbers four or five feet from the ground†.

Shoemadoo is a pyramidical building, composed of brick and mortar, without excavation or aperture of any sort; octagonal at the base, and spiral at the top; each side of the base measures a hundred and sixty-two feet: this immense breadth diminishes abruptly, and a similar building has not unaptly been compared in shape to a large speaking trumpet. Six feet from the ground there is a wide projection that surrounds the base, on the plane of which are fifty-seven small spires of equal size, and equidistant; one of them measured twenty-seven feet in height, and forty in circumference at the bottom. On a higher ledge there is another row, consisting of fifty-three spires of similar shape and measurement. A great variety of mouldings encircle the building; and ornaments somewhat resembling the fleur-de-lys surround the lower part of the spire; circular mouldings likewise girt it to a considerable height, above which there are ornaments in stucco not unlike the leaves of a Corinthian capital; and the whole is crowned by a Tee, or umbrella, of open iron-work, from which rises a rod with a gilded pendant‡.

The circumference of the tee is fifty-six feet: it rests on an iron axis fixed in the building, and is farther secured by large chains strongly rivetted to the spire. Round the lower rim of the tee are appended a number of bells, which, agitated by the wind, make a continual jingling. The extreme height of the edifice, from the level of the country, is three hundred and sixty-one feet, and above the interior terrace three hundred and thirty-one feet.

Such Rhahaans or priests as devote themselves to religious seclusion, and prefer the tranquillity of rural retirement to the noise and tumult of a town, take up their abode in groves. In their choice of a residence they commonly select the most retired spots they can find, where shady trees, particularly the tamarind and banyan, protect them from the noon-day sun. In these groves they build their kioums, and here they pass their solitary lives. All kioums or monasteries, whether in town or country, are seminaries for the education of youth, in which boys of a certain age are taught their letters, and instructed in moral and religious duties. To these schools the neighbouring villages send their children, where they are educated gratis, no distinction being made between the son of a peasant and of him who wears the tsaloe, or string of nobility. A piece of ground contiguous to the grove is inclosed for a garden, where they sow vegetables and plant fruit trees; the Indian sweet potatoe, and the plantain, being the most nutritious, are principally cultivated; the charity of the country people supplies them abundantly with rice, and the few necessaries which their narrow wants require. Abstracted from all worldly considerations, they do not occupy themselves in the common concerns of life: they never buy, sell, or accept of money.

In the town of Pegue there are only three persons besides the Maywoon or Viceroy, whose rank entitles him to distinction: these are the Raywoon, Chekey, and the Seree-dogee. These officers exercise the function of magistrates, and hold separate courts at their own houses, for the determination of petty suits. Each has his distinct department; but this private jurisdiction is very limited: all causes of importance relating to property, and matters of a high criminal nature, are solemnly tried in open court. The three before-mentioned officers unite, and form a tribunal, which sits at the Rhoom, or public hall of justice, where they hear the parties, examine witnesses, and take depositions in writing: these

* There is reason to believe that this building and the fortress are coëval, since the earth of which the terraces are composed appears to have been taken from the ditch; there being no other excavation in the city, or in its neighbourhood, that could have afforded a tenth part of the quantity.

† These houses consist only of a large hall; the wooden pillars that support them are turned with neatness; the roofs are covered with tiles, and the sides are made of boards; and there are a number of bare benches in every house, on which the Rhahaans sleep; but there was no other furniture.

‡ The tee or umbrella is to be seen on every sacred building that is of a spiral form: the raising and consecration of this appendage is an act of high religious solemnity, and a season of festivity and relaxation. The present king bestowed the tee that covers Shoemadoo. It was made at the capital; and many of the principal nobility came down from Ummerapoora to be present at the ceremony of its elevation.

depositions are sent to the Maywoon, who represents the King, and the Judges transmit their opinions along with the evidence, which the Maywoon either confirms or rejects as he thinks proper, and, in cases of capital conviction, orders execution, or pardons the culprit. From his judgment there lies no appeal, except when it happens that an offender who holds an office under a royal commission is brought to trial: in that case, the minutes of the evidence taken in court must be forwarded to the council of state, to be by them submitted to the King, who himself applies the law, and awards the sentence.

SECTION VI.

Leave Pegue and reach the Village of Deesa—Abundance of Game—Buffaloes; their Antipathy to Red or Scarlet—Deesa infested by Tigers and wild Elephants—Reach Rangoon—Geographical Position of Pegue erroneously laid down in modern Maps—Description of the Town of Rangoon—Account of the People called Carianers—Description of the Temple of Shoedagong—Town of Maindu—Mima-Shun-Rua, the Village of Prostitutes.

COLONEL Symes and the rest of the embassy left Pegue on the 26th, and arrived the next day at the village of Deesa; where, shortly after their arrival, the Miou-gee, or chief person of the village, came to pay his respects. The country about Deesa abounds in various kinds of game, particularly deer. About a mile east of the town is an extensive plain, where a herd of deer was soon discovered, but they were so watchful and wild, says the Colonel, that I could only get near enough to fire a random shot from a rifle, which did not take effect. In endeavouring to approach them unperceived, I left my servants and guide at a considerable distance. The report of the gun alarmed a drove of buffaloes: the whole troop raised their heads, and, instead of running away, seemed to stand on the defensive. Two came out from the herd, and, with their tails and heads erect, trotted towards me, not in a straight line, but making half a circle, as if afraid to advance; but at length they drew so near, that I expected a direct charge to be made upon me. In this extremity the Miou-gee discovered me, and made signs to me, which I comprehended, and slipped off my scarlet coat, which I flung, together with my hat, into some long grass: the buffalo desisted from the pursuit, and returned towards the herd, quietly grazing as he retired. This circumstance proves, that the buffalo entertains the same antipathy to the colour of red or scarlet that some other animals are known to do. The Miou-gee, when I joined him, seemed quite as much alarmed as I was; he said that if I had sustained any injury, his head would have paid the forfeit of the accident. In the thickets that border on the banks of the river to the north and south of the village, tigers frequently prowl about, and carry away the dogs from the village, but dare not attack the buffaloes, who appear to be almost as fierce as themselves: and in a forest, about twelve miles to the north-east, are immense herds of wild elephants, which frequently destroy whole crops of rice and sugar-cane. The next morning they left Deesa and arrived at Rangoon.

The authorities on which the geography of the city and river of Pegue has been laid down, though doubtless the best that could be procured, are nevertheless far from being accurate. The Pegue river is called by the natives Bagoo Kioun, or Pegue rivulet, to distinguish it from Mioup, or river. It is navigable but a very few miles to the northward of the city of Pegue, and for this it is wholly indebted to the action of the tide. It has no communication with the sea, except by the Rangoon river, and in the fair season, at low water, is almost dry. There seems to have been a mistake of this stream for the Sitang river, about fifteen miles east of Pegue, which is a great and independent body of water, that partly describes the course that in the map is given to what is called the Pegue river. Nor does the meridian measurement of the city of Pegue, as reported by former travellers, at all correspond with later observations. Mr. Wood, an accurate astronomer, and furnished with excellent instruments, places Pegue

Pegue in seventeen degrees forty minutes N. latitude, above forty geographical miles S. of the position assigned to it in the map. The difference in longitude is less than that of latitude. Mr. Wood, from a mean of observations of the immersion and emersion of Jupiter's satellites, determines Pegue to be in ninety-six degrees, eleven minutes, fifteen seconds, about thirty-two miles W. of its supposed situation. This eastward error may have given occasion to the mistake of the Sitang river for that of Pegue. Indeed the authorities for the geography of this country are, in most places imperfect, and in some altogether erroneous.

Increasing trade, and consequent population, have extended the present town far beyond the limits that formerly comprehended Rangoon, as it was originally founded by Alompra. It stretches along the bank of the river about a mile, and is not more than a third of a mile in breadth. The city or miou is a square, surrounded by a high stockade; within which in several places are erected wooden stages for musqueteers to stand on in case of an attack. A battery of twelve cannon, six and nine-pounders, raised on the bank, commands the river; but the guns and carriages are in such a wretched condition, that they could do little execution. Close to the principal wharf are two commodious houses, used by the merchants as an exchange, where they usually meet in the cool of the morning and evening, to converse and transact business. The streets of the town are narrow, and much inferior to those of Pegue, but clean and well-paved. The houses are raised on posts from the ground; the smaller supported by bamboos, the larger by strong timbers. All the officers of government, the most opulent merchants, and persons of consideration, live within the fort; shipwrights and people of inferior rank inhabit the suburbs; and one entire street, called Tackallay, is exclusively assigned to common prostitutes, who are not permitted to dwell within the precincts of the fortification. Swine are suffered to roam about the town at large: these animals, which are with reason held unclean, do not belong to any particular owners; they are servants of the public, common scavengers; they go under the houses, and devour the filth. The Birmans are also fond of dogs, numbers of which infest the streets; the breed is small, and extremely noisy; whenever we walked out, the inhabitants were apprized of the approach of the English by the loud barking of these troublesome curs.

A singular description of people called Carayners, or Carianers, inhabit different parts of the country, particularly the provinces of Dalla and Bassien, several societies of whom also dwell in the districts adjacent to Rangoon. They are a simple innocent race, who speak a language distinct from that of the Birmans, and entertain rude notions of religion. They lead a pastoral life, and are the most industrious subjects of the state. Their villages form a select community, from which they exclude all other sects, and never reside in a city, intermingle, or marry with strangers. They profess, and strictly observe, universal peace, not engaging in war, or taking part in contests for dominion, a system that necessarily places them in a state of subjection to the ruling power of the day. Agriculture, the care of cattle, and rearing poultry, are almost their only occupations. A great part of the provisions used in the country is raised by the Carianers, and they particularly excel in gardening. They have of late years been heavily taxed and oppressed by the great Birman land-holders, in consequence of which many have withdrawn to the mountains of Arracan. They have traditional maxims of jurisprudence for their internal government, but are without any written laws: custom with them constitutes the law. Some learn to speak the Birman tongue, and a few can read and write it imperfectly. They are timorous, honest, mild in their manners, and exceedingly hospitable to strangers.

The temple of Shoedagon, or Dagoung, about two miles and a half north of Rangoon, is a very grand building, although not so high by twenty-five or thirty feet, as that of Shoemadoo at Pegue. It is much more ornamented, and is ascended by above a hundred stone steps, that have been suffered to fall into decay. The situation renders Shoedagon a conspicuous object at the distance of many miles. The tee and the whole of the spire are richly gilded, which, when the sun shines, exhibit a singularly splendid appearance. The road leading from the city to the temple is formed with care; a wide causeway in the centre prevents the rain from lodging, and throws it off to the sides. Numberless little spires are ranged along the edge of the road, in which are niches to receive

receive small images of their divinity Gaudma. Several kioums or monasteries lay in this direction, generally removed a short distance from the public way, under the shade of pipal or tamarind trees.

The Birmans, like all the natives of the East, are fond of processions; scarcely a week passes that there is not a religious display in Rangoon; either a funeral of some person who leaves sufficient to defray the expence of a pompous public burning, or the ceremony of admitting youths into the convents of the Rhahaans. The age of induction is generally from eight to twelve years. On an appointed day the youth parades the streets, dressed in yellow, and mounted on a horse richly caparisoned, led by two servants: a band of music goes before, and a party of Rhahaans encircle him: his male friends follow in a troop, and the females of their families bring up the rear, the latter carrying on their heads the offerings meant for the Rhahaans. Thus they proceed to the convent of which the novice is to become a member, where he is presented in form to the senior of the brotherhood. This ceremony is repeated three times, and at each perambulation fresh presents are to be provided. From the many convents in the neighbourhood of Rangoon, the number of Rhahaans and Phonghis* are very considerable; they were estimated at upwards of fifteen hundred. Like the Carmelites, they go barefooted, and have their heads close shaven, on which they never wear any covering. Yellow is the only colour worn by the priesthood: they have a long loose cloak which they wrap round them so as to cover most part of the body: they profess celibacy, and to abstain from every sensual indulgence†.

The Rhahaans never dress their own victuals, holding it an abuse of time to perform any of the common functions of life, which, so long as they occupy, must divert them from an abstract contemplation of the divine essence. They receive the contributions of the laity ready cooked, and prefer cold food to hot: they never eat but once a day, and that at the hour of noon. The Rhahaans never take any active share, or publicly interfere in politics, or engage in war; by which prudent conduct they excite no resentment. The Birmans and Peguers profess the same religion, so that which ever are conquerors the ministers of religion are always respected.

In the city and suburbs of Rangoon there are five thousand taxable houses, and about thirty thousand inhabitants. This town having long been the asylum of insolvent debtors from the different settlements of India, it is crowded with foreigners of desperate fortunes, who find from the Birmans a friendly reception, and, for the most part, support themselves by carrying on a petty trade, which affords a decent subsistence to those who act prudently. Here are to be found fugitives from all countries of the East, and of all complexions: the exchange, or place of their meeting, exhibits a motley assemblage of merchants, such as few towns of much greater magnitude can produce: Malabars, Moguls, Persians, Parsees, Armenians, Portugueze, French, and English, all mingle here, and are engaged in various branches of commerce. The members of this discordant multitude are not only permitted to reside under the protection of government, but likewise enjoy the most liberal toleration in religious matters: they celebrate their several rites and festivals, totally disregarded by the Birmans, who have no inclination to make proselytes. In the same street may be heard the solemn voice of the Muezzin calling pious Islamites to early prayers, and the bell of the Portugueze chapel tinkling a summons to Romish Christians. Processions meet and pass each other without giving or receiving cause of offence.

On the west side of the river, opposite to Rangoon, is the town of Maindu, the residence of the governor of the province of Dalla. The town of Maindu is composed of one long street; at the east end is a creek, which goes all the way to Bassien, and has twelve feet depth of water at high tide; on the west side is a smaller creek, on the bank of which stands a village called Mina-Shun-Rua, or the village of prostitutes, being inhabited

* The inferior order of priests, vulgarly called Tallapoins.

† The prescribed punishment for a Rhahaan detected in an act of incontinence is, expulsion and public disgrace: the delinquent is seated on an ass, and his face daubed with black paint interspersed with spots of white: he is thus led through the streets, with a drum beating before him, and afterwards turned out of the city: but such instances of degradation are very rare.

inhabited wholly by women of that description*. The situation of the town of Rangoon is exceedingly advantageous for trade, and the river is equally commodious for the construction of ships†. The spring tides rise twenty feet in perpendicular height: the banks are soft, and so flat that there is little need of labour for the formation of docks. Vessels of any burden may be built. Indeed Nature has liberally done her part to render Rangoon the most flourishing sea-port of the eastern world.

SECTION VII.

Imperial Mandate arrives for the English to proceed to the Capital—Maywoon of Pegue ordered to accompany it—Hunisмen employed to catch Alligators and Rhinoceroses—The Maywoon leaves Rangoon, and the English Deputation prepare to follow—Description of the Boats—Depart from Rangoon—Pass several Towns and Villages—Arrive at Peeaye-mew, or Prome—Description of Prome—Leave Loonghee—City of Pagahm—Temple of Shoegeegoon—Destructive Conflagration—Embark on board the royal Barge—Leave Pagahm—Description of ancient Ava—Appearance of Ummerapoora, the Capital—Residence of the British Deputation, and Reception on landing.

THE month of May was now far advanced, and, says the Colonel, we became a little impatient at remaining so long in a state of uncertainty, especially as the officers of government did not all relax in the formality and coldness of their deportment, nor were we yet assured what might be the nature of our reception at court. From this unpleasant state of suspence we were at length agreeably relieved by the arrival of a letter from the Maywoon of Pegue to the council of Rangoon, acquainting them that he had received the imperial mandate to make preparations for our conveyance by water to the capital; and that it was his Majesty's farther pleasure that he should accompany the deputation in person. Baba-Sheen lost no time in imparting to me the intelligence, which was soon after communicated by an official message from the Raywoon, inviting me to the Rhoom, or public hall, to hear the order formally announced in council. This was a ceremony I begged leave to decline; but I sent my moonshee, or Persian secretary, to attend the meeting. A visit of the deputation to Ummerapoora being now decided on by the highest authority, the Colonel applied to the Raywoon for leave to purchase suitable boats for the use of himself and retinue; but an officer from the Raywoon informed him, that it was inconsistent with the usage of their government to admit of a public minister being at any expence for his conveyance; and that the superintendant of the port had received instructions to prepare as many boats as the Colonel thought necessary. Conformably to the imperial mandate the Maywoon left Pegue, and arrived at Rangoon on the 25th of May, attended by a numerous retinue.

About this time an order came from court to the provincial government of Pegue, which fur-

* Prostitution in this, as in all other countries, is the ultimate resort of female wretchedness; but here it is often attended with circumstances of peculiar and unmerited misery. Many who follow this course of life are not at their own disposal, nor receive the earnings of their unhappy profession: they are slaves sold by creditors to a licensed trader, for debts more frequently contracted by others than themselves. According to the laws of Pegue, he who incurs a debt which he cannot pay becomes the property of his creditor, who may claim the insolvent debtor as his slave, and oblige him to perform menial service until he liquidates the debt; nor does the unhappy man always suffer in his own person alone, his immediate relatives are often included in the bond, and, when that is the case, are liable to be attached and sold to discharge the obligation. The wretchedness into which this inhuman law plunges whole families is not to be described. Innocent women are often dragged from domestic comfort and happiness; and from the folly or misfortune of the master of the house, in which they perhaps have no blame, are sold to the licensed superintendant of the Tackally, who, if they possess attractions, pays a high price for them, and reimburses himself by the wages of their prostitution.

† The Birmans use teak, the most durable wood that is known, and best adapted to the purposes of ship-building. This wood is produced in the forests of the Birman and Pegue empires in inexhaustible abundance.

nished a subject of much conversation. The emperor of China, having never seen a rhinoceros or an alligator, entertained an ardent desire to view those formidable animals before his death, and had intimated his wish through a provincial legate from Yunan, who had lately arrived at Ummerapoora for the purpose of settling some mercantile arrangements. The king of Ava, solicitous to gratify his august brother of China, had sent an order to catch twenty alligators and as many of the rhinoceros tribe, and convey them to the metropolis, whence they were to be transported to the imperial city of Pee-Kien (Pekin). Strong nets were thrown across the Pegue river; the fishermen began successfully; several allligators were taken in two or three days, and put into boats, in the bottom of which wells were constructed. The Rhinoceros hunters were not equally fortunate.

The Maywoon left Rangoon on the 28th of May, and as the boats for the English deputation were not quite ready, the Colonel prepared to follow him with the utmost expedition. My barge, says Colonel Symes, was sixty feet in length, and not more than twelve in the widest part: by taking away one thwart beam near the stern, laying a floor two feet below the gunwhale, and raising an arched roof about seven feet above the floor, a commodious room was formed, fourteen feet long, and ten wide, with a closet behind it: at the stern there was a stage, on which the Seedegee, or steersman, stood, and a vacant space of seven or eight feet, where a kettle might be boiled, or dinner prepared. On each side of the cabin a small door opened on the platform, and there were three windows which, when raised, admitted a free circulation of air. The roof was made of Bamboos covered with mats, and over all was extended a painted canvas, that effectually secured us from the heaviest rain. The inside was neatly lined with matting. The conveyances of the other gentlemen were nearly of the same size and construction. Twenty-six boatmen composed the crew of my vessel, exclusive of the Leedegee, who is the chief or captain.

Two days after the deputation left Rangoon, a short way from which town the river becomes narrower, with a winding course, owing to which they did not advance above three leagues in a direct line from ten o'clock in the morning till three in the afternoon. Proceeding on the voyage they passed a town called Panlang, which had formerly been a considerable city, and likewise three small villages. At the latter place they passed a comfortless night, that part being infested by mosquitoes of an unusual size, and extremely venomous. A little beyond Panlang, which town they left on the first of June at daybreak, the river contracts greatly, and does not appear to be more than two hundred yards across. In three hours they reached Kettoree-Rua, or Paroquet village; and in two hours more Yangain-Chain-Yah, where they entered the great river, and passed the night. The course of the stream was nearly north and south, and about a mile wide. The next morning they joined the Maywoon, who, with his suite, and a vast concourse of boats, was waiting for the arrival of the deputation.

On the 3rd of June the whole flaat got under way; and at nine o'clock passed Denoobew, an extensive town, ornamented with a lofty temple, resembling Shoedagon in form, but of a smaller size. At sun-set they stopped near the town of Yeoungbenzah, which town they left at daybreak the next morning. From the 3rd to the 10th of June, they passed several towns and villages, when the Maywoon expressed a desire to remain three or four days at Meayday, a town and district two days journey north of Prome, which he holds in Jaghire by a grant from the king. This intention was far from being disagreeable to any of the party, as the boatmen were fatigued, and the servants and the guard required a short time to adjust their conveniences for the remainder of the voyage. The deputation had now reached the city of Pecaye-mew, or Prome.

The city of Prome is renowned in Birman history for having been the scene of many long sieges and bloody conflicts. The buildings are not remarkable; but, though I saw little to notice, says Colonel Symes, I found that I was myself an object of universal wonder: an English officer dressed in uniform was a phenomenon perhaps never before seen in this part of the world. My attendants also created no little surprize; the dogs, numbers of which infested the streets, set up a horrid barking; the men gaped, the children followed me, and the women, as usual, expressed their astonishment by loud laughter and clapping their hands; yet not the less

least indication of contempt was manifested, nor was any thing done that could be construed into an intention to offend. At the upper end of the present city are to be seen the ruins of the ancient fort of Prome: it had been a small pentagon, built of brick, and from its situation must have been very strong. The modern fort is nothing more than a palisaded inclosure with earth thrown up behind it. Adjacent to the town is a royal menagerie of elephants, consisting of two rows of lofty well-built stables, in which these animals are lodged during the rains. The city of Prome and the province in which it stands are the jaghire, or estate of the second son of the king: they likewise give him his title. Prome is sometimes called Terreketteree, or single skin; and the Birmans have an old legendary tale respecting the origin of this name *.

At length a messenger was sent by an order from the Lotoo, or Grand Council, to meet the English deputation, and to acquaint the Colonel that his Majesty had been pleased to direct that three officers of distinguished rank should proceed to Pagahm-mew, a city seven days journey below Ummerapoora, to wait his arrival, and escort him to the capital. The king, he observed, had done the deputation the extraordinary honour to send a royal barge for the Colonel's personal accommodation, with two war-boats to tow it. This was considered as a flattering mark of his Majesty's good inclination, and a favourable omen was drawn from it. To have our barge drawn by war-boats was an honorary privilege granted only to persons of the first consequence: it is grounded on the idea, that it is inconsistent with the dignity of a man of high rank to be in the same boat with people of such mean condition as common watermen; it is a singular instance of the characteristic pride. The Shawbunder displayed great shrewdness in his conversation. He asked me several questions respecting the powers with which I was invested; and as the visit might in some degree be considered as official, I in part gratified his curiosity, by explaining in general terms the nature of the mission and the capacity in which I expected to be received, without at all disclosing the specific objects I had in view.

The Shawbunder left Loonghee on the first of July, to announce our approach to the Birman officers, who were already arrived at Pagahm: we postponed our departure until the following day, and at seven in the morning quitted this pleasing and rural place. In our journey we passed many towns and villages; sometimes we went swiftly through the water, at others we were stationary, and even lost ground, as the wind frequently subsided, and the stream was very rapid.

At length after a voyage of seven days, in which they passed several towns and villages, they approached the once magnificent city of Pagahm. They could see little more from the river than a few straggling houses, which bore the appearance of having once been a connected street: in fact, scarcely any thing remains of ancient Pagahm, except its numerous mouldering temples, and the vestiges of an old brick fort, the ramparts of which are still to be traced. The town of Neoundah, about four miles to the north, which may be called a continuation of Pagahm, has flourished in proportion as the latter has decayed.

We reached Neoundah early on the 9th of July. At this place the deputation from the capital, of which I had been apprized the Shawbunder, was waiting my arrival. The Serce informed me, that a temporary house which I saw on a clear piece of ground about a hundred yards from the brink, had been erected as a compliment to me; it was much larger than that which the Maywoon had prepared at Meeaday. Early in the afternoon I left my boat, and was received at the house by the Birman officers with every formal testimony of respect; on a part of the floor elevated a few inches, a carpet was spread, on which I took my seat. The principal person of the deputation was a Woondock, a junior counsellor of state; the others were the governor of a district called Miengdong north of Ava, the governor of Pein-Keing bordering on China, and the commandant of the Siamese guards. On

* It is related, that a favourite female slave of Tutebongangee, or the mighty sovereign with three eyes, importuned her lord for a gift of some ground; and being asked of what extent, replied in similar terms with the crafty and amorous Elisa, when she projected the site of ancient Carthage. Her request was granted, and she used the same artifice. The resemblance of the stories is curious.

entering

entering the town of Pagahm is a long, narrow, winding street; about thirty feet wide; the houses were built of Bamboo, and raised from the ground: this street was full of shops, containing no other articles than lackered ware: boxes, trays, cups, &c. varnished in a very neat manner were displayed in the front of the shops; they were of various colours; some had figures painted on them, others wreaths of flowers. Having reached the extremity of the town in this direction, we came upon a well paved road, that led to the great temple named Shoegeegoon, to which we proceeded. On each side of the road there was a range of small temples, neglected and in ruins: the kioums, or monasteries, were in good repair, and we saw some handsome houses for the accommodation of strangers. Shoegeegoon is neither so large nor so well built as the temples at Rangoon or Pegue, the height does not exceed a hundred and fifty feet: it is surrounded by a spacious area paved with broad flags, on which there are a number of smaller buildings, profusely gilded, and laboriously carved. A staircase on the outside leads up to a gallery, about a third of the height of the principal temple, whence we had an extensive prospect of the country, which appeared to be exceedingly unproductive and barren: the ruins of innumerable religious buildings were to be seen in every direction, which cover a space of ground not less than six or seven miles along the river, and three miles inland. Pagahm is said to have been the residence of forty-five successive monarchs, and was abandoned five hundred years ago in consequence of a divine admonition: whatever may be its true history, it certainly was once a place of no ordinary splendour. Returning by a different way, we walked through an alley occupied by blacksmiths' shops, furnished with bill hooks, spike-nails, adzes, &c. A little farther on we saw the ruins of a street that had been consumed by fire only two days before: from seventy to eighty houses were destroyed by the conflagration. It was the Tackally, and the sufferers were the already wretched, the miserable public prostitutes.

Here are a great number of religious edifices, which differ in structure from those we had seen in the lower provinces: instead of a slender spire rising to a great height from an expanded base, the temples of Pagahm, in general, carry up a heavy breadth to very near the top, and then come abruptly to a point, which gives a clumsy appearance to the buildings. Many of the most ancient temples at this place are not solid at the bottom; a well arched dome supports a ponderous superstructure; within, an image of Gaudmasits enshrined, four gothic doorways open into the dome: in one of these is a human figure standing erect, which the Seree told me was Gaudma; and another of the same personage, lying on his right side asleep, both of gigantic stature. The divinity, however, is rarely to be found in these attitudes, the posture in which he is generally depicted, is sitting cross-legged on a pedestal, adorned with representations of the leaf of the sacred lotus carved upon the base; the left hand of the image rests upon his lap, and the right is pendant. Passing through the suburbs we came to a part where the inhabitants were employed in pressing oil from the sesamum seed: the grain is put into a deep wooden trough, in which it is pressed by an upright timber fixed in a frame, the force is increased by a long lever, on the extremity of which a man sits and guides a bullock that moves in a circle, thus turning and pressing the seed at the same time: the machine was simple, and answered the purpose effectually. There were not less than two hundred of those mills within a narrow compass. From the circumstance of the cattle being in good order, we concluded that they were fed on the seed after the oil was extracted. The land about Pagahm scarcely yields sufficient vegetation to nourish goats.

At nine o'clock in the morning of the 11th of July the Colonel took possession of the royal barge with ceremonious formality, accompanied by the Woondock and Baba Sheen. The platform on the outside contained space for thirty-two rowers, sixteen on each side; but on this occasion the oars were not fastened, as it was meant to be drawn by war-boats: the inside was divided into three small apartments handsomely fitted up; the roof and sides were lined with white cotton, and the floor covered with carpets and fine mats.

Aungwa, or Ava, once the metropolis of all the Birman empire, is divided into an upper and lower city, both of which are fortified: the lower, which is the most extensive, I judged to be about four miles in circumference; it is protected by a wall thirty feet high, at the foot of which there is a deep and broad fosse. The communication between

between the fort and the country is over a mound of earth crossing the ditch, that supports a causeway; an embankment of earth in the inside sustains the wall; the upper or smaller fort, which may be called the citadel, and does not exceed a mile in circuit, was much stronger, and more compact than the lower: but neither the upper nor the lower had a ditch on the side of the river. The walls are now mouldering into decay; ivy clings to the sides and bushes, suffered to grow at the bottom, undermine the foundation, and have already caused large chasms in the different faces of the fort. The materials of the houses, consisting chiefly of wood, had, on the first order for removing, been transported to the new city of Ummerapoora: but the ground, unless where it is covered with bushes, or rank grass, still retains traces of former buildings and streets. The lines of the royal palace, of the Lotos, or grand council hall, the apartments of the women, and the spot the Piasath, or imperial spire, had stood, were pointed out to us by our guide. Clumps of bamboo, a few plantain trees, and tall thorns, occupy the greater part of the area of this lately flourishing capital.

Numerous temples, or which the Birmans never lay sacrilegious hands, were dilapidating time. It is impossible to draw a more striking picture of desolation and ruin.

Among the religious buildings within the fort, one named Shoegunga Praw, noways distinguished for size or splendour, was in former times held peculiarly sacred, and is still reverenced above the rest. At the present day, when an officer of rank is about to enter on a great public trust or a new commander is appointed to the army, the oath of allegiance is administered in this temple with great solemnity, a breach of which is considered the most heinous crime that a Birman can be guilty of, and is invariably punished by the severest tortures. How Shoegunga obtained this distinction I was not able to learn. We were informed, that a temple of much magnitude, named Gatherpoo Praw, stood a short distance to the eastward of the fort, in which was a colossal figure of Gaudma, formed out of a solid block of marble. This temple and image we had a better opportunity of viewing on our return.

Leaving Ava in the rear, the river bends again to the northward, when the opposite city of Sagain, and the spires, the turrets, and the lofty Piasath of Ummerapoora, create an unexpected pleasure, and exhibit a fine contrast to the gloomy and deserted walls of Ava. Chagain, on the north side, once too the seat of imperial residence, is situated partly at the foot, and partly on the side, of a rugged hill that is broken into separate eminences, on the summit of each stands a spiral temple; these temples, rising irregularly one above another to the top of the mountain, form a beautiful assemblage of objects, the effect of which is increased by their being carefully whitewashed and kept in repair. As we sailed near the opposite shore, the sun shone full upon the hill, and its reflected rays displayed the scenery to the highest advantage: in addition to this, the swollen state of the river gave to the waters the semblance of a vast lake, interspersed with islands, which seemed to be immersed.

They soon came to the mouth of the channel that communicates with the lake of Tounzemahn, through which it receives its waters from the river. The situation of Ummerapoora has already been described; the southern fort is washed; during the rainy season, by the waves of the lake, and the houses of the city and suburbs extend along the bank as far as the extreme point of land. Across the lake, and opposite to the fort, stands the small village of Tounzemahn, near which, in a tall grove of mango, palmyra, and cocoa-nut trees, a dwelling was prepared for the British deputation. On entering the lake, the number of boats that were moored, as in a harbour, to avoid the influence of the sweeping flood, the singularity of their construction, the height of the waters, which threaten inundation to the whole city, and the amphitheatre of lofty hills that nearly surrounded the place, altogether presented a novel scene, exceedingly interesting to a stranger. We rowed towards the grove, whilst the greater part of the fleet went to the opposite side: on reaching the bank I perceived a war-boat belonging to the Maywoon of Pegue, who, I understood, was at the grove waiting our arrival. I was received on landing by Baba Sheen, and some inferior officers; they accompanied me to the house, which was situated about three hundred yards from the brink of the lake, overshadowed by lofty trees, that completely defended it from the meridian sun. When we came to the entrance of the virando, or balcony, the Maywoon of Pegue, the Governor of Bamoo, a

province bordering on China, and the Woondock before-mentioned, welcomed me to the capital. Being seated on carpets spread along the floor, the conversation turned on general topics, and particularly on European geography, a subject on which the Governor of Bamoo appeared very desirous of information. After some time, the Woondock, addressing himself to me, said, that his Birman majesty had been absent a few months, at a country residence named Meengoung, where he was erecting a magnificent temple to their divinity, Gaudma, but was expected to return soon to Ummerapoora; that, in the mean time, instructions had been given to his ministers to provide every thing requisite for the accommodation of the English gentlemen, and that Baba Sheen was commanded to reside near us, in order to supply our wants, and to communicate our wishes; to this the Maywoon of Pegue added, that the two inferior Serees, or provincial under secretaries, who had accompanied us from Rangoon, were likewise directed to attend our orders, and, being persons to whom we were accustomed, would probably be more agreeable to us than entire strangers.

These polite and hospitable attentions were received and acknowledged with real satisfaction; nor was it at all diminished by the freedom with which the Woondock informed me, that it was contrary to the etiquette of the Birman court, for a public minister from a foreign nation to go abroad before his first audience. He therefore hoped I would not cross the lake in person, or suffer any of my people to do so, until the ceremonials were past; but as our customs differed from theirs, and the Europeans habituated themselves to take exercise, I was at full liberty to walk or ride into the country or over the plains that lay between our dwelling and the hills, as far as I thought proper; recommending to me, at the same time, not to go to any great distance, as it would be considered by the common people in the light of a derogation from my own consequence. I thanked him for his counsel, which was delivered with many expressions of civility, and readily acquiesced in what he assured me was an established custom.

The usage of debarring a public minister from entering the capital previous to his first formal presentation, I understood, was neither recent nor uncommon; it has long been the known practice of the Birman and Siamese governments: Monsieur Loubere makes mention of it in his account of an embassy to Siam, sent from the court of Louis the Fourteenth. It is founded on that cautious policy which governs all nations eastward of India in their intercourse with foreign states.

The place of residence appointed for the embassy was a spacious house of one story, raised from the ground somewhat more than two feet, and better covered than Birman houses usually are: it consisted of two good sized rooms, and a large virando, or balcony; the partitions and walls were made of cane mats, with latticed windows in the sides; the shape of the roof was such as distinguished the houses of nobles: it was altogether a comfortable habitation, and well adapted to the climate. Mr. Wood had a smaller house, erected behind mine and parallel to it; and Dr. Buchanan another at right angles. Small separate huts were constructed for the guard, and for our attendants: the whole was surrounded by a strong bamboo paling, which inclosed a court-yard. There were two entrances by gates, one in front of the principal house, the other backwards: at each of these, on the outside of the paling, was a shed in which a Birman guard was posted, to protect the deputation from thieves, keep off the populace, and probably to watch and report their movements.

The building denominated Rhoom is the official hall of justice, where the members of provincial governments, and all municipal officers are accustomed to assemble for the transaction of public business. Every man of high rank in the Birman empire is a magistrate, and has a place of this description and name contiguous to his dwelling; but always on the outside of the enclosure of his court-yard, and not surrounded by any fence or railing, in order to manifest publicity and shew that it is the seat of majesty and justice to which all mankind may have free access. An imperial mandate to a governor, or an order from a governor to a petty miougee, or a chief of a small town or district, is invariably opened and read aloud in this sanctified hall. The Birman government, in the administration of public affairs, suffers no such thing as privacy or concealment. The Rhoom is likewise an appendage of dignity, as it denotes him to whose habitation it is annexed to be a person of rank and con-

quence

quence: a building of this sort was erected within a few yards of the front gate of the inclosure to the building belonging to the embassy.

For two days after our landing, the boatmen and servants were employed in transporting our baggage from the boats to the house, and our time was chiefly taken up in arranging the domestic economy of our new residence, in which we found a liberal provision of all such necessaries as the natives themselves require; my rooms were carpeted, but the chairs, table, &c. were my own. Rice, gee (clarified butter), fire-wood, and pots for dressing victuals, were supplied to our people in abundance*.

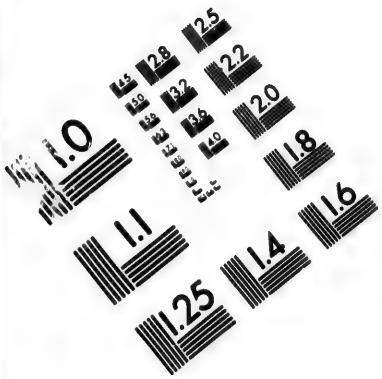
The delinquent refugees, of whom mention has been made as having been surrendered, by order of the Governor-General, to the justice of their country, had reached Ummeropoora some weeks previous to the arrival of the deputation. The Birman guard that escorted them had brought a letter directed to Colonel Symes from General Erskine, the English commander at Chittigong; this letter the Birman minister, as it was alledged, through mistake, but more probably by design, caused to be opened, and procured a translation from an Armenian interpreter. The circumstance was reported to the king, who ordered that the letter should be safely deposited in the Lotoo, and given to him on his arrival: the royal injunctions were punctually obeyed: an officer, in his dress of ceremony, brought it over. A proposal was first made, that the Colonel should go himself to the rhoom, solicit its restoration, receive it as an act of grace, and do homage to the king, by bowing with his face towards the palace. From this he entirely dissented, as the cause of complaint was with him, and confidence had in some measure been violated by their breaking the seal. The proposition perhaps did not originate from any authority, as it was immediately given up, and the letter in a silk wrapper, was formally presented to him on a tray, by the officer who conveyed it across the lake. In a few days the return of the king was announced by the discharge of rockets, and by the general bustle that so important an event caused among all classes of people.

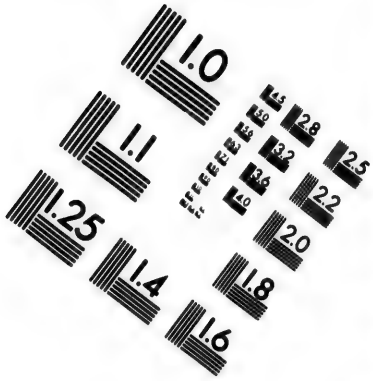
The period of the arrival of the embassy occurred at a juncture that supplied the Birman court with a plausible excuse for postponing the consideration of public business, and delaying the formal reception of the deputation as well as the delivery of the letter from the Governor-General to the King. It happened, that in the ensuing month there was to be an eclipse of the moon, an operation of nature which they ascribe to the interference of a malignant demon. On such an occasion, affairs of state, and all important matters of business, that will admit of procrastination, are put off to the following month. The astrologers were assembled to consult on the first fortunate day after the lapse of that inauspicious moon, when they discovered that the seventeenth of the moon Touzelien, corresponding with the 30th of August, was the earliest that would occur, and that day was accordingly appointed for the public reception of the English embassy†.

Amongst other regulations of this punctilious court the Colonel was given to understand, that

* A few stalls, or petty shops, were established in the grove, to afford the smaller ingredients of cookery, such as greens, spices, salt, tamarinds, &c. Here also tobacco and beetle leaf were sold; and to enable the attendants to purchase such articles, one hundred tackal, about twelve pounds sterling, were distributed amongst them: this was an act of munificence which the Colonel with great difficulty avoided the obligation of, in his own person: but no remonstrance could prevail on the Birman officer to dispense with it in the instance of the domestic.

† Caution and policy, says the Colonel, had, perhaps, as great a share with the Birmans as superstition, in thus retarding the ceremony of our introduction: it was to them a novel incident; they were desirous to penetrate thoroughly into the objects we had in view, before any part of the subjects came into formal discussion. They might probably also wish to have an opportunity to judge of our national character, and to determine, from our conduct, in what manner to regulate their own; if such were the motives, they were consistent with that sagacity which I found invariably displayed by the Birman government in all its resolutions and acts of a public nature. But the prevailing characteristic of the Birman court is pride; like the sovereign of China, his Majesty of Ava acknowledges no equal; indeed, it is the fixed principle of all nations eastward of Bengal, to consider foreign ministers as suppliants come to solicit protection, not as representatives who may demand redress; rather as vassals to render homage, than as persons vested with authority to treat on equal terms. Of this system I was early apprized, and felt no disappointment at hearing of a general rumour current among the higher ranks of Birmans, that a deputy had arrived from the English government, bearing tribute for their king. Reports of this nature were no otherwise regarded, than as an admonition to regulate my actions with scrupulous circumspection.





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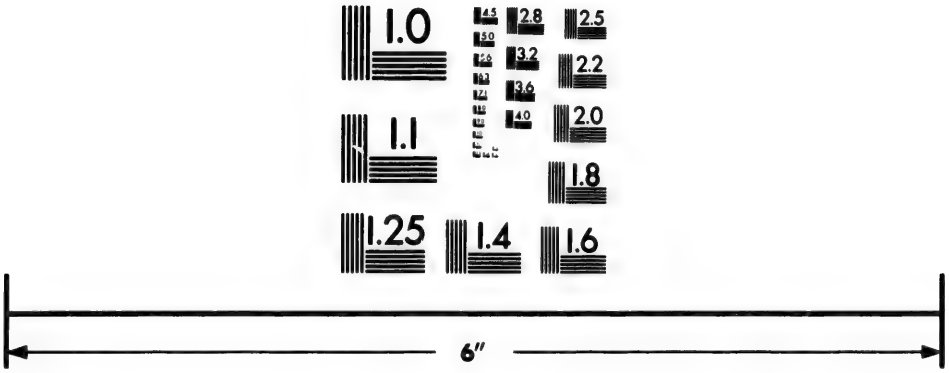

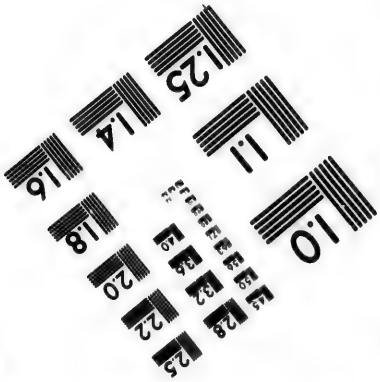

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it was not customary for the King to receive any letter in a formal manner without being previously apprized of its contents. This created some difficulty in respect to the letter from the Governor General, which was at length surmounted by an agreement on my part to admit of a copy being made in my presence; but it was stipulated by them, that it should be transcribed in the rhoom adjacent to my house, and not in my private residence. In this proposal I acquiesced; and accordingly a formal deputation consisting of seven or eight officers of state, was directed to proceed to the rhoom, where they were to open the letter, and see it properly transcribed; these personages came with much parade, apparelled in their robes of ceremony; on landing, they walked directly to the rhoom, and, having taken their seats, sent a Terrezoyee, or inferior officer, along with Baba Sheen, to request the Colonel would come, and bring him the Governor General's letter. I obeyed this summons, accompanied by the other gentlemen and his usual attendants. On entering the rhoom he was civilly desired, as the occasion was a solemn one, to make obeisance towards the piaseth, or spire of the royal palace, which was more than two miles distant, a ceremony that he complied with, by raising his right hand to my head and making a slight inclination of his body, after the manner of the Mohammedan Salaam. Being seated he delivered the letter, which was written in English and in Persian, to the Woondock, or superior officer; it was immediately opened by a secretary: and an Armenian interpreter, named Muckatees, who spoke and wrote English fluently, was ordered to make a copy in English, whilst a Mussulman moonshee made another in Persian. When the writing was finished, the Colonel delivered a paper, which he desired might be laid before his Majesty's council, declaratory, in general terms, of the friendly wishes and views of the Governor-General in deputing him to the Birman court, and expressing his desire to maintain a confidential intercourse with such persons as his Majesty, or his council, should think proper to authorize.

The business being concluded, the Colonel returned to his house, and received a ceremony visit from the Birman officers, among whom there were some personages of high distinction; a Woondock, but not the one that met him at Pagahm, presided; the master of the elephants, the old governor of Peen-keing, two Seredogees, or secretaries of state, and some other officers, whose names and stations he did not learn, were present; their robes, which were very graceful, were made either of velvet or flowered satin, with wide bodies, and loose sleeves: they were all invested with the chain of nobility, and wore caps covered with light green taffety. Three of higher rank than the rest, had a wreath of gold leaves encircling the bottom of the caps, not unlike the strawberry leaves in a ducal coronet; their attendants, who were numerous, carried a variety of utensils, such as their beetle box, water flagon, drinking cup, and spitting pot; of which latter, from their filthy practice of chewing beetle, they stood in constant need. The Colonel regaled them with tea, and English raspberry jam spread on biscuits: they ate sparingly, and refreshed themselves with copious bowls of tea, unadulterated either by cream or sugar.

About this time the Chinese minister, who was then labouring under severe indisposition, sent a polite message to the Colonel, expressing his regret that he had it not in his power to visit him in person; but that his two colleagues would wait on him whenever he should be at leisure to receive them. The Colonel returned his acknowledgments, and appointed the following day *.

The two junior members of the Chinese deputation came at the appointed hour, accompanied by seven or eight attendants. There is no personage on earth so solemn and ceremonious as a Chinese officer of state; his dignity is preserved by profound silence, unless when occasion renders it necessary to exercise the faculty of speech,

* It is customary among nations eastward of Bengal, when a public deputation is sent to a foreign court, to nominate three members, who constitute a council; although the president or chief of these is invested with all the power, and controls the proceedings of the rest, yet the distinction between them is not so wide as to preclude the juniors from a high degree of consequence being attached to their station; and in case of the demise of the principal, the senior survivor executes all diplomatic functions, thus wisely guarding against any impediment which a casualty might throw in the way of negociation.

which

which is always slow, monotonous, and dull; two gentlemen, in the familiarity of private life, seldom depart from their gravity, or relax into a smile. On entering a room where there is company, good breeding is evinced by a modest but pertinacious refusal to sit down till the master of the house is first seated, which would be an equal violation of decorum on his part*. They were very fond of cherry brandy; they tasted our tea, and, before they departed, politely presented me with some fans, two or three pieces of silk, two small boxes of tea, and three bottles of shouchou, a very fiery spirit distilled from rice, of which the Chinese are extremely fond. I returned the visit on the following day, and was received with as much pomp and ostentation as circumstances would admit: in the front of the house a silk ensign waved, on which was embroidered the imperial dragon of China, and at their gate were suspended whips and chains, importing the power which the owner possessed to inflict corporal punishment. The two junior members met me at the threshold of their habitation, apologized for the unavoidable absence of the chief personage, and introduced me into a hall, the walls of which were concealed by screens of silk, and the chairs covered with loose pieces of sattin; this interview was rendered more interesting than the former, by a spontaneous question on the part of the senior Chinese, to know whether I had heard of the safe arrival of Lord Macartney in England. His lordship having left China only the preceding year, it was not possible to have had accounts of his reaching England, and the issue of his lordship's negotiations was at that time wholly unknown. They treated us with tea and sweetmeats, and smoked their long pipes with unrelaxed solemnity. I repaid their civilities by giving them some broad-cloth and brandy, and took my leave.

The interval that elapsed between the time of our arrival at Ummerapoora, and of our formal introduction at court, afforded us leisure to acquire some insight into the customs, religious tenets, and moral economy of the Birman nation. We shall therefore proceed to give a more general account of the country, and endeavour to illustrate the character of this people from their manners, and the state of society; from the progress which the arts had made; and from the usages of the inhabitants in common life.

SECTION VIII.

Religion of the Birmans—Their Laws—Jurisdiction of the Metropolis—Lawyers—The Royal Establishment—Council of State—Honours not Hereditary—Insignia of Rank—Dress—Resemblance to the Chinese—Marriages—Funerals—Population—Revenues.

THE Birmans are Hindoos; not votaries of Brahma, but sectaries of Boodh, which latter is admitted by Hindoos of all descriptions to be the ninth Avatar †, or descent of the deity in his capacity of preserver. He reformed the doctrines contained in the Vedas, and severely censured the sacrifice of cattle, or depriving any being of life; he is called the author of happiness: his place of residence was discovered at Gaya in in Bengal, by the illustrious Amara‡, renowned

* This custom sometimes produces a very ludicrous scene, and the guests are not unfrequently obliged to be dragged to their chairs, and placed in them almost by compulsion. On entering the door, they both made an abrupt stop, and resisted all solicitation to advance to chairs, that had been prepared for them until the Colonel should first be seated: in this dilemma he immediately seized on the foremost chair, whilst Dr. Buchanan grappled with the second: thus we soon fixed them in their seats, both parties, during the struggle, repeating Chin Chin, Chin Chin, the Chinese term of salutation. The conversation was not at all lively or interesting; for though, says the Colonel, I sat between them, our words had to make a wide circuit before they reached each other's comprehension. I spoke in the language of Hindostan to a Mussulman who understood Birman, he delivered it to a Birman who spoke Chinese, the Birman gave it to the first official domestic, who repeated it to his master in the Chinese tongue.

† Sir William Jones on the Gods of Greece, Italy, and India.

‡ See the translation of a Shanscrit inscription on a stone found in the temple of Boodh, at Gaya, by Mr. Wilkins. Asiat. Research. vol. I.

amongst men, "who caused an image of the supreme Boodh to be made, and he worshipped it; reverence be unto thee in the form of Boodh; reverence be unto thee, Lord of the earth; reverence be unto thee, an incarnation of the deity; and, eternal one, reverence be unto thee, O God, in the form of Mercy."

Gotma, or Goutum, according to the Hindoos of India, or Gaudma, among the inhabitants of the more eastern parts, is said* to have been a philosopher, and is by the Birmans believed to have flourished above two thousand three hundred† years ago: he taught, in the Indian schools, the heterodox religion and philosophy of Boodh. The image that represents Boodh is called Gaudma, or Goutum, which is now a commonly received appellation of Boodh himself: this image is the primary object of worship in all countries situated between Bengal and China. The sectaries of Boodh contend with those of Brahma for the honour of antiquity, and are certainly far more numerous. The Cingaleze in Ceylon are Boodhists of the purest source, and the Birmans acknowledge to have originally received their religion from that island. It was brought, say the Rhahaans, first from Zehoo (Ceylon) to Arracan, and thence was introduced into Ava, and probably into China; for the Birmans assert with confidence that the Chinese are Boodhists.

Whatever may be the antiquity of the worship of Boodh; its reception is very widely extended. The most authentic writer‡ on the eastern peninsula calls the image of Gaudma, as worshipped by the Siamese, Somona-codom§.

The Birmans believe in the Metempsychosis, and that after having undergone a certain number of transmigrations, their souls will at last either be received into their Olympus on the mountain Meru‖, or be sent to suffer torment in a place of divine punishments. Mercy they hold to be the first attribute of the divinity. "Reverence be to thee, O God, in the form of Mercy!" and they worship God by extending mercy unto all his creatures.

The laws of the Birmans, like their religion, are Hindoo; in fact, there is no separating the laws from their religion: divine authority revealed to Menu the sacred principles in a hundred thousand slocas, or verses; Menu promulgated the code; numerous commentaries on Menu were composed by the Munis, or philosophers, whose treatises constitute the Dherma Sastra, or body of law. The Birmans generally call their code Derma Sath, or Sastra; it is one among the many commentaries on Menu. The laws, as well as the religion of the Birmans, found their way into the Ava country from Arracan, and came originally from Ceylon. The Birman system of jurisprudence is replete with sound morality, and is distinguished above any other Hindoo commentary for perspicuity and good sense; it provides specifically for almost every species of crime that can be committed, and adds a copious chapter of precedents and decisions to guide the inexperienced in cases where there is doubt and difficulty. Trial by ordeal and imprecation are the only absurd passages in the book; but on the subject of women it is, to an European, offensively indecent: like the immortal Menu, it tells the prince and the magistrate their duty, in language austere, manly and energetic; and the exhortation at the close is at once noble and pious**.

Laws, thus dictated by religion, are in general conscientious

* Sir William Jones on the Gods of Greece, Italy, and India.

† This agrees with the account of the Siamese computation given by Kæmpfer.

‡ Loubere.

§ Being unacquainted with the language of Siam, which, from so short a residence as four months, it was impossible he could have acquired, he confounds two distinct words Somona, and Codom, signifying Codom, or Gaudma, in his incarnate state; the difference between the letters C and G may easily have arisen from the mode of pronunciation in different countries; even in the Birman manner of uttering the word, the distinction between these letters is not very clear. The Boodh of the Indians and the Birmans, is pronounced by the Siamese Pooth, or Pood; by the vulgar, Poo; which, without any violence to probability, might be converted by the Chinese into Foe. M. Gentil asserts that the Chinese admit, by their own accounts, that Fo, their object of worship, was originally brought from India.

‖ Meru properly denotes the pole, and, according to the learned Captain Wilford, it is the celestial north pole; the Hindoos, round which they place the garden of Indra, and describe it as the seat of delights.

** We select the following passages as a specimen:

"A country may be said to resemble milk, in which a depression is like to water; when water is mingled with milk its sweetness immediately vanishes: in the same manner a depression destroys a fair and flourishing country. The tyrant Surkaab will only inhabit the clearest stream; so a prince can never prosper in a distracted empire. By drinking

conscientiously administered. The criminal jurisprudence of the Birmans is lenient in particular cases, but rigorous in others; whoever is found guilty of an undue assumption of power, or of any crime that indicates a treasonable intent, is punished by the severest tortures. The first commission of theft does not incur the penalty of death, unless the amount stolen be above eight hundred kiat, or tackal, about a hundred pounds, or attended with circumstances of atrocity, such as murder or mutilation. In the former case, the culprit has a round mark imprinted on each cheek by gunpowder and punctuation, and on his breast the word thief, with the article stolen; for the second offence he is deprived of an arm; but the third inevitably produces capital punishment: decapitation is the mode by which criminals suffer, in the performance of which the Birmian executioners are exceedingly skilful.

The city of Ummerapoora is divided into four distinct subordinate jurisdictions, in each of which a Maywoon presides. This officer, who, in the provinces, is a viceroy, in the metropolis resembles a mayor, and holds a civil and criminal court of justice; in capital cases he transmits the evidence in writing, with his opinion, to the Lotoo, or grand chamber of consultation, where the council of state assembles; the council after close examination into the documents, reports upon them to the King, who either pardons the offender, or orders execution of the sentence: the Maywoon is obliged to attend in person, and see the punishment carried into effect.

Civil suits may be transferred from the courts of the Maywoons to the Lotoo; this removal, however, is attended with a heavy expence. There are regular established lawyers, who conduct causes, and plead; eight only are licensed to plead in the Lotoo: they are called Ameendozaan: the usual fee is five tackal, equal to sixteen shillings; but the government has large profits on all suits that are brought into court.

There is no country of the East in which the royal establishment is arranged with more minute attention than in the Birman court; it is splendid without being wasteful, and numerous without confusion; the most distinguished members are the Sovereign, his principal queen, entitled Nandoh Praw; the Engy Teekien, or prince royal; the crown descending to the male heirs in a direct line.

Next in rank to the princes of the blood royal,

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pure milk the body is strengthened and the palate is gratified; but when mingled with water, pleasure no longer is found, and the springs of life gradually decline.

"A wise prince resembles a sharp sword, which at a single stroke cuts through a pillar with such keenness that the fabric still remains unshaken: with equal keenness his discernment will penetrate advice.

"A wise prince is dear to his people, as the physician to the sick man; as light to those that are in darkness; an unexpected sight to the eyes of the blind; as is the full moon on a wintry night; and milk to the infant from the breast of its mother."

The commentator then proceeds to denounce tremendous judgments against an oppressive prince and corrupt judge; the latter is thus curiously menaced:

"The punishment of his crimes, who judges iniquitously, and decides falsely, shall be greater than though he had slain one thousand women, one hundred priests, or one thousand cows."

The book concludes as follows:

"Thus have the learned spoken, and thus have the wise decreed, that litigation may cease among men, and contention be banished the land: and let all magistrates and judges expound the laws as they are herein written; and to the extent of their understanding, and according to the dictates of their conscience, pronounce judgment agreeably to the tenor of this book: let the welfare of their country, and the benefit of their fellow-creatures, be their continual study, and the sole object of their attention: let them ever be mindful of the supreme dignity of the Roulah* and the Brahmins, and pay them that reverence which is due to their sacred characters: let them observe becoming respect towards all men, and they shall shield the weak from oppression, support the helpless, and, in particular cases, mitigate the severity of avenging justice.

"It shall be the duty of a prince, and the magistrates of a province, wisely to regulate the internal police of the empire, to assist and befriend the peasants, merchants, farmers, and those who follow trades, that they may daily increase in worldly wealth and happiness; they shall promote all works of charity, encourage the opulent to relieve the poor, and liberally contribute to pious and laudable purposes and whatsoever good works shall be promoted by their influence and example, whatsoever shall be given in charity, and whatsoever benefit shall accrue to mankind from their endeavours, it shall all be preserved in the records of heaven, one-sixth part of which, though the deeds be the deeds of others, yet shall it be ascribed unto them; and at the last day, at the solemn and awful hour of judgment, the recording spirit shall produce them, inscribed on the adamantine tablet of human actions. But, on the other hand, if the prosperity of the nation be neglected, if justice be suffered to lie dormant, if tumults arise and robberies are committed, if rapine and foul assassination stalk along the plains, all crimes that shall be thus perpetrated through their remissness, one sixth part shall be brought to this account, and fall with weighty vengeance on their heads; the dreadful consequences of which surpass the power of tongue to utter, or of pen to express.

* *Arracan name for Rhahadn.*

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are the Woongees, or chief ministers of state. These form the great ruling council of the nation; they sit in the Lotoo, or imperial hall of consultation, every day, except on the Birman sabbath, from twelve till three or four o'clock, or later, as there happens to be business; they issue mandates to the Maywoons, or viceroys of the different provinces; they controul every department of the state, and, in fact, govern the empire, subject always to the pleasure of the King, whose will is absolute, and power undefined.

To assist in the administration of affairs, four officers, called Woondocks, are associated with the Woongees, but of far inferior authority; they sit in the Lotoo in a deliberative capacity, having no vote: they give their opinions, and may record their dissent from any measure that is proposed; but the Woongees decide: the Woondocks, however, are frequently employed to execute business of great public importance. Four Attawoons, or ministers of the interior, possess a great degree of influence that sometimes counteracts with success the views and wishes of the Woongees; these the King selects to be his privy counsellors, from their talents, and the opinion he entertains of their integrity; they have access to him at all times; a privilege which the principal Woongee does not enjoy. There are four chief secretaries, called Seree-dogees, and have numerous writers or inferior Serees under them. Four Nachaangees sit in the Lotoo, take notes, and report whatever is transacted. Four Sandohgaans regulate all ceremonials, introduce strangers of rank into the royal presence, and are the bearers of messages from the council of state to the king. There are nine Sandozains, or readers, whose business it is to read all official writings, petitions, &c. Every document, in which the public is concerned, or that is brought before the council in the Lotoo is read aloud. The four Maywoons are restricted to the magisterial superintendance of their respective quarters of the city; they have nothing farther to do with the Lotoo, than to obey the commands they receive from thence. The Assaywoon, or paymaster-general, is also an officer of high importance; the place is generally held by one of the Woongees, who is called Assay Woongee. There are several other officers of distinction, who bear no ostensible share in the administration of public affairs; such as the Daywoon, or king's armour-bearer, the Chaingeewoon, or master of the elephants; also the Woons of the queen's household, and that of the prince royal. Each of the junior princes has a distinct establishment.

In the Birman government there are no hereditary dignities or employments; all honours and offices on the demise of the possessor, revert to the crown. The tsaloe, or chain, is the badge of the order of nobility, of which there are different degrees, distinguished by the number of strings or small chains that compose the ornament; these strings are fastened by bosses where they unite; three of open chain work is the lowest rank; three of neatly twisted wire is the next; then of six, of nine, and of twelve: no subject is ever honoured with a higher degree than twelve; the king alone wears twenty-four.

Almost every article of use, as well as ornament, particularly in their dress, indicates the rank of the owner; the shape of the beetle-box, which is carried by an attendant after a Birman of distinction wherever he goes, his ear-rings, cap of ceremony, horse furniture, even the metal of which his spitting-pot and drinking-cup are made (which if gold denote him to be a man of high consideration), all are indicative of the gradations of society; and woe be unto him that assumes the insignia of a degree which is not his legitimate right!

The court dress of the Birman nobility is very becoming; it consists of a long robe, either of flowered sattin or velvet, reaching to the ankles, with an open collar and loose sleeves; over this there is a scarf, or flowing mantle, that hangs from the shoulder; and on their heads they wear high caps made of velvet, either plain or of silk embroidered with flowers of gold, according to the rank of the wearer. Ear-rings are a part of male dress; persons of condition use tubes of gold of about three inches long, and as thick as a large quill, which expands at one end like the mouth of a speaking trumpet; others wear a heavy mass of gold beaten into a plate and rolled up; this lump of metal forms a large orifice in the lobe of the ear, and drags it down by the weight to the extent sometimes of two inches. The women likewise have their distinguishing paraphernalia: their hair is tied in a bunch at the top of the head, and bound round with a fillet, the embroidery and ornaments of which

which express their respective ranks; a short shift reaches to the pit of the stomach, is drawn tight by strings, and supports the breasts; over that is a loose jacket with close sleeves; round their waist they roll a long piece of silk, or cloth, which, reaching their feet, and sometimes trailing on the ground, encircles them twice, and is then tucked in. When women of condition go abroad, they put on a silk sash, resembling a long shawl, which crosses their bosom, and is thrown over their shoulders, gracefully flowing to each side. The lowest class of females often wear only a single garment, in the form of a sheet, which, wrapped round the body, and tucked in under the arm, crosses their breasts, which it scarcely conceals, and descends to their ankles; thus, when they walk, the bottom of the cloth, where it overlaps, is necessarily opened by the protrusion of the leg, and displays to a side view as high as the middle of the thigh; such an exposure, in the opinion of an European, bears an indecent appearance, although it excites no such idea in the people themselves. Women, in full dress, stain the palms of their hands and their nails of a red colour, for which they use a vegetable juice, and strew on their bosoms powder of sandal wood, or of a bark called Sunneka, with which some rub their faces. Both men and women tinge the edges of their eyelids and their teeth with black; this latter operation gives to their mouths a very unseemly appearance in the eyes of an European, which is not diminished by their being constantly filled with beetle leaf. Men of rank wear, in common dress, a tight vest, with long sleeves made of muslin, or of extremely fine nankeen, which is manufactured in the country; also a silk wrapper that encircles the waist: the working class are usually naked to the middle, but in the cold season a mantle or vest of European broad cloth is highly prized.

The Birmans in their features bear a nearer resemblance to the Chinese than to the natives of Hindostan. The women, especially in the northern part of the empire, are fairer than Hindoo females, but not so delicately formed; they are, however, well made, and in general inclined to corpulency; their hair is black, coarse, and long. The men are not tall in stature, but spare and athletic; they have a very youthful appearance, from the custom of plucking their beards instead of using the razor: they tatoo their thighs and arms into various fantastic shapes and figures, which they believe operate as a charm against the weapons of their enemies. Neither the men nor the women are so cleanly in their persons as the Hindoos of India, among whom diurnal ablution is a religious as well as a moral duty. Girls are taught, at an early age, to turn their arms in such a manner as to make them appear distorted; when the arm is extended the elbow is inverted, the inside of the joint being protracted, and the external part bending inwards; from this cause, the pendant arm seems as if it were broken.

Marriages among the Birmans are not contracted until the parties attain the age of puberty: the contract is purely civil; the ecclesiastical jurisdiction having nothing to do with it. The law prohibits polygamy, and recognizes but one wife, who is denominated Mica; concubinage, however, is admitted to an unlimited extent. A man may repudiate his wife under circumstances, but the process is attended with a heavy expence. Concubines, living in the same house with the legitimate wife, are, by law, obliged to perform menial services for her, and when she goes abroad they attend her, bearing her water-flaggon, beetle-box, fan, &c. When a husband dies, his concubines, if bound in servitude to him, become the property of the surviving widow, unless he shall have emancipated them by a specific act previous to his decease. When a young man is desirous to espouse a girl, his mother, or nearest female relation, first makes the proposal in private; if the suit be well received, a party of his friends proceed to the house of the parents of the maiden, with whom they adjust the dotal portion. On the morning of the bridal day the bridegroom sends to the lady three loongees or lower garments, three tulbecks, or sashes, and three pieces of white muslin; such jewels also, ear-rings and bracelets, as his circumstances will admit. a feast is prepared by the parents of the bride, and formal writings are executed: the new-married couple eat out of the same dish, the bridegroom presents the bride with some laapack, or pickled tea, which she accepts and returns the compliment: thus ends the ceremony, without any of that subsequent riot and resistance on the part of the young lady and her female friends, with which the Sumatrian damsels oppose the privileges of an ardent bridegroom.

When a man dies intestate, three-fourths of his property go to his children born in wedlock, but not in equal proportions; and one-fourth to the widow, who is the guardian both of the property and the children, until the latter attain the age of maturity. A Birman funeral is solemnized with much religious parade, and external demonstration of grief: the corpse is carried on a bier, on men's shoulders; the procession moves slowly; the relations attend in mourning; and women, hired for the occasion, precede the body, and chant a dirge-like air. The Birmans burn their dead, unless the deceased is a pauper, in which case he is either buried or cast into the river, as the ceremony of burning is very expensive. The bier is placed on a funeral pile six or eight feet high, made of billets of dried wood laid across, with intervals to admit a circulation of air, and increase the flame. The Rhahaans walk round the pile, reciting prayers to Gaudma, until the fire reaches the body, when the whole is quickly reduced to ashes: the bones are afterwards gathered and deposited in a grave. Persons of high distinction, such as the Seredaw, or chief ecclesiastic of a province, a Maywoon, a Woongee, or a member of the royal family, are embalmed, and their remains preserved six weeks or two months after decease, before they are committed to the funeral pile: during this period the body is laid in state in some kioum or religious building; but at the capital it is placed in a sacred saloon, beautifully ornamented with gilding, and exclusively appropriated to that sacred purpose. Honey is the principal ingredient made use of to preserve the body from putrefaction.

Of the population of the Birman dominions it may be estimated that it amounts to about fourteen millions four hundred thousand persons. Few of the inhabitants live in solitary habitations; they mostly form themselves into small societies, and their dwellings thus collected compose their Russ, or villages; if therefore, we reckon their numbers, including Arracan, at seventeen millions, the calculation may not be widely erroneous.

Although it seems difficult, and perhaps impossible, under such a system, to ascertain, in any standard currency, the amount of the royal revenue, yet the riches which the Birman monarch is said to possess are immense, a supposition that may readily be admitted when it is considered that a very small share of what enters his exchequer returns into circulation. The hoarding of money is a favourite maxim of oriental state policy; an eastern potentate cannot be brought to comprehend that the diffusion of property among his subjects is a surer source of wealth to himself, and security to his throne, than the possession of Lydian treasures, locked up in vaults, and concealed in secret recesses, contrived by sordid avarice and foolish cunning.

SECTION IX.

Military Establishment—Infantry—Cassay Cavalry—Artificers—War-Boats—Gunpowder long known—Weapons—Food—Climate—Soil—Produce—Minerals—Precious Stones—Commerce—Currency—Weights—Measures—Character of the Natives—Beggars unknown—Animals—Division of Time—Music—Language—Extent of the Empire—Rivers.

THE Birmans may be termed a nation of soldiers, every man in the kingdom being liable to be called upon for his military services; and war is deemed the most honourable occupation: the regular military establishment of the Birmans is, nevertheless, very inconsiderable; not exceeding the numbers of which the royal guards is composed, and such as are necessary to preserve the police of the capital. When an army is to be raised, a mandate issues from the golden palace, to all viceroys of provinces, and miougees of districts, requiring a certain number of men to be at a general rendezvous on an appointed day, under the command sometimes of the viceroy himself, but oftener that of an inferior officer: the levy is proportioned to the population of the district, estimated from the number of registered houses that it contains. The provincial court determines the burthen which each house is to bear; commonly every two or three

three, or four houses are to furnish among them one recruit, or to pay three hundred tackal in money, (about forty or forty-five pounds). This recruit is furnished with arms, ammunition, and a certain daily allowance of grain from government, but is not entitled to pay. The families of these conscripts are retained in the districts which they inhabit, as hostages for the good conduct of their relation. In case of desertion or treachery, the innocent wife, children, and parents of the guilty person, are dragged to execution without the least remorse or pity; even cowardice subjects the family of the delinquent to capital punishment*.

Infantry and cavalry compose the regular guards of the king: the former are armed with muskets and sabres: the latter are provided with a spear seven or eight feet long, which they manage with great dexterity, seldom requiring or making use of any other weapon. The infantry are not uniformly clothed: seven hundred do constant duty within the precincts, and at the several gates of the palace. On the day of my public reception, says Colonel Symes, I saw about two thousand, and have no doubt that all the troops in the city were paraded on that occasion. All the troopers in the king's service are natives of Cassay, who are much better horsemen than the Birmans. They ride, like all orientals, with short stirrups and a loose rein. The horses of Ava are small, but very hardy and active. Contrary to the practice of other eastern countries, they castrate their horses, and are thus enabled to maintain them with little trouble and expence, and can also turn a number of them loose in a field together, without any risk of their injuring one another. Horses are frequently exported in number ships to Madras, and other parts of the coast, where they are disposed of to considerable advantage.

The government of Ava is extremely attentive to provide, in times of peace, for the contingencies of war; the royal magazines, I was told, says the Colonel, could furnish twenty thousand muskets, which, if they resembled the specimens I saw, cannot be very formidable; these have been imported, at different periods, into the country, by ships trading to Rangoon and other parts of the empire, and are either of French manufacture, or condemned muskets from the English arsenals in India. The Birmans are very fond of their arms, of which they take great care; their gunsmiths, who are all natives of Cassay, keep them in repair; but they are in general so bad as to be out of the power of art to render them serviceable. I saw a tolerably good fowling piece which they said was entirely the work of a Cassay artificer; this however, was allowed to be an extraordinary effort of genius: the person who shewed it to me, presented me, at the same time, with a bamboo which threw out a short spear of iron by means of a spring; it was executed by the maker of the gun, and seemed to be formed after a model of an English walking stick, that contained a concealed spike; the imitation evinced much ingenuity, although the workmanship was coarse, and the iron badly polished.

By far the most respectable part of the Birman military force is their establishment of war-boats. Every town of note, in the vicinity of the river, is obliged to furnish a certain number of men, and one or more boats, in proportion to the magnitude of the place. The king can command, at a very short notice, five hundred of these vessels: they are constructed out of the solid trunk of the teak tree, which is excavated partly by fire, and partly by cutting; the largest are from eighty to one hundred feet long, but the breadth seldom exceeds eight feet, and even this space is produced by artificially extending the sides after the trunk has been hollowed. They carry from fifty to sixty rowers, who use short oars that work on a spindle; the prow is solid, and has a flat surface, on which, when they go to war, a piece of ordnance is mounted, a six, a nine, or even a twelve pounder; the gun carriage is secured by lashings to strong bolts on each side, and swivels are frequently fixed on the curvature of the stern.

Each rower is provided with a sword and a lance, which are placed by his side whilst he plies the oars. Besides the boatmen, there are usually thirty soldiers on board, who are armed with muskets: thus prepared, they go in fleets to meet the foe, and when in sight, draw up in a line,

* This barbarous law, which is rigorously enforced, must have a powerful effect in securing the allegiance of the people, and of impelling them to vigorous exertion; and it is perhaps, the only sure mode of inciting to enterprizes of danger men who are not actuated by any innate sense of honour, and who do not feel any national pride.

a line, presenting their prows to the enemy. Their attack is extremely impetuous; they advance with great rapidity, and sing a war-song, at once to encourage their people, daunt their adversaries, and regulate the strokes of their oars; they generally endeavour to grapple, and when that is effected, the action becomes very severe, as these people are endued with great courage, strength, and activity. In times of peace, they are fond of exercising in their boats, and they display great dexterity in the management of them. The vessels being low in the water, their greatest danger is that of being run down by a larger boat striking on their broadside, a misfortune which the steersman is taught to dread, and to avoid, above all others. It is surprising to see the facility with which they steer, and elude each other in their mock combats. The rowers are also practised to row backwards and impel the vessel with the stern foremost: this is the mode of retreat, by means of which the artillery still bears upon their opponent. The largest of the war-boats do not draw more than three feet water. When a person of rank is on board, there is a sort of moving tilt or canopy, for his particular accommodation, placed some in the centre, and sometimes on the prow. The sides of the boat are either gilt as far as the water's edge, or plain, according to the rank of the person it carries. Gilded boats are only permitted to the princes of the blood, or to persons holding the highest stations, such as a Maywoon of a province, or a minister of state.

It is not improbable that the use of gunpowder was known in India before its effects were discovered in the west; yet it does not appear, that the natives of Ava applied it to the purpose of musketry till the Europeans instructed them in the art. According to Indian accounts, cannon were fabricated in the east long before the æra of European conquest; their artillery, however, was not capable of being transported with facility, or at all used in the field: they were made of iron bars beaten into a cylindrical form, rudely put together, but of great strength, and enormous weight, from which, when raised on a rampart or tower, they threw huge stones to annoy the enemy. The musket was first introduced into Pegue and Ava by the Portugueze, and is an implement of war which the natives unwisely prefer to their own native weapons, the spear and sabre, a partiality that is highly prejudicial to themselves, for nothing can be less formidable than such fire arms as they possess, or have the means of procuring. The proper indigenous weapons of the country are the spear, the javelin, which is thrown from the hand, the cross-bow, and the sabre; the latter is used by the Birmans not only as an implement of war, but is likewise applied to various purposes as an instrument of manual labour: with this the peasant fells trees, shapes timbers, cuts bamboos, or defends himself against an enemy, and wild beasts: he never travels without it, and generally, when on a journey, carries a shield on his left arm. They encumber themselves with less baggage than perhaps any other people; and are satisfied with a scanty portion of the hardest fare.

In their food, the Birmans, in comparison with the Indians, are gross and uncleanly. Although their religion forbids the slaughter of animals in general, yet they apply the interdiction only to those that are domesticated: all game is eagerly sought after, and in many places it is publicly sold: reptiles also, such as lizards, guanas, and snakes, constitute a part of the subsistence of the lower classes. They are extremely fond of vegetables; but at those places where garden greens are not to be procured, they gather wild sorrel, and sometimes substitute the tender leaves of trees; these, boiled with rice, and moistened with a little oil, or seasoned with gnapee, or pickled sprat, compose a meal for a Birman peasant or boatman. The higher ranks, however, live more delicately, although their fare is not very sumptuous.

The climate of every part of the Birman empire bears testimony to its salubrity, by the best possible criterion, the appearance and vigour of the natives. The seasons are regular, and the extremes of heat and cold are seldom experienced; at least, the duration of that intense heat which immediately precedes the commencement of the rainy season is so short, that it incommodes but for a very little time. During our residence in the country, we lost only one man by disease, another met an accidental death, for in wandering through the woods he became the prey of a tiger.

The soil of the southern provinces of the Birman empire is remarkably fertile, and produces as luxuriant crops of rice as are to be found

is the finest parts of Bengal. Farther northward the country becomes irregular and mountainous; but the plains and valleys, particularly near the river, are exceedingly fruitful; they yield good wheat, and the various kinds of small grain which grow in Hindostan; as likewise legames, and most of the esculent vegetables of India. Sugar canes, tobacco of a superior quality, indigo, cotton, and the different tropical fruits, in perfection, are all indigenous products of this favoured land.

Besides the teak tree, which grows in many parts of the Birman empire, as well to the north of Ummerapoora, as in the southern country, there is almost every description of timber that is known in India. Dr. Buchanan, in one of his afternoon excursions, perceived a large log of fir, which, his attendant informed him, had been washed down by the torrents from a mountainous part of the country, four days journey northward of the capital, where it grows in abundance, and of considerable magnitude: the natives call it Zuenyo; they extract the turpentine, which they turn to use, but consider the wood of little value, on account of its softness. If they could be prevailed upon to transport it to Rangoon, it might prove a beneficial material to the navigation of India. Top-gallant masts and yards made of teak are thought to be too heavy. European and American spars are often bought for these purposes at a very exorbitant price, an inconvenience which the fir of Ava, if conveyed to the market, would probably obviate.

The kingdom of Ava abounds in minerals; six days journey from Bamoo, near the frontiers of China, there are mines of gold and silver, called Badouem: there are also mines of gold, silver, rubies, and sapphires at present open on a mountain near the Keenduem, called Wooboloo-taun; but the most valuable, and those which produce the finest jewels, are in the vicinity of the capital, nearly opposite to Kooum-meoum. Precious stones are found in several other parts of the empire. The inferior minerals, such as contain iron, tin, lead, antimony, arsenic, sulphur, &c. are met with in great abundance: amber, of a consistence unusually pure and pellucid, is dug up in large quantities near the river; gold likewise is discovered in the sandy beds of streams which descend from the mountains. Between the Keenduem and the Irrawaddy, to the northward, there is a small river called Shoe Lien Kioup, or the Stream of Golden Sand. Diamonds and emeralds are not produced in any part of the Ava empire; but it affords amethysts, garnets, very beautiful chrysolites, jasper, loadstone, and marble*.

An extensive trade is carried on between the capital of the Birman dominions and Yunan in China. The principal article of export from Ava is cotton, of which there are two kinds, one of a brown colour, of which nankeens are made, the other white, like the cotton of India. This commodity is transported up the Irrawaddy in large boats as far as Bamoo, where it is bartered at the common jee or mart, with Chinese merchants, and conveyed by the latter, partly by land, and partly by water, into the Chinese dominions. Amber, ivory, precious stones, beetle nut, and the edible nests brought from the eastern Archipelago, are also articles of commerce: in return, the Birmans procure raw and wrought silks, velvets, gold leaf, preserves, paper, and some utensils of hardware.

The commerce between the capital and the southern parts of the empire is facilitated by the noble river that waters the country; its principal objects are the necessaries of life; several thousand boats are annually employed in transporting rice from the lower provinces, to supply Ummerapoora, and the northern districts; salt and gnapee may likewise be reckoned under the same head. Articles of foreign importation are mostly conveyed up the Irrawaddy; a few are introduced by way of Arracan, and carried over the mountains on the heads of coolies, or labourers; European broad cloth, a small quantity of hardware, coarse Bengal muslins, Cossembuzar silk hand-

* The quarries of marble are only a few miles from Ummerapoora. It is equal in quality to the finest marble of Italy, and admits of a polish that renders it almost transparent. Blocks of any size that it is possible to transport might be procured, but the sale is prohibited; nor is it allowed to be carried away without a special order. Images of Gaudma being chiefly composed of this material, it is on that account held sacred. Birmans may not purchase the marble in mass, but are suffered and indeed encouraged to buy figures of the deity ready made. Exportation of their gods out of the kingdom is strictly forbidden. The city of Chagain is the principal manufactory of these marble divinities.

kerchiefs, China ware, which will not admit of land carriage, and glass, are the principal commodities. Cocoa nuts also, brought from the Nicobar Islands, where they are of uncommon excellence, are looked upon as a delicacy, and bear a high price: merchants carry down silver, lace, precious stones, and some other articles, to no great amount. The Birmans, like the Chinese, have no coin; silver in bullion, and lead, are the current monies of the country; weight and purity are, of course, the standard of value, and in the ascertainment of both the natives are exceedingly scrupulous and expert. What foreigners call tackal, properly kiat, is the most general piece of silver in circulation: it weighs ten penny weights ten grains and three-fourths; its subdivisions are, the tubbee, two of which make one moo; two moo one math; four math one tackal; and one hundred tackal compose one viss. Money scales and weights are all fabricated at the capital, where they are stamped, and afterwards circulated throughout the empire; the use of any others is prohibited.

Rice is sold by a measure called Fayndaung, or basket, the weight is sixteen viss, about fifty-six pounds. There are many subdivions of measurement. The average price of rice at the capital is one tackal, rather more than half-a-crown, for a basket and a half. At Rangoon and Martaban one tackal will purchase four or five baskets.

The bankers, called by foreigners Pymon, are likewise workers in silver, and assayers of metal: this is a class of people very numerous; and indispensably necessary, as no stranger can undertake either to pay or receive money without having it first examined. Every merchant has a banker of this description, with whom he lodges all his cash, and who, for receiving and paying, gets an established commission of one per cent; in consideration of which he is responsible for the quality of what goes through his hands; and in no instance did the Colonel ever hear of a breach of trust committed by one of these bankers*. The quantity of alloy varies in the silver current in different parts of the empire; at Rangoon it is adulterated twenty-five per cent; at Ummerapoora, pure, or what is called flowered silver, is most common: in this latter all royal dues are paid. The several modifications are as follows:

Rouni, or pure silver.	
Rounika,	5 per cent. of alloy.
Rounizee,	10 per cent.
Rouassee,	20 per cent.
Mouwadzoo,	25 per cent.
Woombo,	30 per cent.

The Birman measures of length are, a Paulgaut, or inch, eighteen of which compose the Taim, or cubit. The Saundaung, or royal cubit, equal to twenty-two inches. The Dha, or Bamboo, which consists of seven royal cubits; one thousand dha make one Birman league, or Dain, nearly equal to two British miles and two furlongs; the league is also subdivided into tenths. The Birmans keep their accounts in decimals, after the manner of the Chinese.

It has already been noticed, that the general disposition of the Birmans is strikingly contrasted with that of the natives of India, from whom they are separated only by a narrow range of mountains, in many places admitting of an easy intercourse. Notwithstanding the small extent of this barrier, the physical difference between the nations could scarcely be greater, had they been situated at the opposite extremities of the globe. The Birmans are a lively, inquisitive race, active, irascible, and impatient: the character of their Bengal neighbours is too well known, as the reverse, to need any delineation; the unworthy passion of jealousy which prompts most nations of the east to immure their women within the walls of an haram, and surround them with guards, seems to have scarcely any influence over the minds of this extraordinary and more liberal people. Birman wives and daughters are not concealed from the sight of men, and are suffered to have as free intercourse with each other as the rules of European society admit; but in other respects women have just reason to complain of their treatment; they are considered as not belonging to the same scale of the creation

* Any person may have his silver either purified or depreciated to whatever standard he chooses; the nearest silversmith will be glad to perform the work free from charge for his labour, as the bringer by the operation must lose a trifle, which the artist gains: the small quantity of metal that adheres to the crucible is his profit. I was informed, that the silversmith can sell these crucibles afterwards to refiners for forty tackals a thousand, and that an adequate gain accrues to the purchaser from the metal extracted from the pot after it is broken.

as men, and ever the law stamps a degrading distinction between the sexes; the evidence of a woman is not received as of equal weight with that of a man, and a woman is not suffered to ascend the steps of a court of justice, but is obliged to deliver the testimony on the outside.

The custom of selling their women to strangers, which has before been adverted to, is confined to the lowest classes of society, and is perhaps oftener the consequence of heavy pecuniary embarrassment, than an act of inclination: it is not, however, considered as shameful, nor is the female dishonoured; partly perhaps from this cause, and partly from their habits of education, women surrender themselves the victims of this barbarous custom with apparent resignation. It is also said, that they are very seldom unfaithful to their foreign masters; indeed they are often essentially useful, particularly to those who trade, by keeping their accounts and transacting their business: but when a man departs from the country, he is not suffered to carry his temporary wife along with him; on that point the law is exceedingly rigorous: every ship, before she receives her clearance, is diligently searched by the officers of the custom-house: even if their vigilance were eluded, the woman would be quickly missed; and it would be soon discovered in what vessel she had gone, nor could that ship ever return to a Birman port but under penalty of confiscation of the property, and the infliction of a heavy fine and imprisonment on the master: female children also, born of a Birman mother, are not suffered to be taken away. Men are permitted to emigrate, but they think that the exportation of women would impoverish the state, by diminishing the sources of its population.

One vice is usually the parent of another: the Birmans, being exempt from that jealousy, do not resort to the diabolical practice of emasculating male children, to educate them as spies over their women. Chastity, they know, is more chiefly guarded by principles of honour and attachment than by moats or castles. When Arracan was conquered by the Birmans, several Mauchs were made prisoners, belonging to the prince of the country, who had adopted that degenerate custom of Mohammedan growth. These people are maintained by the Birman monarch rather as memorials of his conquests, than for any services they are required to perform. Infidelity is not a characteristic of Birman wives; in general they have too much employment to leave leisure for the corruption of their minds. A woman of the highest rank seldom sits in idleness at home; her female servants like those of the Grecian dames of antiquity, ply "the various labours of the loom:" whilst the mistress superintends and directs their industry. On the occasion of a formal visit to the mother of the present queen, we observed in one of the galleries of the palace, three or four looms at work wrought by the damsels of her household. Weaving is chiefly a female occupation. Most Birman families make all the cotton and silk that is required for their domestic consumption.

The Birmans, in some points of their disposition, display the ferocity of barbarians, and in others all the humanity and tenderness of polished life: they inflict the most heavy vengeance on their enemies; as invaders, desolation marks their track, for they spare neither sex nor age: but at home they assume a different character; there they manifest benevolence, by extending aid to the infirm, the aged, and the sick: filial piety is inculcated as a sacred precept, and its duties are religiously observed. A common beggar is nowhere to be seen; every individual is certain of receiving sustenance, which, if he cannot procure it by his own labour, is provided for him by others.

The Birmans divide their time as follow: The space in which the finger can be raised and depressed is called charazi; ten charazi make one piaan; six piaan one bizana (about a minute). The day, of twenty-four hours, commencing at noon, is divided into eight portions, or yettee, of three hours each, thus denominated: Moon Yettee; or noon; Loung Yettee, three P. M. Lay Yettee, six P. M. Gneah Yettee, nine P. M. Gneah Gnek Yettee, midnight; Gneah Layhee Loung Yettee, three in the morning; Mioh Line Yettee, six A. M. Gneah Tek Yettee, nine A. M.

These divisions of time are ascertained by a machine resembling the hour glass, and sometimes by a perforated pan placed in a tub of water: they are announced by a stroke on an oblong drum, which is always kept near the dwelling of the chief magistrate of the city, town, or village; it is commonly raised on a high bamboo stage, with a roof of mats to protect it from the weather. The edifice at the royal palace for the reception of this instrument is of masonry,

masonry, and very lofty, whence the sound is said to be distinctly conveyed to the remotest extremes of the city.

The Birman year is divided into twelve months, which, strictly speaking, cannot be called synodical, although they comprehend the days. A revolution of the moon, in passing from one conjunction with the sun to another, is performed in twenty-nine days twelve hours and forty-four minutes; but the Birman lunations consist of twenty-nine and thirty days, alternately, which causes a difference between the Newtonian and Birman lunar account of eight hours and forty-eight minutes.

	Days.
Tagoo contains -	29
Kayoung - -	30
Nay Young -	29
Wazoo - -	30
Wagoung -	29
Toouzelien - -	30
Sandaing Guite -	29
Tazoung Moang -	30
Gnadoh -	29
Peeazoo -	30
Taboodway -	29
Taboung - -	30
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In order to complete a solar revolution, they interculate in every third year a month of thirty days.

The Birmans are extremely fond both of poetry and music; they call the former Yeddoo: when repeated by a scholar, it flows soft and measured to the ear; it is sometimes in successive, and often in alternate rhymes. A line is called Tageoung; a stanza, Tubbouk. They have epic as well as religious poems of high celebrity, and they are fond of reciting in heroic numbers the exploits of their kings and generals.

Music is a science which is held in considerable estimation throughout the Birman empire, and is cultivated at the present day more generally than in India, notwithstanding it is called by the Greeks, the language of the gods. The royal library of Ummerapoora is said to contain many valuable treatises on the art. Some of the professional musicians display considerable skill and execution, and the softest airs are pleasing even to an ear unaccustomed to such melody. The principal instruments are a Soum, or harp, made of light wood, hollowed and varnished, in shape somewhat like a canoe with a deck; at the extremity a piece of hard wood is neatly fastened, which tapers to the end, and rising curves over the body of the harp; from this curvature, the strings, usually made of wire, are extended to a bridge on the belly of the instrument: there are two sounding holes, one on each side of the bridge. The size of the Soum varies from two to five feet in length. The Turr resembles our violin; it has only three strings, and is played on with a bow. The Pullaway, is a common flageolet. The Kyezoup, is a collection of cymbals, which are suspended in a bamboo frame: these cymbals, varying in size, produce modulated gradations of sounds. The Patola, or guitar, is a curious instrument; it is the exact form of a crocodile in miniature; the body of which is hollow, with sounding holes on the back; three strings of wire extend from the shoulder to the tail, and are supported on bridges at each extremity; the strings are tuned by means of pegs in the tail, to which they are fastened; it is played on by the finger, and is generally used to accompany the voice. The Boundaw is a collection of drums, oblong in form, and varying in size, which are suspended perpendicularly in a wooden frame by leather thongs. The whole machine is about five feet in diameter, and four feet high. The performer stands in the centre and beats on the drums with a small stick. This instrument is also introduced when there is a full band, and is much used in processions, being carried by two men, whilst the performer shuffles along on the inside, playing as he goes. The Heem is the pipe of Pan, formed of several reeds neatly joined together, and sounded by a common mouth-piece; when played with skill, it produces a very plaintive melody. These are the principal instruments of music in use among the Birmans.

Of the ancient Pallis, whose language constitutes at the present day the sacred text of Ava, Pegue, and Siam, as well as of several other countries eastward of the Ganges; and of their migration from India to the banks of the Nile of Ethiopia, we have but very imperfect information. As a nation they have long since ceased to exist: they are said to have possess-

in former times, a dominion stretching from the Indies as far as Siam, and to have been conquered by the Rajaputras, who changed the name of their country from Palisthan to Rajaputra. In the old books of the Hindoos they are called Paliputras, and it may be concluded that they were the Palibothri of the ancients.

It has been the opinion of some of the most enlightened writers on the languages of the East, that the Pali, the sacred language of the priests of Boodh is nearly allied to the Shanscrit of the Bramins; and there certainly is much of that holy idiom engrafted on the vulgar language of Ava, by the introduction of the Hindoo religion. The character in common use throughout Ava and Pegue is a round Nagari, derived from the square Pali, or religious text; it is formed of circles or segments of circles, variously disposed and combined, whilst the Pali, which is solely applied to the purposes of religion, is a square letter, chiefly consisting of right angles.

The Birman language contains thirty-three simple sounds, to represent which, their alphabet, commonly called Kagye Kayue, consists of an equal number of distinct characters, exclusive of various marks and contractions, that supply the place of long and short vowels, diphthongs, &c. These are explained and enumerated in separate series, in the Birman spelling-book, entitled Kayeboungie, in which every possible combination is given and exemplified. The Birmans write from left to right, and though they leave no distinguishing space between their words, they mark the pause of a sentence and the full stops. Their letters are distinct, and their manuscripts are in general very beautiful.

The common books of the Birmans, like those of the Hindoos, particularly of such as inhabit the southern parts of India, are composed of the palmyra leaf, on which the letters are engraved with a stylus; but the Birmans far excel the Braminical Hindoos in the neatness of the execution, and in the ornamental part of their volumes.

In the recitation of poetry, the language is exceedingly melodious; even the prose of common conversation appears to be measured, and the concluding word of each sentence is lengthened by a musical cadence, that marks the period to the ear of a person wholly unacquainted with the meaning.

It is difficult to ascertain with precision the exact limits of the Birman empire. Dr. Buchanan, who accompanied the embassy, sought for geographical information with the most diligent inquiry; he procured, but not without considerable trouble and expence, sketches of every part of the Birman territories; and he has transmitted the materials which he thus collected to the East-India Company. Those sketches, however, being contained in various and detached pieces, not forming any connected body, nor yet reduced to a graduated scale, can hardly be brought into the shape of a regular map without aid of some further communications; they are nevertheless documents of much intrinsic value and importance; it is therefore to be hoped that, with the aid of some additional lights, a vacuum on the terrestrial globe will, ere long, be filled up, and a portion of the earth delineated, which heretofore has been very imperfectly known. On a probable calculation from Dr. Buchanan's papers of the extent of the present Birman empire it appears to inclose the space between the ninth and twenty-sixth degrees of north latitude, and between the ninety-second and hundred and seventh degrees of longitude east of Greenwich, about one thousand and fifty geographical miles in length, and six hundred in breadth: these are the ascertainable limits, taken from the Birman accounts; but it is probable that their dominions stretch still farther to the north. It should, however, be remarked, that the breadth often varies, and is in many places very inconsiderable, on what is called the Eastern Peninsula.

Dr. Buchanan, in the summary or general outline of the geographical materials which he collected, thus expresses himself on the subject of rivers:—It appears, "that the Arracan river is not so considerable as has been supposed, but takes its rise in hills at no great distance to the north.

"That the river coming from Thibet which is supposed to be that of Arracan, is in fact the Keenduem, or the great western branch of the Ava river.

"That what is supposed to be the western branch of Irrawaddy, is in fact the eastern one which passes by Ava, and runs to the north, keeping west from the province of Yunan, and leaving between it and that part of China a country subject to the Birmans.

"That the Loukiang, which is supposed to be the great branch of the Irrawaddy, has no com-

communication with that river; but on entering the Birman dominions assumes the name of Thaluayn, or Thanluayn, and falls into the sea at Martaban.

" That the river Pegue, which is supposed to come from China, rises among hills about a hundred miles from the sea, and which form the boundary between the Birman and Pegue kingdoms.

" That between the Pegue and Martaban rivers there is a lake, from which two rivers proceed; the one runs north to Old Ava, where it joins the Myoungnya, or Little River of Ava, which comes from mountains on the frontiers of China; the other river runs south from the lake to the sea, and is the Sitang river in the map.

" That the rivers of China, which are supposed to be the heads of the Pegue river, are those of the viceroy Siam.

" That the rivers of Siam and Cambodia communicate by a very considerable branch, called the Annan."

This disposition of the rivers gives an entire new face to the geography of India beyond the Ganges; and from the diligence and ability with which Dr. Buchanan collated the several accounts that he received: I am inclined to believe that his statement is nearly correct.

SECTION X.

Permission granted to make Astronomical Observations—Bengal Painter employed at Court—Mode of catching wild Elephants—Attention of Viceroys to Foreign Ministers—Ceremony arranged—Procession—Manner of Entrance—Introduction into the Lotoo, or Grand Council Hall—Description of the Court, and its Magnificence—Formalities observed in returning—Commercial Intercourse with Birma likely to be advantageous to Britain.

GEOGRAPHY is the foundation of all historical knowledge, without which history becomes little better than romance. Having hitherto found the most authentic geographical information that could be obtained relative to countries eastward of the Ganges extremely erroneous, the Colonel was desirous of determining the true situation of the capital of Ava, especially as he had now a favourable opportunity of profiting by the assistance of a gentleman of high professional talents. It was, however, requisite to obtain the sanction of the Birman government, before Mr. Wood could commence astronomical observations; and, in reply to an application made through the Maywoon of Pegue, the most liberal encouragement was given to proceed with the observations. Being obliged at night to leave the grove and go out on the plain, in order to have a distinct view of the heavenly bodies, the peasants that inhabited the neighbouring villages believed him to be a necromancer, and his telescope and time-keeper instruments of magic. In their wonder they sometimes crowded about him so as to disturb his operations; but it was nothing more than harmless curiosity; they wanted to discover by what means he held communication with the Natts, the supernatural and invisible agents of the air.

The reputation which the Bengal draughtsman belonging to the deputation had acquired by his botanical drawings, having come to the knowledge of his Birman majesty, or, in the Birman phrase, having reached the Golden Ears, the king was pleased to desire a specimen of his skill, and sent a painting on glass, executed by a Siamese artist in his own service, signifying his royal will that it should be copied upon paper. This picture, which was a tolerable performance, represented the mode of catching wild elephants in the forests. It was thus described: The hunters, mounted on tame elephants that are trained to the business, by lying flat on their backs, introduce themselves unnoticed into a wild herd, and take an opportunity to cast a running noose in the track of the one that is meant to be secured. The other end of the rope is fastened to the body of the tame elephant, who immediately throws the wild one down; a battle then ensues, in which the trained elephant, being assisted by its associates, soon overpowers the inhabitant of the woods, who is deserted by all the others; it is afterwards borne away a prisoner

ast bound by two of its captors, whilst another moves on at its head, and a fourth urges it behind. In a few weeks, by proper discipline, the animal becomes docile, and submits to its fate. Those that are taken in this manner are for the most part females. Male elephants are usually noticed by the blandishments of the females, trained for the purpose, into an inclosure or Kepdah, from whence they cannot extricate themselves, and are easily secured.

When a public minister is delegated from a foreign power to the Birman court, it is the established custom for the Maywoon, or governor of the frontier province which the minister first enters, to provide for his conveyance to the capital, and to attend to his convenience so long as he continues to reside in the country; a service which he is frequently obliged to perform in person.

As the time approached that was appointed for our public entry into Ummerapoora, says Colonel Symes, which as yet we had only viewed from our residence on the opposite bank of the lake, I judged it proper to make some enquiry respecting the ceremonials usually observed an such occasions, and the exterior forms of homage that would be required. I wished also to ascertain the relative degree of rank that would be given to the agent of the Governor General of India; and as I was officially given to understand that the Chinese deputies were to be introduced on the same day, I urged my right to precedence, on the thorough persuasion that they did not constitute an imperial embassy, but were merely provincial legation, although probably sanctioned by the monarch of China. The necessity of ascertaining these points became evident, from the scrupulous regard to external forms which the Birmans manifested upon every occasion. The Colonel was informed that he should be allowed parity of rank with the nobility of the court, and that precedence over the Chinese deputies would be granted to him.

On the 29th of August, the day preceding that on which the deputation was to be formally introduced, the Colonel received a message, desiring to know what number of attendants he meant to take with him, and to specify the rank they bore, particularly that of the pundit, the moonshee, and the painter. He was at the same time acquainted, that it was not customary to admit armed men into the palace. Late in the evening he received another message, informing him, that the profession of Dr. Buchanan was held by the Birmans in a less dignified estimation, than it bore among Europeans; and that it was unusual, on such solemn occasions, to receive a person of his station into the Lotoo, or great council hall. He endeavoured to vindicate the liberal and enlightened profession of medicine; and the difficulty was at length overcome. They agreed to receive the doctor, but stipulated that he should ride on horseback in the procession, and not be indulged with an elephant, a privilege which, they said, was granted only to persons of the highest consequence.

Preparatory to their visit, the presents intended for his Birman majesty were carefully assorted, and put into separate boxes. The next day, (the 30th) they took an early breakfast, and the Seree-dogee, or secretary of the Lotoo, acquainted them that boats were prepared to convey them across the lake. The presents having been sent before, they walked to the water side, attended by Baba Sheen, the Seree-dogee, and several inferior officers. Three war-boats were ready at the bank to receive them: the largest was of fifty oars. In about twenty minutes they crossed the lake, where three elephants and several horses were waiting to convey them, and some Birman officers of inferior rank attended at the bank, dressed in their robes and caps of ceremony. The furniture of the animals we were to ride was far from being superb. Men of rank in the Birman empire always guide their own elephants, and sit on the neck, in the same manner that the drivers or mohaats do in India. Owing to this custom they are unprovided with those commodious seats in which an Indian gentleman reposes at ease on the back of this noble beast, whilst the government of it is entrusted to any other person*.

The

* The procession was marshalled in the following order: Wadohgaan, or master of the ceremonies, on horseback; Miroupperee, or register of strangers, on horseback, Errounseree, or register of presents, on horseback; dressed in their official robes or caps. Soldiers that composed the escort. The elephant of the representative of the Governor-General; Mr. Wood and Dr. Buchanan on horseback; Baba Sheen, as chief interpreter. The Chinese deputies,

The procession being arranged, they commenced their march, keeping a moderate pace, so as not to distress the bearers of the presents. After proceeding a short way, they entered a wide and handsome street that was paved with brick: the houses on each side were low, built of wood, and covered with tiles; they had been evidently prepared for the occasion, being fresh whitewashed, and decorated with boughs and flowers; the shops, which are usually open towards the street, displayed their best goods. In front of each house was a slight latticed railing of bamboo, advanced into the street, to the distance of three or four feet; over this space was spread a shade of bamboo mats, that reached from the eaves of the houses to the railing, forming a sort of covered balcony, every one of which was crowded with spectators, men and women indiscriminately. They proceeded till they came to the rhoom, which was a lofty hall, raised four or five feet from the ground, and open on all sides: it was situated about a hundred yards from the gate of the palace court, in the centre of a spacious area. Putting off their shoes they entered the saloon, and sat down on carpets, that were spread for them, with their faces towards the palace gate. The presents intended for his Birman majesty were here deposited. They were delayed in the rhoom for two hours, till the arrival of the royal family, who came with numerous and splendid attendants. A few minutes after the Engy Tekien, or prince royal, had entered, they received a summons, in compliance with which they proceeded from the rhoom, observing the same order as before; the presents carried in front, and the members of the Chinese embassy following the English deputation. As they proceeded, the Sandohgaan was exceedingly troublesome, by calling on them to make frequent superfluous obeisances, whilst his manner of requiring them was conspicuously uncivil. The Colonel checked his insolence by observing, through Baba Sheen, that if the Sandohgaan wished him to proceed, he must alter his tone and demeanour. This reproof, however, had only a momentary effect: he soon resumed his arrogant behaviour, which he repeated throughout the day whenever opportunity offered. On approaching the gate the greater part of the attendants belonging to the English deputation were stopped, and not permitted to follow them; but the gentlemen of the embassy were requested to put off their shoes, which, of course, they immediately complied with.

The area is spacious, and contains the Lotoo or grand hall of consultation and audience, where the Woongees met in council, and where affairs of state are discussed and determined. Within this inclosure there is an inner court, separated by a brick wall, which comprehends the palace and all the buildings annexed to the royal residence. They ascended a flight of stairs, when is a noble saloon, or open hall, called the Lotoo where the court was assembled in all the splendor that Birman pomp and grandeur could display. On entering this hall a stranger cannot fail to be surprized at the magnificence of its appearance; it is supported by seventy-seven pillars disposed in eleven rows, each consisting of seven. The space between the pillars is about twelve feet, except the central row, which is two feet wider. The roof of the building is composed of distinct stages, the highest in the centre. At the farther part of the hall is a high gilded lattice extending quite across the building, and in the centre of the lattice is a gilded door, which, when opened, displays the throne; this door is elevated five or six feet from the floor, so that the throne must be ascended by means of steps at the back which are not visible, nor is the seat of the throne to be seen, except when the king comes in person to the Lotoo. At the bottom of the lattice there is a gilt balustrade, three or four feet high, on which the umbrellas and other insignia of state were deposited. The royal colour is white, and the umbrellas were made of silk of that colour richly bespangled with gold. Within this magnificent saloon were seated, on their inverted feet, all the princes and principal nobility of the Birman empire, each person in the place appropriated to his particular rank and station; proximity to the throne is, of course, the most honourable station; which was occupied by the princes of the blood, the Woongees, the Ata-

deputies, on elephants, preceded by their servants, bearing flags. A Woondock, or second counsellor of state. Two Terrezogees, or officers who hold judiciary stations. The servants of the embassy walked on each side, two by two, and a number of constables attended, with long white rods to keep off the populace.

woons, and other great officers of state. The Engy Teekien (or heir apparent) sat on a small stool, about six inches high; the other princes on fine mats. The space between the central pillars that front the throne is always left vacant, for this curious reason, that his majesty's eyes may not be obliged to behold those whom he does not mean to honour with a look.

After we had taken possession of mats that had been spread for us, says Colonel Symes, it was civilly intimated, that we ought not to protrude the soles of our feet towards the seat of majesty, but should endeavour to sit in the posture that was observed by those around us. With this desire we would have readily complied, if it had been in our power, but we had not yet learned to sit upon our legs. The flexibility of muscles which the Birmans, and indeed all the natives of India, possess, is such as cannot be acquired by Europeans. A Birman, when he sits, seldom touches the seat with his posteriors, but is supported by his heels. It is scarcely practicable for an European, dressed in close garments, to place himself in such an attitude; and if he were able, it would be out of his power to continue long in it. We inverted our legs as much as possible, and the awkwardness with which we did this excited a smile from some; not a word, however, was uttered, and our endeavours seemed to give satisfaction. Eight Bramins in white sacerdotal gowns, and silk caps of the same colours, studded with gold, assembled round the foot of the throne, within the balustrade, and recited a long prayer in not unpleasing recitative; this ceremony lasted a quarter of an hour. When they had withdrawn, the letter from the Governor-General, which Colonel Symes delivered to a Woondock, was placed on a silver tray in front of the railing, and a Sandohgaan, or reader, advanced into the vacant space, and made three prostrations, touching the ground each time with his forehead: he then read, or rather chanted, in a loud voice, a Birman translation of the letter. When this was done, he repeated his prostrations, and next proclaimed a list of the presents for the king. These several readings being finished, he repeated his obeisances and retired. After an interval of a few minutes, an officer, entitled Lakhaangee, advanced, and proposed a question to the Colonel, as if from his majesty; on receiving an answer he withdrew, as it might be supposed to communicate the reply; and returned in an adequate time to ask another: thus he put three separate questions, which were as follow: "You come from a distant country; how long is it since you arrived? How were the king, queen, and royal family of England, when the last accounts came from thence? Was England at peace or war with other nations? and was your country in a state of disturbance?" To these questions the Colonel returned satisfactory answers. In a few minutes after his last reply had been conveyed, a very handsome desert was set before the deputation, which consisted of a variety of sweetmeats. There appeared to be not less than a hundred different small fishes: they tasted of a few, and found some of them very palatable. About half an hour afterwards they were informed by the Sandohgaan that there was no occasion for them to remain any longer. When they rose to leave the Lotoo, (his Birman majesty not being present,) the Sandohgaan desired them to make three obeisances to the throne, by a slight inclination of the body and raising the right hand to the head. They were then reconducted to the saloon, where they were informed it was necessary they should remain till the princes came forth from the palace, and had got upon their elephants, as their etiquette did not allow any person, on such occasions, to mount before the members of the royal family. They accordingly took their places in the hall as before; and shortly afterwards the court broke up with as much form and parade as it had assembled; although it differed in some particulars.

With a people less attentive to punctilio, or less regardless of the privileges and external indications of rank, I should certainly (says the Colonel) not have considered it necessary to controvert matters of no intrinsic value in themselves, but which, when intended to produce an effect on the minds of those who can only judge from appearances, become, to a person in a public capacity, of real importance. Every occurrence of this day, and every object that presented itself, evinced the previous care that had been bestowed on the minutest points of etiquette: the utmost splendour of the court had been displayed on the occasion; and I was credibly informed, that the non-appearance of his majesty was neither customary when a foreign minister from a sovereign state was to be introduced, nor owing to any accidental

cidental prevention: but that it was a matter predetermined, in order to afford a pretext for spreading abroad that the representative of the English nation had delivered his dispatches, and rendered tribute, (for so they denominated the presents,) without being honoured with an interview of their king. These apparent indications of arrogance, which were not diminished by the unworthy artifice of making me believe that his majesty was to have received in person the letter from the Governor General, as coming from a sovereign and an equal power, gave me reasonable grounds to be dissatisfied with the manner in which the ceremonials had been conducted, and made me suspect the real light in which it was the wish of the court that I should be considered. As nothing degrading to my public character, however, had yet been avowed, I refrained from any formal declaration of my sentiments till subsequent circumstances confirmed my conjectures, and rendered an explanation unavoidable. Every thing being satisfactorily explained, the answer of his Birman majesty was at length received; by which it appeared, that several advantages were granted to the English; and it was apprehended, that by the intercourse likely to take place between British India and the Birman nation great benefit would accrue to the English.

Having settled every thing relative to the mission, and received the presents for the Governor-General, the deputation arranged matters for their departure, and accordingly returned to Bengal.

Timber for maritime purposes is the only article the Birman empire produces of which we stand in indispensable need, and to promote or encourage the culture and exportation of those commodities which form the valuable staples of British India, almost all of which the kingdom of Ava is capable of yielding, would operate to the manifest injury of our own provinces. We require, and should seek for nothing more than a mart for our manufactured goods, and, in return, to bring back their unwrought materials; interference in any other shape, appears to be impolitic, and likely, in the end, to prove prejudicial to ourselves.

END OF SYMES'S EMBASSY TO AVA.

OBSERVATIO

OBSERVATIONS

MADE ON A TOUR FROM

BENGAL TO PERSIA,

In the Years 1786-7.

WITH A SHORT ACCOUNT OF THE REMAINS OF THE CELEBRATED

PALACE OF PERSEPOLIS.

BY WILLIAM FRANKLIN,

Ensign on the Honourable Company's Bengal Establishment.

SECTION I.

Embarkation from Calcutta—Description of Point de Galle—Anjengo—Cocheen—Tellicherry—Goa—Tomb of Xaviere—Bombay described—Muscat—Abu Shehr—Journey to Shirauz—Description of Shirauz; Tomb of Hafiz; Rocknabad; Mosellay; Tomb of Sadi; remarkable Channel—Marriages of the Persians—Christenings, or naming of Children in Persia—Funerals of the Persians—Price of Blood—Police at Shirauz—Persian Festivals—Fruits of Shirauz—Breed of Horses—Manufactures and Trade—Climate—Character of the Modern Persians—Women of Shirauz—Superstition of the Persians; their Talismans; Manner of charming Scorpions—Mode of Living.

ON the 27th of February 1786, Ensign Franklin embarked at Calcutta on board the ship Yarmouth, Captain Greenly commander, for Bombay, in his way to Persia; and on the 24th of March arrived at Point de Galle, which is a small fort, situated on the south-west side of the island of Ceylon. The inhabitants, excepting the Dutch, are a mixture of Malabars and native Portuguese; but great numbers of the latter, especially of the lower class of people. The living here is very cheap, but there is little trade. Topazes, amethysts, and other precious stones, are found on the island of Ceylon, and brought here for sale; but it is dangerous to purchase them, when set, without being skilled in those commodities; the people who sell them being very expert in making the false stones appear like true ones, by colouring them at the bottom. No kind of spice, nutmegs, or any other rarities for which this island is so celebrated, are to be met with at this place. The harbour is circular; at the entrance of it lie many rocks, just above the surface of the water, which make it dangerous for strange ships to go in, without a pilot; the waves beat with amazing violence against the fortifications. Along, and almost all around the harbour, are the country-houses of the inhabitants, which have a pleasing effect; the road to these, by land, is through a grove of cocoa-nut trees, which forms an agreeable shade. However, this place must be very unhealthy, as high hills lie close behind the houses, and exhale noxious vapour both morning and evening, which make it precarious to the inhabitants in point of health; they are in general sickly, but particularly Europeans*. Fish is to be had here in great plenty; poultry of all kinds is very scarce; the fruits are chiefly plantains, pine apples, and

* I observed, (says the Ensign,) in the course of a few hours' stay on shore, several people whose legs were swelled in a most extraordinary manner; this the natives account for, from the badness of the water, and the vapours which arise from the adjoining hills. I have heard that the inhabitants of Malacca are liable to the same disease, and similar causes.

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pumpie noses; the cocoa nuts are also in great plenty and very good; the bread is tolerable, but the butter execrable, it being little better than train oil.

On the 29th saw the land a little to the eastward of Cape Cormorin, and on the 31st of March came to anchor in the roads of Anjengo, which is a small fort and English residency, the first that you arrive at upon the Malabar coast from Cape Cormorin: the inhabitants are Malabars and native Portuguese, mixed. It is reported to be one of the first places in India for intelligence, and the English have received great service from it in that respect during the American war. At Anjengo there is a post to several parts of India; this is but lately established.

On the 9th of April, came to anchor in Cocheen roads, and went on shore immediately. Cocheen is very populous, and a place of great trade; the inhabitants are a mixture of a variety of Eastern nations, being composed of Malabars, Armenians, Persians, Arabians, Jews, Indians, and native Portuguese. The Jews occupy a whole village, a little to the westward of the town; they live separate from the rest of the inhabitants: the Ensign went into several of their houses, and could not help observing, in this people, a striking peculiarity of features, different from any he had ever seen; a resemblance seemed to run through the whole, as if they were all of one family: they seldom or ever marry out of their own tribe, by which the likeness is preserved, from father to son, for a long time. The same similarity of features is to be observed amongst the Jews of Amsterdam in Holland, and other parts of Europe. This certainly serves to distinguish them more as an original people than any other. They have a good synagogue here, and are less oppressed, and have more liberty, than in most other parts of the East. The rajah of Cocheen resides here, but lives in an indifferent state. He is a Gentoo. Cocheen, in former times, was a place of considerable celebrity, and was one of the places pitched upon by the first Portuguese settlers in the East, after the discovery of the passage round the Cape of Good Hope by Vasco de Gama; but that people have now very little left of the vast wealth and power they formerly enjoyed; a revolution of three centuries has reduced them below mediocrity in the general scale of European adventurers. The fort is a very large one, and very well fortified on the land side; towards the sea not so well, but it is secured by a very dangerous bar, which will not admit of ships coming nearer the shore than three or four miles. Provisions of every kind are to be had here in the greatest plenty.

The 10th, sailed; and on the 15th, came to anchor in Tellicherry roads. Among other places which he saw in and about Tellicherry, he had a view of the fortifications, or rather of the regular lines drawn round Tellicherry, for the defence of the place. These lines are exceedingly strong; they take in a space of about three miles and a half in circumference, and are well defended by batteries and redoubts; a river runs parallel to the western angle, which breaking off from thence runs among the hills*. The lines in some parts appear rather out of order as they have not been thoroughly repaired since the siege of the place. The garrison of Tellicherry consists generally, in time of peace, of one battalion of sepoys, a company of artillery and sometimes a company of European infantry; they are also able to raise about three thousand native militia. The view of the country around Tellicherry is very pleasant, consisting of irregular hills and vallies. Tellicherry is esteemed by all who reside there, to be one of the healthiest places in India, Europeans seldom dying there; it is also much resorted to by convalescents: the sea produces plenty of fine oysters, and provisions of all kinds are to be had in abundance. Here in the Company's garden, is the pepper vine which grows in a curious manner, and something similar to the grape; the pepper on it, when to gather, appears in small bunches; it is in size something larger than the head of a small pea

* Here the English troops sustained a severe siege for several years, against the army of Hyder, under the command of Sadik Khan; however, on the arrival of Major Abingdon with a reinforcement from the Bombay settlement, the garrison made a most spirited and successful sally, in which, having defeated the enemy and killed great numbers of them, they at length compelled them to raise the siege; obtaining, at the same time, a considerable booty of horses, tents, and elephants. The General of the enemy was dangerously wounded and taken prisoner, and died a few days after, of that and a broken heart, at Tellicherry. He lies buried close to the fort of Tellicherry; a tomb has been erected to him, in which lamps are continually burned which many Mussulmen visit out of respect to the memory of the deceased.

the pepper, however, for the Company's ships' cargoes, is brought from some distance in the country. Tellicherry also produces the coffee tree.

On the 29th, anchored in the roads of Goa, off the Fort Alguarda. Goa is a large city, and was once populous; it is the capital of the Portuguese settlements on this side the Cape of Good Hope; it is the residence of a Captain-General sent from Portugal, who lives in great splendour. The city stands upon the banks of a river of the same name, about twelve miles distance from the entrance of the harbour: the view up this river is truly delightful, the banks on either side are adorned with churches, and country-seats of the Portuguese, interspersed with groves and vallies; the river has several pleasing openings as it winds along, its banks are low, but the hills behind rise to an amazing height, and add grandeur to the spectacle. The city of Goa itself is adorned with many fine churches, magnificently decorated; and has several handsome convents; the church of Saint Augustine is a noble structure, and is adorned in the inside by many fine pictures; it stands on the top of a hill, from whence is an extensive view of the city and adjacent country: it is a circumstance that has always been observed, and very justly, that the Portuguese have ever chosen the spots for their convents and churches in the most delightful situations. The body of this church is spacious, and the grand altar-piece finished in the most elegant style. The building of the choir is of Gothic architecture, and therefore of antiquity. This church has a convent adjoining to it, in which live a set of religious monks, of the order of St. Augustine. Adjoining to this church is a convent of religious women, who have taken the veil, and are therefore prohibited from all kind of intercourse with the world: these chiefly consist of the daughters and nieces of the Portuguese inhabitants of the place; and a sum of money is generally given with them, on their entrance into the convent. A little lower, on the declivity of the hill, stands another church, dedicated to the Bon Jesus, in which is the chapel of Saint Francisco de Xaviere, whose tomb it contains*. On the sides of this chapel are excellent paintings, done by Italian masters; the subjects chiefly from scripture. In the valley below is another convent for young ladies who have not taken the veil; out of this convent the Portuguese and others who go there may marry: some of the ladies have small portions, others none.

The Captain-General of Goa is also Commander in Chief of all the Portuguese forces in the East Indies. Goa is at present on the decline, and in little or no estimation with the country powers; indeed their bigotry and superstitious attachment to their faith is so general, that the inhabitants, formerly populous, are now reduced to a few thinly inhabited villages; the chief part of whom have been baptized; for they will not suffer any Mussulman or Gentoo to live within the precincts of the city; and these few are unable to carry on the husbandry or manufactures of the country. The court of Portugal is obliged to send out annually a large sum of money, to defray the current expences of the government; which money is generally swallowed up by the convents and soldiery. There was formerly an inquisition at this place, but it is now abolished; the building still remains, and by its black outside appears a fit emblem of the cruel and bloody transactions that passed within its walls! Provisions are to be had at this place in great plenty and perfection; the Captain-General lives in great state.

May 13th, saw the light-house at Bombay; the island of which name is in the possession of the English East India Company; it is situated on the coast of Conkan, in lat. nineteen degrees North, and long. seventy-two degrees thirty-eight minutes East; it was granted, as part of the marriage portion with the infanta of Portugal, to Charles II. The harbour is capable of containing three hundred sail of ships, with the greatest safety: there is also a most excellent dock, in which ships of his Majesty's squadron, and others, are repaired, refitted, and completely equipped for sea. They build also here all sorts of vessels; and the workmen in the yard are very

* This chapel is a most superb and magnificent place; the tomb of the saint is entirely of fine black marble, brought from Lisbon; on the four sides of it the principal actions of the life of the Saint are most elegantly carved in basso relievo; these represent his converting the different nations to the Catholic faith; the figures are done to the life, and most admirably executed: it extends to the top in a pyramidical form, which terminates with a coronet of mother-of-pearl.

ingenious and dexterous, not yielding to our best ship-wrights in England. This island is very beautiful, and as populous for its size as any in the world; merchants and others coming to settle here from the different parts of the Deckan, Malabar, and Coromandel; as well as the Guzerat country: amongst those of the latter place, are many Parsee families; these are descended from the remains of the ancient Guebres, or worshippers of fire: most of the country merchants, as well as the menial servants of the island, are of this faith. They are very rich, and have in their hands the management of all mercantile affairs. Their religion is much corrupted from the ancient worship; they acknowledge that several Hindoo forms and ceremonies have crept in amongst them, probably in compliance to the natives, in order to conciliate their affections*. The island of Bombay is about eight miles in length, and twenty in circumference: the most remarkable natural curiosity the island produces is a small fish; this fish, according to the description of a gentleman who has seen it, is in form somewhat like a muscle, about four inches long, and has upon the top of its back, and near the head, a small valve, on the opening of which you discover a liquor of a strong purple colour, which, when dropped on a piece of cloth, retains the hue. It is found chiefly in the months of September and October; and it is observed the female fish has not this valve, which distinguishes the sexes†.

The breed of sheep on this island is very indifferent, and all the necessaries of life are much dearer than in any other part of India. A work on this island is worthy of observation; it is a causeway on the southern part, about a mile in length, and forty feet in breadth, eight of which on each side are of solid stone; the remainder in the centre is filled up with earth, a cement of clay, and other materials; the whole forming such a body as will endure for many ages. This work keeps up the communication with the other parts of the island during the season of the Monsoon, which would otherwise overflow it, and cause infinite damage.

December 13th, after being detained seven months at this island, for want of a passage, he at length embarked on board an Arabian ship, bound for Bussora. There was on board an exact epitome of Asia, being a collection of Armenians, Persians, Arabians, Ethiopians, Jews, Greeks, and Indians, who created as much confusion of tongues as at the building of the tower of Babel.

On the 24th, saw Cape Rosalgate; and on the 1st of January, 1787, came to anchor in the harbour of Muscat: the entrance into this harbour is truly picturesque; it has a bold shore, with a range of high mountains extending about sixty miles in length from Cape Rosalgate (which is opposite the Scindian Gulph), to Muscat, and forms a very grand natural prospect; the ruggedness of the rocks marking very characteristically the country of Arabia. The inner harbour is guarded by two forts, very indifferently situated. Muscat itself is a place of considerable trade, as well with the Arabian and Persian Gulphs, as with Surat, Bombay, and the Coasts of Malabar and Coromandel. The town, as is usual in most Eastern countries, is badly built, and the streets very narrow; they have, however, a good and well furnished bazar, (market,) roofed at the top; the streets cross each other at right angles, and to each is allotted its particular merchandise for sale. Muscat lies in lat. twenty-three degrees fifteen minutes N. opposite to the Gulph of Ormuz, and is governed by an Imaum, or inde-

* It seems their sacred book, the Zend, which is said to have been written by their celebrated prophet Zerdusht (called by us Zoroaster) is at present only a copy of a few centuries; which must of course, invalidate its authenticity; as that prophet, according to the Persian historians, lived more than three thousand years ago; and indeed it is an indisputable fact, that what religious books were in being at the time of the Grecian conquests of that country, were carefully collected and burnt, by the express orders of Alexander, and were totally destroyed at the subsequent conquests of that country by the Saracens: at which period also happened the introduction of the Mohammedan religion. By these means their religion and language underwent a total change, the very traces of both which have long since disappeared, as is evident by the many fruitless efforts made to decypher those inscriptions still discernible on the walls of Persepolis, bearing not the least analogy to any character now existing. Hence it may be inferred, that what is now given as the ancient character and language of this celebrated people, is no more than an invention of a later date, and there remains not a probability that their real Zend will ever be known.

† It is not improbable to suppose that this fish is of the same nature as the ancient Murex or, shell fish, by which the Romans attained the art of dyeing to such perfection; and is similar to that found formerly on the coasts of Tyre.

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pendent prince, over the province of Oman, of which Muscat is the capital. This province of Oman is a part of Yemen, or Arabia Felix; the Imaum resides at a distance of two days journey inland, where he lives in splendour. The whole country round this place is one continued solid rock, without a blade of grass, or any kind of verdure to be seen; but this barrenness the natives affirm to be amply recompensed by the fertility and beauty of the inland country*. Several Gentoo merchants reside here, for the convenience of trade; also a broker on the behalf of the English East India Company; but the government will not admit of any European factory being established. The police in Muscat is excellent. Captain James Mitchell, our fellow-passenger, died, to the great grief of us all: we interred him the same day, on shore, at Muscat; a Dutch ship lying in the harbour, commanded by Captain Stewart, saluted the corpse on going on shore with nine guns, as did also an English snow, there at the same time. His funeral was as decently conducted as circumstances would admit, and every attention possible was paid to his remains.

On the 26th, we sailed for Bussora, and on the 28th of February arrived at Abu Shehr, which is a small sea-port town on the coast of Persia, and is under the government of a Sheich, who is tributary to Shirauz. The English East India Company have a factory here, but little business is carried on; caravans come frequently to this place from Shirauz, and bring the commodities of that city, which are exported to different parts of India. An opportunity offering of proceeding to Shirauz, Ensign Franklin embraced it, and accordingly determined to set out with a cafila or caravan, just then on the point of departure. On the 15th of March, he left Abu Shehr; the cafila consisted of about thirty mules, and twenty or thirty horses; these and camels being the only mode of travelling made use of in this country. The first day's march was about four fursengs, or sixteen English miles; the road in setting out lay over a barren plain, but the latter part of the way coming to some verdure, they halted at a place called Checanduck†. The 16th they travelled four fursengs, the most part in the night, and arrived about eight o'clock in the morning, near Berazgoon, a considerable and populous village, surrounded by a brick wall, and flanked with turrets; under the dominion, and dependent of, Shirauz.—Halted that day and the next, for the purpose of shoeing the horses and mules belonging to the cafila, preparatory to ascending the mountains, they were now approaching. On the 18th encamped near the village of Dowlakie, distance three fursengs. 19th, entered the narrow pass which is the road to the four mountains, and is exceedingly difficult, from the great number of loose stones. On the 20th, began to ascend the first mountain, at the distance of six fursengs, which is very high, and the road almost impassable, from the vast number of large loose stones that had fallen down on each side in the way: near two miles of the latter part of the ascent is almost perpendicular, and so very narrow as only to admit of one person or beast of burden passing at a time: the scene was truly disagreeable and even dangerous, from the steep precipices, and frequent slipping and falling of the horses and mules; the only means of safety on one side depended on a small parapet wall, about three feet high; on the other the mountain towering up into the clouds strikes the beholder with an aweful dread; a broad and rapid river runs at the bottom, which by its roaring adds to the terrific grandeur of the scene. Having attained the summit, there is a level extensive plain; which is about four fursengs, or sixteen miles, in extent; it is situated between the mountains, and abounds in game, particularly the red-legged partridge, which we saw in great abundance. A little after nine we encamped at the village of Khisht; where they began to experience a sensible alteration in the weather. At Dowlakie, in the valley below, they were almost scorched to death with heat; whereas the air on the top of this mountain, and the plain of Khisht, is very sharp and piercing; distance three fursengs. 21st,

* The reflection of the sun from these rocks must necessarily cause intense and almost insupportable heats, which during the summer season are so great, that all the natives, who are able, retire inland as soon as they commence: this, added to the fatal effects of the small-pox, for which they have no cure, being ignorant of the application of medicine, causes the people in general to be afflicted with disorders in their eyes; so much so, that you scarcely meet one person out of three, who has not visibly suffered from either of the causes above mentioned.

† The Persian furseng is the *Parasanga* of the Greeks, and is equal in measurement to nearly four English miles.

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being the Persian festival of the Nooroze, or New Year's Day, we halted*.

22d, ascended the second mountain, which is still higher than the former, but the road not so dangerous; and arrived at the village of Comarige†. This day they travelled three fursengs; on the 23d, arrived at the city of Kazeroon, distance five fursengs. On the 24th, arrived at the foot of the third mountain, situated on the confine of the plain, where the city of Kazeroon is built; distance three fursengs. 25th, began to ascend the third mountain, which although not so high and steep as the two former, yet is sufficiently so to make the ascent uneasy and difficult; a great part of the road on one side is made of masons work entirely, the materials hewn out of the mountain: it has a parapet wall of about three feet high, like the former: its ascent is winding. Arrived in four hours in a most delightful valley, by an easy and gentle descent; entirely covered with a species of the oak and birch, which being situated between two high mountains, is extremely pleasant; the air began now to be piercing cold, and the snow lay very thick on the mountain, which they were to pass the next day; proceeded on through the valley; and encamped about nine o'clock at the foot of the fourth and last mountain, in the way to Shirauz; distance travelled this day three fursengs. 26th, began to ascend the mountain, which the Persians call the Peera Zun, or the old woman, by way of distinction. This is higher than all the former, and near twelve miles in length. The view from the top is most strikingly romantic, the three preceding mountains seeming beneath your feet; the summit is covered with snow, and in many places where the rain had fallen, was ice of considerable thickness. Below, on each side, they beheld the vallies opening to the beauties of spring, well watered by running streams, the great lake on the plain of Kazeroon appearing in its full extent. By a steep descent they gained the plain below, and encamped near the village of Desterjin.—This day we travelled four fursengs and a half. 27th, arrived at the village of Khoon Zineoon; near this village runs a very pleasant river, which extends to Shirauz‡. 28th, arrived at a caravanserai in ruins, near the village of Chinar Rehadàr. This day we travelled four fursengs. 29th, arrived in safety at the city of Shirauz, the place of his destination, four fursengs.

Shirauz, the capital of Farsistàn, or Persia Proper, is situated in a valley of great extent and surprising fertility; this valley is twenty-six miles in length, and twelve in breadth, and is surrounded on all sides by very high mountains: it lies according to Mr. Niebuhr, in 29° 30′ 31″ N. about a hundred and ninety-six miles to the North-East of Abu Shehr. The purity of the air of this place has at all times been celebrated, and with great justice. The city in circumference is one furseng and sixty measured paces; the fortifications, considering the country, are tolerably good; a wall extends quite round the city, five and twenty feet high, and ten thick, with round towers at the distance of eighty paces from each other. Shirauz has a most excellent dry ditch around it, the work of the late Vakeel Kerim Khan; it is sixty feet in depth, and twenty in breadth, and would alone, exclusive of the other works, enable the city to hold out a long time against any power in Persia, where artillery is but little known, and less used. The city has six gates; each of which has an appointed guard allotted to it, of one hundred men; and four Khans or officers, who every morning and evening attend at the citadel

* In the ancient times of Persia this day used to be celebrated with great joy and festivity throughout the empire, and has since been kept as such under the Mohammedan government. The people of the cafila made themselves as merry as their circumstances would admit of; and although in general the food of these people is no more than a few dates and butter-milk, yet on this occasion, the Cheharwader, or master of the cafila, sent to the neighbouring village, and procured some mutton, which he gave to his men, and partook with them of a comfortable pilau.

† At this place the Rah Dar, or toll-gatherer, demanded *one toman* (about thirteen rupees), as a toll, although the custom for every passenger, whether European, Jew, or Armenian, is only one piastre, which is equal to one rupee. He alledged that I was a Feringy (Christian), and therefore ought to pay more. As the Ensign had no resource, I would have been obliged to comply, had not the master of the cafila opposed the imposition, and threatened to encamp on our arrival at Shirauz; on which the toll-gatherer desisted.

‡ Mr. Niebuhr has laid this down as the Rodheu, probably from the people who gave him his information calling it Rood Khoona, as that name in Persian implies stream, or river; the natives of the place mentioning it by the appellation of Rood Khoona Zineoon, or the river Zineoon.

order to pay their compliments to the Khan, or in his absence to the Beglerbeg. It is the duty of these guards to prevent all persons departing from the city who have not permission so to do; and if any person noxious to government, escapes, the officer's head answers for it. The gates of the city are shut at sunset, and opened at sunrise, during which periods no person is permitted to pass in or out.

Within the city, at the upper end, nearest to the gate Bàg Shàh, stands the Citadel, which is built of burnt brick, and is a square of eighty yards circumference, flanked with round towers, and encompassed with a dry fosse of the same breadth and depth as that of the city; this is called by the Persians the Ark, and is also the work of Kerim Khan; it also serves occasionally as a state prison*. Opposite to the citadel, in a large handsome square, is a gallery where the Khan's music, consisting of trumpets, kettle drums, and other instruments, plays regularly at sunrise and sunset. When the Khan is in camp, or on a journey, these are always placed in a tent near him: one side of this square leads to the Dewàn Khàn, or chamber of audience, and the other opens into a street which leads to the great mosque. The Dewàn Khàna is a very handsome building, situated at the upper end of a large garden, to which you are conducted through an avenue, planted on each side with the Persian Chinar tree, a species of the sycamore. The chamber of audience is a large building, of an oblong form, with an open front; the inside, about one-third up the wall, is lined with white marble from Tauris, and the ceiling and other parts are ornamented with a beautiful gold enamelled work, in imitation of the Lapis Lazuli: there are several pictures in it; some of which are tolerably well executed. In front there are three handsome fountains, with stone basons, which are constantly playing. In the great square before the Citadel is the Tope Khàna, or park of artillery; it consists of several pieces of cannon mounted on bad carriages, most of the guns (which are Spanish and Portuguese, excepting two English twenty-four pounders) are so dreadfully honeycombed, that they would certainly burst on the first discharge.

Shirauz has many good bazars and caravanserais: that distinguished by the appellation of the Vakeel's bazar is a long street, extending about a quarter of a mile, built entirely of brick, and roofed something in the style of the Piazzas in Covent Garden; it is lofty and well-made; on each side are the shops of the tradesmen, merchants, and others, in which are exposed for sale a variety of goods of all kinds: these shops are the property of the Khan, and are rented to the merchants at a very easy monthly rate. Leading out of this bazar is a spacious caravanserai, of an octagonal form, built of brick; the entrance through a handsome arched gate-way: in the centre is a place for the baggage and merchandise, and on the sides above and below commodious apartments for the merchants and travellers; these are also rented at a moderate monthly sum. About the centre of the above-mentioned bazar is another spacious caravanserai, of a square form, the front of which is ornamented with a blue and white enamelled work, in order to represent China ware, and has a pleasing effect to the eye. This building is larger than the former, and is chiefly resorted to by Armenian and other Christian merchants; there are besides separate bazars in Shirauz, for the different companies of artificers, such as goldsmiths, workers of tin, dyers, carpenters, joiners, hatters, and shoemakers; these consist of long streets, built very regularly, and roofed.

The Jews have a quarter of the city allotted to themselves, for which they pay a considerable tax to government, and are obliged to make frequent presents: these people are more odious to the Persians than those of any other faith; and every opportunity is taken to oppress and extort money from them; the very boys in the street being accustomed to beat and insult them, of which treatment they dare not complain. The Indians have a caravanserai allowed them in another quarter of the city, for which they are also under contribution. There is a mint at Shirauz where money is coined, the process of which is very simple, like most in other places of the East, the gold or silver being laid in a dye fitted for the purpose, and struck with a large hammer, which completes the operation. Here also the

* At the door of the Ark is a painting, done in very lively colours, representing the combat between the celebrated Persian hero Rostum, and Doove Sifeed, or the White Demon. The story is taken from Ferdausi's Shah Nameh, and the figures are at full length, but ill-proportioned.

public Seràfs (or money changers) set and regulate the exchange of gold and silver.

Shirauz is adorned with many fine mosques, particularly that built by the late Kerim Khan, which is a noble one: being very well disguised in a Persian dress, the Ensign had an opportunity of entering the building unobserved; it is of a square form; in the centre is a stone reservoir of water, made for performing the necessary ablutions or washings, previous to prayer; on the four sides of the building are arched apartments allotted for devotions, some of the fronts of which are covered with China tiles; but Kerim Khan dying before the work was completed, the remainder has been made up with a blue and white enamelled work of the kind before described. Within the apartments, on the walls, on each side, are engraved various sentences from the Koràn, in the Niskhi character; and at the upper end of the square, is a large dome with a cupola at top, which is the particular place appropriated for the devotion of the Vakeel; this is lined throughout with white marble, ornamented with the curious blue and gold artificial lapis lazuli, and has three large silver lamps suspended from the roof of the dome: here mullahs or priests are constantly employed in reading the Koran. This mosque has very good detached apartments, with places for ablutions and other religious ceremonies; at a little distance, on the outside, the late Vakeel had laid the foundation for a range of very handsome buildings, which he designed to have been occupied by mullahs, dervishes, and other religious men; but, dying before the work was brought to perfection, the troubles in Persia since that period have prevented any other persons from finishing them, and in this imperfect state they remain at present; much to be regretted, as it would have added greatly to the beauty of the whole. In the centre of the city is another mosque, which the Persians call the Musjidi Noò, or the new mosque; but its date is nearly coëval with the city itself, at least since it has been inhabited by Mohammedans: it is a square building of a noble size, and has apartments for prayer on each side; in them are many inscriptions in the old Cufic character, which of themselves denote the antiquity of the place; in the centre of the square is a large terrace, on which the Persians perform their devotions, both morning and evening; this terrace is capable of containing upwards of two hundred persons, and is built of stone, raised two feet and a half high from the ground; there are here two very large cypress trees of an extraordinary height, which the Persians affirm to have stood the amazing length of six hundred years: they are called Aàshuk Maàshùka, or the lover and his mistress, and are held by the people in great veneration. The mosque has a garden adjoining to it, and places necessary for performing ablutions.—In another quarter of the city is a square building of a very large size, formerly a college of considerable note, where the arts and sciences were taught; but it is now decaying very fast: at present it goes by the name of Mudrussa Khan, or the Khan's college, but literature and the sciences have long since been neglected at Shirauz.

There are places in Shirauz, distinguished by the name of Zoòr Khàna, the house of strength or exercise; to which the Persians resort for the sake of exercising themselves. These houses consist of one room, with the floor sunk about two feet below the surface of the earth, and the light and air are admitted to the apartment by means of small perforated apertures made in the dome. In the centre is a large square terrace of earth well beaten down, smooth, and even; and on each side are small alcoves raised about two feet above the terrace, where the musicians and spectators are seated. When all the competitors are assembled, which is on every Friday morning by day-break, they immediately strip themselves to the waist; on which each man puts on a pair of thick woollen drawers, and takes in his hand two wooden clubs of about a foot and a half in length, and cut in the shape of a pear; these they rest upon each shoulder, and the music striking up, they move them backwards and forwards with great agility, stamping with their feet at the same time, and straining every nerve, till they produce a profuse perspiration. After continuing this exercise about half an hour, the master of the house, who is always one of them, and distinguished by the appellation of Pehlwaun or wrestler, makes a signal, upon which they all leave off, quit their clubs, and, joining hands in a circle, begin to move their feet very briskly in unison with the music, which is all the while playing a lively tune. Having continued this for a considerable time, they commence wrestling, but before the trial of skill in this art begins, they

master of the house addresses the company in a particular speech, in part of which he informs the candidates, that as they are all met in good fellowship, so ought they to depart, and that in the contest they are about entering into, they should have no malice or ill-will in their hearts; it being only an honourable emulation, and trial of strength, in which they are going to exert themselves, and not a contentious brawl; he therefore cautions them to proceed in good humour and concord: this speech is loudly applauded by the whole assembly. The wrestlers then turn to their diversion, in which the master of the house is always the challenger; and, being accustomed to the exercise, generally proves conqueror, by throwing each of the company two or three times successively. The spectators pay each a Shahee, in money, equal to three-pence English, for which they are refreshed during the diversion with a calean and coffee. This mode of exercise bears some resemblance to the gymnastic exercises of the ancients.

The baths in Persia are very commodious, and well worthy the attention of a stranger; they generally consist of two large apartments, one of which furnishes an accommodation for undressing, the other is the bath; on the sides of the first are benches of stone, raised two feet from the ground on which are spread mats and carpets, where the bathers sit to undress, and from thence they proceed to the bath through a long narrow passage. The bath is a large room of an octagon form, with a cupola at top, through which the light and air are admitted; on the sides of this room are small platforms of wood raised above a foot from the ground, on which the people who enter the bathe perform their devotions, a ceremony the Persians always previously observe: at the upper end of the room is a large bason or reservoir of water, built of stone, well heated by means of stoves made at the bottom, with iron gratings over them; and adjoining is another reservoir of cold water, of either of which the bather has his choice. When he comes out of the hot bath, which is generally in the space of ten or twelve minutes, the people of the house stand ready to perform the operation of rubbing, and to effect this he is laid at full length on his back, with a pillow to support his head; a brush made of camel's hair is then used, which completely rubs off all the dirt the body has contracted. After rubbing some time, they rinse the whole body with several basons of warm water, and the person is reconducted to the dressing apartment, where he shifts and dresses at leisure, receiving a calean to smoke. The Persians are much more scrupulous than any other Eastern nation in permitting foreigners to go into their baths, which if attempted with their knowledge, they prevent.

During the spring, the baths in Persia are decorated in great finery, a custom distinguished by the natives under the name of Gul Reàzee (or the scattering of roses), from the vast quantity of those flowers strewed in the apartments; this ceremony continues a week or ten days, during which time the guests are entertained with music, dancing, coffee, sherbet, &c. and the dressing apartment is decked out with paintings, looking-glasses, streamers, and other ornaments, at the expence of the master of the humaùm, who compliments his customers on the occasion, though a small present is generally made by them to the musicians. The baths are used alternately by men and women every other day, but each sex generally use them once a week, or in every ten days at farthest.

The bath built by Kerim Khan is particularly beautiful; it has for the outer apartment a large handsome octagon, to which a light is conveyed from the top. To this bath none are admitted but those of a higher rank, it being chiefly used by the principal Khàns, or officers of the army, and their families.

In the centre of the city, adjoining to the Musjidi Noò is a very large building called the Shàh Cheraùg, or the king's lamp; it is considered as a place of the greatest sanctity about Shirauz, being the mausoleum of the brother of one of their Imaums, or heads of the faith; this place is of considerable antiquity, nor is the exact date of its foundation ascertained; but by an extract from the chronicles of the place, it appears to have been repaired by the celebrated Prince Azzud ud Dowlàh Deilemeè, of the family of Buyàh, who was Emeer ul Omrah to one of the Khaliphs of the house of Abbàs, and was a prince of great abilities, learning, and piety. He reigned in the fourth century of the Mohammedan Hejira. This building was formerly magnificent, but is now going to ruin. The last person who repaired it was Kerim Khàn, who gave it a complete new covering, but since his time it has been neglected, and has suffered much by rain and other accidents, owing to the very

very great age of the building; which is about nine hundred years: however, there are at present some of the Imaùm Zàdas, or descendants from their Imaùms, residing in it, who are supported by the remains of the former ample revenues of the place.

The tomb of the celebrated and deservedly admired Hafiz, one of the most famous of the Persian poets, stands about two miles distant from the city walls, on the North East side, and nearest the gate Shàh Meerzà Hamzà. Here the late Vakeel Kerim Khàn has erected a most elegant Ivàn or hall, with apartments adjoining: this building is executed in the same style as the Dewan Khàna, nor has any cost been spared to render it agreeable: it stands in the middle of a large garden; in front of the apartments is a stone reservoir, in the centre of which is a fountain. In the garden are many cypress trees of extraordinary size and beauty, as well as of great antiquity. Under the shade of these trees is the tomb of the poet Mohammed Shems ùd deen Hàfiz, of fine white marble from Tauris, eight feet long and four broad: this was built by order of Kerim Khan, and covers the original one*. The principal youth of the city assemble here, and shew every possible mark of respect for their favourite poet, making plentiful libations of the delicious wine of Shirauz to his memory. Close by the garden runs the stream of Roknabad, so celebrated in the works of Hafiz; this, however, is now dwindled into a small rivulet, which takes its source from the mountains to the N. E. This water is clear and sweet, and in that respect deserves the fame it has obtained; it is held in great estimation by the modern Persians, who attribute medicinal qualities to it.

The celebrated bower of Mosellày is situated a quarter of a mile to the westward of the tomb, but is entirely in ruins, no trace or vestige remaining of that pleasantness which you are taught to expect on perusing the works of Hafiz; yet one may judge by the situation, which is really a delightful one, that it might formerly have been agreeable. At present the country round about is rugged and barren, and now serves as a place for celebrating the Mohammedan festival of the Ide Korbàn, or the ceremonies which are observed on that day, in commemoration of Abraham's offering up his son Isaac, whom they call Ismael.

A little to the northward of Hafiz's tomb, is a magnificent building, called by the Persians Heft Tun, or the Seven Bodies, on account of seven Dervishes or religious men, who coming from a great distance to reside in this country, took up their abode on the spot where the above building is erected, and there remained until they all died, each burying the other successively, until the only survivor, who was interred by the neighbours upon this spot, and in memory of which event Kerim Khan erected a beautiful hall, with adjoining apartments†. Before the hall is a handsome stone reservoir, where the Persians observe their ablutions previous to their performing their devotions near the graves of the seven Dervishes (each of which have handsome tomb-stones over them), in a spot of ground allotted for that purpose.

On a parallel line with Heft Tun, about three quarters of a mile distant, is the garden D Gushai, so called from the pleasantness of its situation, signifying in Persian, *heart-expanding*; it is situated at the foot of a high mountain, o

* On the top and sides of the tomb are select pieces from the poet's own works, most beautifully cut in the Persian Nustaàleek character. During the spring and summer seasons, the inhabitants visit here, and amuse themselves with smoking, playing at chess, and other games, reading also the works of Hafiz, who is in greater esteem with them than any other of their poets, and they venerate him almost to adoration, never speaking of him but in the highest terms of rapture and enthusiasm: a most elegant copy of his works is kept upon the tomb for the purpose, and the inspection of all who go there.

† This hall is twenty-seven feet by eighteen, and forty feet high; one-third of the height of the hall is lined with white marble from Tauris, and the rest and the cieling are ornamented with blue and gold enamel: it is built on the same plan as those of Hafiz and the Dewàn Khàna, and is really a noble building. It has also some tolerable paintin executed in the Persian style, amongst which is one Abraham's offering up his son Isaac, with the angel d scending; and ano of Moses, when a boy, tending flocks of his father-in-law Jethro. Over the doors of t hall are placed the portraits of the two celebrated p Hafiz and Sàdi, done at full length: that of Hafiz hab in the old Persian dress. He is painted with a fresh c complexion, and a very large pair of whiskers, and in picture appears to be about six and thirty years of age; other, of Sheikh Sàdi, is the figure of a venerable old m with a long beard turned white by age, dressed in a religi dress, with long flowing robes, in his right hand holdin small crooked ivory staff, and in the other a charger of scene.

of which issues a stream of clear fresh water, for the reception of which there has been made a succession of stone basons, so fashioned as to make the water fall down from one to the other, after the manner of a cascade, and at about sixty paces distant from each other; these forming separate falls, have a pleasing effect to the eye. In the centre is a summer-house, built of stone, through which the water runs by means of a stone channel: in this place the Persians sit and amuse themselves, smoking and playing at games of chance, and regale themselves with what they may have brought from the city. This garden is, upon the whole, extremely agreeable, the water clear and cold, and the air delightfully mild and refreshing.

A mile to the eastward of Dil Gushaìe, is the tomb of the celebrated Sheikh Sàdi aforementioned, situated at the foot of the mountains that bound Shirauz to the N. E. and is a large square building, at the upper end of which are two alcoves, recesses in the wall; that on the right hand is the tomb of the Sheikh, just in the state it was in when he was buried, built of stone, six feet in length, and two and a half in breadth: on the sides of it are engraved many sentences in the old Nìskhi character, relating to the poet and his works*. On the top of the tomb is a covering of painted wood, black and gold, on which is an ode of the Sheikh's, written in the modern Nustàleek character, and on removing this board I perceived the empty stone coffin in which the Sheikh was buried. This the religious, who come here, take care to strew with flowers, rosaries, and various relics. On the top of the tomb is placed, for the inspection of all who visit there, a manuscript copy of the Sheikh's works, most elegantly described. On the side of the walls are many Persian verses, written by those who have at different times visited the place. The building is now going to decay. Adjoining to this building are the graves of many religious men, who have been buried here at their own requests.

A little to the left of this building, under ground, is a very remarkable channel, to which you descend by a flight of seventy stone steps, and at the bottom are surprized at the sight of a handsome building, of an octangular form, through which the channel runs. It is built entirely of stone, which, although the work of many ages past, yet remains complete and perfect†. On the sides of this building are recesses and alcoves, where those who visit it sit and smoke, and find it perfectly cool and refreshing, even in the hottest day of summer.

A quarter of a mile to the northward of the gate Shaàh Meerza Hamzà is a large octagon building, in the inside of which is the tomb of Abdurrahèèm Khàn, the second son of the late Vakeel Kerim Khan, who died in the twelfth year of his age. This tomb is eight feet in length, and three in breadth, standing in the centre of the room, covered with a piece of brocade; it is of very fine marble from Tauris, elegantly gilt: on the top and sides are inscriptions in the Persian language, well cut, in the Nustàleek character, and the room has a beautiful dome, with the cupola and sides ornamented with blue and gold enamelled work, imitative of China ware. The Persians excel all the eastern nations in this kind of enamel; and what makes it so pleasing to the eye, is the brightness of the colours, which far exceed, in their liveliness, any thing that can be done in Europe; and are equal to those produced in China.

Kerim Khan, amongst other beneficial works during his lifetime, built several summer-houses in the neighbournood of Shirauz. The gardens in which they are, are laid out in agreeable style, though quite different to our ideas of the beauties of gardening; they consist generally of long

* Sàdi flourished about five hundred and fifty years ago, and his works are held in great esteem amongst all the eastern nations for their morality, and for the excellent precepts they inculcate.

† This the present Persians superstitiously attribute to its having been built with what they call Pool Helaàl, or lawful money, i. e. money not acquired by oppression and tyranny; for they say such buildings as have been erected by tyrants do moulder and fade away; whilst, on the contrary, the works of good and just princes endure for ages unhurt. They have formed these opinions by attending to the tradition of the place, which they say was built by a king of Persia named Jemsheed, a prince famous in the Persian history for his piety and justice, and the same who built Persepolis, he having first, at a vast expence and much labour, dug out a stream of water from the adjacent mountains, which was conveyed by an aqueduct to this well, from whence it flows through a stone channel formed under ground, about two feet in breadth, and supplies all the places adjoining to Shiraùz with excellent water. The present natives attribute great virtues to the supposed properties of this water, and are fond of bathing in it.

strait plantations of sycamore and cypress trees, planted regularly on each side the walk, in form of avenues, and have parterres of flowers in the centre, with stone fountains in different parts of the garden, which add much to the coolness and beauty of them. On the side of the walls are erected scaffoldings of wood, covered over at top with thin laths, on which the grape vines grow, and form pleasant arbours.

As the religion of the Persians is known to be Mohammedan, and as very good accounts have already been given of it, I shall touch but lightly on the subject; but as they are of the sect of the Sheias, or followers of Ali, some of their customs, as well religious as civil, may probably differ from those of the Turks, who are of the sect of the Sunnies, or followers of Omar. We shall therefore make a few remarks on what is most worthy of observation in each of them: and first respecting their marriages.

When the parents of a young man have determined upon marrying him, they look out amongst their kindred and acquaintance for a suitable match; in which having succeeded, the father or mother of the young man, or sometimes his sister, assemble a company of their friends, and go to the house where the person they intend to demand lives: being arrived, a conversation takes place, in which the business is opened and the match proposed. If the father of the woman be contented with the proposals, he immediately orders sweetmeats to be brought in, which is taken as a direct sign of compliance; and the company for that time take leave. Some days after, the females of the family of the man assemble at the house of the intended bride, where the terms of marriage are settled, and the usual presents on the part of the bridegroom are promised. These, if the person be in middling circumstances, generally consist of two complete suits of apparel of the best sort, a ring, a looking-glass, and a small sum in ready money of about ten or twelve tomans, which sum is denominated Mehr u Kawèèn, or the marriage-portion, it being given for the express purpose of providing for the wife in case of a divorce. There is also provided a quantity of household stuff of all sorts, such as carpets, mats, bedding, utensils for dressing victuals, &c. After this a writing or contract is drawn up, in the presence of, and witnessed by, the Cadi, or magistrate, or in his absence by an Akhund, or priest: this writing the Persians call Akud Bundèè, or the binding contract, in which the father of the bride sets forth, that on such a day, in such a year, he has given his daughter in marriage to the son of such a person (mentioning the name of the bridegroom and his father), who also on his part enumerates the different presents he makes in his son's name to the bride, as well as the stipulated money called Mehr u Kawèèn. This writing is signed and sealed by both parties, as well as the Cadi and the Mullah, and is deposited in the hands of the bride's father, where it always serves as a record in case of a divorce, to enforce the fulfilling of the marriage-articles: for on this occasion the husband is obliged to make good the contract even to the minutest agreement, before the divorce can be complete. When this ceremony is finished the marriage by the Mohammedan law is deemed perfect. It is, however, observable that portions are never given with daughters in Persia, as in the custom in Europe, and in most places of the East. Nothing now remains but to celebrate the nuptials, and this is generally performed the second or third day after signing the contract, in the following manner: The night before the wedding, the friends and relations of the bride assemble at her house, attended by music, dancing girls, and other signs of festivity. This night is distinguished by the appellation of Shub Hina Bundee, or the night in which the hands and feet of the bride are stained with the herb called Hinna, well known all over the East. Previous to the ceremony, a large quantity of this herb is sent by the bridegroom to the house of the bride, and on the day of staining she is first conveyed to the bath, where having bathed, she is brought back to her own house; after which they stain her hands and feet, at the same time painting her eyebrows and forehead with the antimony powder called Surma: when this is finished, they send back what remains of the herb to the house of the bridegroom, where the like operation is performed upon him by his friends. The wedding night being come, the friends both of the bride and bridegroom, men and women, assemble at the house of the bride, in order to carry her to that of her future husband: they are attended by all sorts of music, singers, and dancing girls, and all are dressed in their smartest apparel, each of the women having on a veil of red silk. The

ents which the bridegroom has made, are all put into trays covered with red silk, which are carried on men's shoulders. After waiting at the door some time, the bride is brought forth, covered from head to foot in a veil of red silk, or painted muslin; a horse is then presented for her to mount, which is sent thither expressly by the bridegroom; and when she is mounted, a large looking-glass is held before her by one of the bride-maids, all the way to the house of her husband, as an admonition to her, that it is the last time she will look into a glass as a virgin, being now about to enter into the cares of the married state. The procession then sets forward in the following order:—first, the music and dancing girls; after which the presents, in trays borne upon men's shoulders; next come the relations and friends of the bridegroom, all shouting and making a great noise; who are followed by the bride herself, surrounded by all her female friends and relations, one of whom leads the horse by the bridle; and several others on horseback close the procession. Being arrived at the house of the bridegroom, they are met at the door by the father and mother, and from thence are conducted up stairs; the bride then enters the room. The bridegroom, who is at the upper end, makes a low obeisance; and presently after, coming close up to his bride, takes her up in his arms and embraces her. Soon after they retire into a private chamber; and, on their return to the company, it causes great rejoicings. They then all sit down to supper in separate apartments, the men eating with the bridegroom in one room, and the women with the bride in another; it being quite contrary to custom for the women to eat in company with the men on this occasion. The wedding-supper is prolonged to a late hour in the night, with cheerfulness and festive mirth.

Rejoicings in Persia for a wedding generally continue eight or ten days. If, after marriage, a man should be discontented with his wife (which is sometimes the case in this as in other countries), he is at liberty to divorce her; a man, by the Mohammedan law, being always enabled to put his wife away at discretion: this is performed by giving her every thing he had promised previous to marriage, and by re-demanding the contract of his wife's relations. The ceremony of divorce is called by the Persians Tellaàk. If again, after the divorce, the husband should be inclined to take his wife back, he is at liberty so to do, and this for three times successively; and when it so happens, the contract must be renewed each time: but after the third time he is expressly forbidden to re-marry the same woman. With respect to the number of wives a man has, although by the Mohammedan law he is certainly allowed as many as he is able to maintain, yet in general, amongst the Persians, that person is most esteemed who attaches himself to one.

Contracts of marriage in Persia, as well as in many other countries in the East, are often made between families at a very early period; and although consummation does not take place till many years after, yet the woman contracted cannot divorce herself, or be absolved from the contract, unless by the consent of her betrothed husband, except on forfeiture of a considerable sum of money. The same is also binding on the part of the man. A widow in Persia is obliged to wait four months after the death of her husband before she is permitted by law to marry again.

At the christening, or rather naming, of children, in Persia, the following ceremony is observed: The third or fourth day after the child is born, the friends and relations of the woman who has lain-in assemble at her house, attended by music and dancing girls, hired for the occasion; after playing and dancing some time, a Mullah, or priest, is introduced, who taking the child in his arms, demands of the mother what name she chuses the infant should be called by; being told, he begins praying, and after a short time applies his mouth close to the child's ear, and tells him distinctly three times (calling him by name) to remember and be obedient to his father and mother, to venerate his Koràn and his Prophet, to abstain from those things which are unlawful, and to practise those things which are good and virtuous. Having repeated the Mohammedan profession of faith, he then re-delivers the child to his mother; after which the company are entertained with sweetmeats and other refreshments, a part of which the females present always take care to carry away in their pockets, believing it to be the infallible means of their having offspring themselves. The ceremony of the Sur ut, or circumcision, in Persia, is generally performed during the Chehula, or space of forty days from the birth of the child; as within that period it is less dangerous, than at a more advanced age. Some there

there are, however, who do not undergo the operation until the expiration of seven or eight years; but it is absolutely necessary that it should take place before the age of fourteen, as after that time it is deemed unlawful: on this occasion the parents of the child invite their relations and friends to an entertainment. The operation is performed after the Jewish ritual, and in the manner practised by the Mussulmen of India.

The funerals of the Persians are conducted in a similar manner to those in other Mohammedan countries.—On the death of a Mussulman, the relations and friends of the deceased being assembled, make loud lamentations over the corpse; after which it is washed and laid out on a bier, and carried to the place of interment without the city walls, attended by a Mullah, or priest, who chaunts passages from the Koràn all the way to the grave. If any Mussulman should chance to meet the corpse during the procession, he is obliged, by the precepts of his religion, to run up to the bier, and offer his assistance in carrying it to the grave, crying out at the same time," "*Làh Illàh Ill Lallàh!*" i. e. "*There is no God but God.*" After interment, the relations of the deceased return home, and the women of the family make a mixture of wheat, honey, and spices, which they eat in memory of the deceased, sending a part of it to their friends and acquaintance, that they also may pay him a like honour.

The Persians are very strict in respect to the price of blood, or *Lex Talionis*, this being laid down and authorised as a positive command in the Koran; it is called *Deiut*. At Shirauz, if a man murders another person, he is obliged to pay a Deiut, either in money or goods, to the value of eight hundred piastres, which is to be received by the relations of the deceased; but if this is not agreed to, and the relations insist upon it (the acceptance being entirely optional), the murderer is to be delivered up to the nearest of kindred to the person slain, and is by them put to death; but should it so happen that the murderer escapes, the two families are at perpetual variance, until full satisfaction be made, either by paying the price of blood, as related, or apprehending the murderer and surrendering hi a circumstance often attended with very bloo consequences *.

The police in Shirauz, as well as all over Pe sia is very good. As before observed, at sun- the gates of the city are shut; no person whatev is permitted either to come in or go out duri the night; the keys of the different gates bei always sent to the Hakim or Governor, and r maining with him until morning. During t night, three Tiblas, or drums, are beaten three different times; the first at eight o'cloc the second at nine, and the third at half past te After the third Tibla has sounded, all perso whatsoever found in the streets by the Darogh or judge of the police, or by any of his peop are instantly taken up, and conveyed to a pla of confinement, where they are detained un next morning, when they are carried before t Hakim; and if they cannot give a very good a count of themselves, are punished, either by t bastinado, or a fine.

Civil matters are all determined by the Cà and ecclesiastical ones (particularly divorce by the Sheikh as Sellaum, or Head of the Faith an office answering to that of Mufti in Turke Justice is carried on in Persia in a very summa manner; the sentence, whatever it may be, bei always put into execution on the spot. Theft generally punished with the loss of nose and ea robbing on the road, by ripping up the belly the criminal, in which situation he is expos upon a gibbet in one of the most public parts the city, and there left until he expires in to ment; a dreadful punishment, but the sight d ters others from committing the same crime, a renders robberies in Persia very uncomm The punishments in this country are varied a cruel.

The Persians observe the fast during the mon of Ramazàn (the ninth of the Mohammed year) with great strictness and severity. Abo an hour before day-light, they eat a meal wh is called Sèhre, and from that time until the n evening at sun-set, they neither eat nor dr of any thing whatever. It is even so very rig that if in the course of the day the smoke o

* There is yet, however, another mode of compromise; which is, the relations of the murderer giving in marriage a daughter, or niece, to the son of the deceased, as the price of blood; and when this is the case, the two families coming one, the reconciliation is always complete.

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Calcan, or the smallest drop of water, reaches their lips, the fast is in consequence deemed broken, and of no avail. From sun-set until the next morning they are allowed to refresh themselves*. From this fast, women under particular circumstances relative to their sex, very old persons, the sick, and children under the age of fourteen, are exempted: every other person is enjoined to keep it, as absolutely necessary to salvation. Travellers also, during this month (when on actual journey), are exempted from observing the fast; but in lieu thereof are obliged, on their return home, to fast an equal number of days in another month: though the Persians say, that one day's fast in the month of Ramazàn is more acceptable to God than all the remainder of the year put together†. People of a religious turn of mind begin this fast seven or eight days before Ramazàn, and some continue it as many more during the succeeding month.

The 23d of September, which this year (1787 A. D.) happened on the 10th of the Mohammedan month Zu àl Huj, A. H. 1201, is kept in Persia as a grand festival, and was celebrated at Shirauz with extraordinary rejoicings; it is called by the Persians Ide Korbàn, or the festival of sacrifice; being the same, they say, as that in which Abraham offered up his son Isaac, whom they call Ismaèl. A few days previous to its commencement, each family takes care to purchase a fine fat sheep, which they design for the sacrifice, distinguished by the name of Gosefund Korbàn, or the sheep of sacrifice; this sheep they take great care of, and he must be without spot or blemish, in order to represent the purity of Isaac. The day being come, they adorn the victim with ribbands, beads, and other finery; also staining his face, feet, and different parts of his body with the herb Hinna. The neighbours reciprocally visit each other, and exchange the wish of a happy Ide or festival. Their mode of salutation is "*Ide Shùmà Mubàrik bàshed!* i. e. "*May your festival be fortunate!*" The victim being slain, they send the different parts of him as presents to their friends and to the poor. Some, indeed, do not reserve any part for themselves; but every Mussulman is enjoined by his religion to give a part of what he kills that day to the indigent; who generally find means to make a comfortable meal. The day is spent in the utmost festivity‡.

No place in the world produces the necessaries of life in greater abundance and perfection than Shirauz; nor is there a more delightful spot in nature to be conceived, than the vale in which it is situated, either for the salubrity of the air, or for the profusion of every thing necessary to render life comfortable and agreeable. The fields yield plenty of rice, wheat, and barley, which they generally begin to reap in the month of

* This fast, when the month Ramazàn falls in the middle of summer, as it sometimes must do (the Mohammedan year being lunar), is extremely severe, especially to those who are obliged by their occupations to go about during the daytime, and is still rendered more so, as there are also several nights during its existence which they are enjoined to spend in prayer. The Persians particularly observe two; the one being that in which their prophet Ali died, from a wound which he received from the hands of an assassin three days before; which night is the 21st of Ramazàn, the day of which is called by the natives Yeòm al Kutul, or the day of murder;—the other is the night of the 23d, in which they affirm that the Koràn was brought down from Heaven by the hands of the Angel Gabriel, and delivered to their prophet Mohammed, wherefore it is denominated Loilut ul Kudur, or the night of power. The first of these nights the Turks and others of the sect of the Sunnies do not observe, and the latter they keep on the night of the 27th; but both nights are spent by the Persians entirely in prayer; besides which, the most religious men generally allot a part of each day in the month for the purpose of reading the Koràn.

† This month, by way of eminence, is styled by the Mohammedans Al Mubarik, or the blessed: and they affirm that whatever Mussulmàns die during it, will most assuredly enter into Paradise; as they believe the gates of Heaven are then opened by the command of God.

‡ Among those of higher rank, the following ceremonies are observed: The Khàn, or in his absence the Beglerbeg, goes in procession to the place of sacrifice, which is without the city, and is called the Korbàn Gah. A favourite camel, chosen for the occasion, is led forth, which is dressed out in great finery, and is considered as sacred. On their arrival at the place, the Khàn first strikes a lance into the breast of the animal, and the crowd are permitted to rush in, by which he is presently cut into a thousand pieces; and happy in their estimation is the person who can procure the least portion of him, as they look upon it a great blessing, and an infallible omen of future good fortune. The procession returns to the city, where a scaffolding is erected before the palace, and the people are entertained with rope-dancing, singers (male and female), tumblers, ram-fighting, and other diversions, until evening. The Persians, on this occasion, have all of them by heart an ode made for the day, which they repeat as they walk the streets; and cheerfulness, with contentment, sits on every countenance.*

May, and by the middle of July the harvest is completed. Most of the European fruits are produced here, and many of them are superior in size and flavour to what can be raised in Europe, particularly the apricot and grape. Of the grape of Shirauz there are several sorts, all of them very good, but two or three more particularly so than the rest; one is the large white grape, called Reesh Bàbà, without seed, which is extremely luscious and agreeable to the taste; the small white grape, called Askeri, also without seed, and as sweet as sugar; the black grape, of which the celebrated wine of Shirauz is made*. The wine of Shirauz is really delicious, and well-deserving of praise; so much so, that people who have drank it for a space of time seldom care for any other, though at the first taste it is rather unpleasant to an European. They have another kind of large red grape, called Sahibi, the bunches of which weigh seven or eight pounds each: it is sharp and rough to the taste, and makes vinegar of a very superior quality. The cherries here are but indifferent; but apples, pears, melons, peaches, quinces, nectarines, and the gage plums, are all very good, and in the greatest plenty. The pomegranate is good to a proverb; the Persians call it the fruit of Paradise.

The breed of horses in the province of Fars is at present very indifferent, owing to the ruinous state of the country; but in the province of Dushtistaàn, lying to the south-west, it is remarkably good. The sheep are of a superior flavour, owing to the excellence of the pasturage in the neighbourhood of Shirauz, and are also celebrated for the fineness of their fleece: they have tails of an extraordinary size, some of which weigh upwards of thirty pounds; but those which are sold in the markets do not weigh above six or seven. Their oxen are large and strong, but their flesh is seldom eaten by the natives, who confine themselves chiefly to that of sheep and fowls. Provisions of all kinds are very cheap; and the neighbouring mountains affording an ample supply of snow throughout the year, the meanest artificer of Shirauz may have his water and fruits cooled without any expence worthy his consideration; this snow being gathered on the tops of the mountains, and brought in carts to the city, is sold in the markets. The provisions is regulated at Shirauz with the greatest exactness, by the Darogha, or judge of the police, who sets a fixed price upon every article, and no shopkeeper dares to demand more, under the severe penalty of losing his nose and ears; such being the punishment attached to a crime of this nature; by which the poorest inhabitants are effectually secured from imposition, in so capital an article as the necessaries of life.

Manufactures and trade are at present greatly decayed in Persia, the people having had no interval of peace to recover themselves since the death of Kerim Khan to the present period: but if a regular and permanent government were once again to be established, there is little doubt but they would flourish, as the Persians are very ingenious, of quick capacities, and even the lower class of artificers are industrious and diligent. They work in filligree and ivory remarkably well, and are good turners. They have at Shirauz a glass manufactory, where they cast very good glass, of which great quantities are exported to different parts of Persia; by which the manufacturers acquire considerable profit. Most of the woollen goods, silks and worked linens, are brought from Yezd and Carmania, from both of which places they also export felts and carpets. A great quantity of copper is produced from Tauris, and other of the more northern parts of Persia. Kom is remarkable for excellent sword-blades. India goods are imported chiefly from Abu Shehr. In matters of trade amongst the natives, the whole is under the regulation of the Caloonter, or town-clerk, who regulates the duties to be paid to the Khan on all imports: this is sometimes executed with a severity which leaves the merchant little or no profit upon his goods†. All goods are opened here, even to the meanest article, and a duty is exacted upon every thing foreign.

The climate of Shirauz is one of the most agreeable in the world, the extremes of cold and heat being seldom felt. During the spring of the year the face of the country appears uncommonly beautiful. The flowers, of which they

* This wine is pressed by the Armenians and Jews, in the months of October and November, and a vast deal is exported annually to Abu Shehr, and other parts in the Persian Gulph, for the supply of the India market.

† The Caloonter has an apartment in the grand Caravanserai, where himself or his assistant resides, who is called the Goom Rook, or Custom-master, and is always present on the arrival of a caravan.

have

have a great variety, and of the brightest hues, the fragrant herbs, shrubs, and plants, the rose, the sweet basil, and the myrtle, all here contribute to refresh and perfume the natural mildness of the air. The nightingale of the garden (called by the Persians *Boolbul Hezar Dastaan**), the goldfinch, and the linnet, by their melodious warblings, at this delightful season of the year, serve to add to the satisfaction of the mind, and to inspire it with the most pleasing ideas. The beauties of nature are here depicted in their fullest extent; the natural historian and the botanist would here meet with ample scope for pursuing their favourite investigations. With such advantages, added to the salubrity of the air, how can it be wondered at, that the inhabitants of Shirauz should so confidently assert the preeminence of their own city to any other in the world?—or that such beauties should fail of calling forth the poetical exertions of a Hâfiz, a Sâdi, or a Jâmi? Their mornings and evenings are cool, but the middle of the day is very pleasant. In summer the thermometer seldom rises above seventy-three in the day time, and at night it generally sinks as low as sixty-two. The autumn is the worst season of the year, that being the time when the rain begins to fall, and during the autumnal months it is considered by the natives as the most unhealthy; colds, fluxes, and fevers being very general. In winter, a vast deal of snow falls, and very thick, but ice is rarely to be found, except on the summits of the mountains, or towards Ispahan, and the more northern parts of Persia. One thing, which is most to be esteemed in this country, and renders it preferable to any other part of the world, is their nights, which are always clear and bright, and the dew, that in most places is of so pernicious and dangerous a nature, is not of the least ill consequence here: there is none at all in summer, and in the other seasons it is of such a nature, that if the brightest scimitar should be exposed to it all the night, it would not receive the least rust. This dryness in the air causes their buildings to last a great while, and is undoubtedly one of the principal reasons that the celebrated ruins of Persepolis have endured for so many ages, and comparatively speaking, in so perfect a state; that place being situated in much such another valley as Shirauz, and but two days journey from thence. The nights in Persia, and more particularly in the southern parts of it, are most excellently adapted for the science of astronomy, being of extraordinary brightness. The Persians, with respect to outward behaviour, are certainly the Parisians of the East. Whilst a rude and insolent demeanour peculiarly marks the character of the Turkish nation towards foreigners and Christians, the behaviour of the Persians would, on the contrary, do honour to the most civilized nations: they are kind, courteous, civil, and obliging to all strangers, without being guided by those religious prejudices so very prevalent in every other Mohammedan nation; they are fond of enquiring after the manners and customs of Europe; and, in return, very readily afford any information in respect to their own country. The practice of hospitality is with them so grand a point, that a man thinks himself highly honoured if you will enter his house and partake of what the family affords; whereas going out of a house, without smoking a Caleàn, or taking any other refreshment, is deemed, in Persia, a high affront; they say that every meal a stranger partakes with them brings a blessing upon the house†.

The Persians, in their conversation, use such extravagant and hyperbolical compliments on the most trifling occasions, that it would at first inspire a stranger with an idea, that every inhabitant of the place was willing to lay down his life, shed his blood, or spend his money in his service; and this mode of address (which in fact means nothing) is observed not only by those of a higher rank, but even amongst the meanest artificers, the lowest of which will make no scruple, on your arrival, of offering you the city of Shirauz and all its appurtenances, as a peishkush or present. This behaviour appears at first very remarkable to Europeans, but after a short time becomes

* The nightingale with a thousand notes.

† To account for this, we must understand it as a pledge of faith and protection, when we consider that the continual wars in which this country has been involved, with very little cessation, since the extinction of the Sefi family, have greatly tended to an universal depravity of disposition, and a perpetual inclination to acts of hostility. This has lessened that softness and urbanity of manners for which this nation has been at all former times so famous; and has at the same time too much extinguished all sentiments of honour and humanity amongst those of higher rank.

becomes equally familiar. Freedom of conversation is a thing entirely unknown in Persia, as that "*walls have ears*" is proverbially in the mouth of every one.—The fear of chains which bind their bodies has also enslaved their minds; and their conversation to men of superior rank to themselves is marked with signs of the most abject and slavish submission; while, on the contrary, they are as haughty and overbearing to their inferiors.

The Persians, in their conversation, aim much at elegance, and are perpetually repeating verses and passages from the works of their most favourite poets, Hafiz, Sàdi, and Jàmi; a practice universally prevalent, from the highest to the lowest; because those who have not the advantages of reading and writing, or the other benefits arising from education, by the help of their memories, which are very retentive, and what they learn by heart, are always ready to bear their part in conversation. They also delight much in jokes and quaint expressions, and are fond of playing upon each other; which they sometimes do with great elegance and irony. There is one thing much to be admired in their conversations, which is the strict attention they always pay to the person speaking, whom they never interrupt on any account. They are in general a personable, and in many respects a handsome people; their complexions, saving those who are exposed to the inclemencies of the weather, are as fair as Europeans.

The women at Shirauz have at all times been celebrated over those of other parts of Persia for their beauty, and not without reason. Many are tall and well-shaped; and their bright and sparkling eyes is a very striking beauty: this, however, is in a great measure owing to art, as they rub their eye-brows and eye-lids with the black powder of antimony (called surma), which adds an incomparable brilliancy to their natural lustre. The large black eye is in most estimation among the Persians, and this is the most common at Shirauz. As the women in Mohammedan countries are, down to the meanest, covered with a veil from head to foot, a sight is never to be obtained of them in the street; but in their houses they sometimes unveil themselves, and converse with familiarity. The women in Persia, as in all Mohammedan nations, after marriage, are very little better than slaves to their husbands. Those mild and familiar endearments which grace the social board of an European, and which at the same time they afford a mutual satisfaction to either sex, tend also to refine and polish manners, are totally unknown in Mohammedan countries. The husband, of a suspicious temper, and chained down by an obstinate and persevering etiquette, thinks himself affronted even by the inquiry of a friend after the health of his wife. Calling her by name, is never allowed of; the mode of address must be, "May the mother of such a son, or such a daughter, be happy; I hope she is in health." And none, except those of the nearest kin, as a brother, or uncle, are ever allowed to see the females of the family unveiled: it would be deemed an insult. The Persian ladies, however, during the days of courtship, have in their turn pre-eminence; a mistress making no scruple of commanding her lover to stand all day long at the door of her father's house, repeating verses in praise of her beauty and accomplishments; and this is the general way of making love at Shirauz; a lover rarely being admitted to a sight of his mistress, before the marriage contract is signed.

The Persians, in their dispositions, are much inclined to sudden anger; quick, fiery, and very sensible of affronts, which they immediately resent on the spot. They are a brave and courageous people; but their frequent wars have much depraved their ancient urbanity of manners; and this ferocity of disposition has also introduced a strife, peculiar to the lower class of inhabitants of Shirauz. When two people begin fighting, it always raises a great crowd, who generally separately take the part of one or the other in the contest, and the whole presently becomes a scene of tumult and confusion, until the arrival of the Dàrogha, or judge of the police, who puts an end to the fray. These riots are very frequent, and even the boys are fond of running to them in order to have a share in the contention. In their capacities they are ready, prompt, and ingenious: but these talents they too often employ in the most discreditable way, being the greatest liars in the world, practising the most improbable falsities with the gravest air imaginable; and so far from being abashed by a detection, they always endeavour to turn it off with a laugh, and even confess themselves, that they think there is no harm in telling a lye, provided it can be

any benefit to themselves: and they will always, in every business they are engaged in, endeavour first to bring it about by lying and knavery; which, if unsuccessful (as those with whom they deal are full as expert as themselves), they will then conclude the bargain with truth and honesty; but either way is equally indifferent to them.

The Persians universally have a fixed belief in the efficacy of charms, omens, talismans, and other superstitions. Besides what they have received since their conversion to Mohammedanism, they have in general retained all that their ancestors before practised. Indeed, the only difference is, that what was before authorised and commanded by the Magian religion, has been subsequently allowed by the religion of Mohammed. They are, of all people, the most addicted to the idea of fortunate or auspicious days and hours, the *dies fasti atque nefasti* of the Romans; and even on the minutest and most trifling occasions will seek for a lucky moment. Going a journey can never be performed without first consulting a book of Omens, each chapter of which begins with a particular letter of the alphabet, which is deemed fortunate or inauspicious; and should they unluckily pitch upon one of the latter, the journey must of course be delayed until a more favourable opportunity. Entering a new house, the putting on of a new garment, with numberless other common and trifling occurrences, are determined by motions equally absurd and frivolous. In their marriages they pay the strictest attention to this point; a lucky hour for signing the contract, and another for the wedding-day, being deemed absolutely necessary to the future happiness of the intended couple. Those also who are in good circumstances, generally send for a Moonjim, or astrologer, at the birth of a child, in order to calculate his horoscope with the utmost exactness.

To a man they have their Talismans, which are generally some sentence from the Koran, or saying of their prophet Ali, written either upon paper, or engraved upon a small plate of silver, which they bind round their arms, and other parts of the body; but those of higher rank make use of rubies, emeralds, and other precious stones. The women of condition have small silver plates of a circular form, upon which are engraved sentences from the Koran; which, as well as the Talismans, they bind about their arms with pieces of red and green silk, and look upon them as never-failing charms against the fascinations of the Devil, or wicked spirits, and who they say are constantly roaming about the world, to do all the mischief in their power. They are equally absurd in their ideas of the heavenly bodies, at least the middling and lower class of people, particularly in respect to the falling of the stars, eclipses of the sun and moon, and the appearances of meteors and comets. As for their religious system, they believe there are nine heavens, the lowest of which is that immediately above their heads: they imagine, therefore, that on the falling of a star, it is occasioned by the angels in the lower heaven giving blows on the heads of the devils, for attempting to penetrate into those regions.

Among other customs of a superstitious nature, they believe that scorpions, of which there are great numbers in this country, and very venomous, may be deprived of the power of stinging, by means of a certain prayer which they make use of. The person who has the power of binding, as it is called, turns his face towards the sign Scorpio, in the heavens, which they all know, and repeats this prayer. Every person present, at the conclusion of a sentence, claps his hands; after this is done, they think that they are perfectly safe: nor, if they should chance to see any scorpions during that night, do they scruple taking hold of them, trusting to the efficacy of this fancied all-powerful charm*.

The Persians are, of all Mohammedan nations, the least scrupulous in drinking wine, as many of them do it publicly, and almost all of them in private (excepting those who have performed the pilgrimage to Mecca, and men of religion): they also are very liable to be very quarrelsome when inebriated, which is often attended with fatal consequences. They eat opium, but in much less quantities than the Turks; and indeed in

* During the summer season, scorpions appear in great numbers; they are quite black in appearance, and very large, and the sting of them is dangerous, but not mortal: those, however, which are found in the more northern parts of Persia, and particularly in the province of Cashàn, are of so dangerous a nature, as often to cause immediate death.

every thing they say or do, eat or drink, they make a point to be as different from this nation as possible, whom they detest beyond measure; esteeming Jews and Christians superior to them, and much nearer to salvation.

Matters of religion in Persia are managed by the Sheikh as Sellaum, or the Head of the Faith, an office answering to that of Mufti among the Turks. He takes cognizance of all ecclesiastical matters, and on public festivals and other occasions preaches in the grand mosque; but he has not, like the Mufti, any power in affairs of state, being entirely confined to his religious office.

In point of dress, the Persians differ remarkably from the Turks; for in Turkey any person who was not a Seiùd, or descendant of the Prophet, wearing the least green upon his garment, would most probably be stoned: whereas in Persia, the general and favourite colour is green, even to their shoes; and people of all persuasions and denominations may wear it as they please. A Turk also thinks himself defiled by the touch of a Christian, even on his garments. The Persians, on the contrary, will eat out of the same plate, drink out of the same cup, and smoke out of the same Caleàn, as readily as they would with their own children. The Persians, in some parts of their devotions, differ from the Turks, as they always pray with their open hands; whereas those of the Turks are closed and placed before them. The Persians also, in their ablutions, before prayer, wash their faces and beards with their right hand only, the other being reserved for meaner occasions, and they only slightly touch the fore and hind part of their feet; but the Turks wash with both hands, and rub all over their feet. The Jaiè Numàz, or carpet on which they pray, is always endeavoured to be placed with the upper part of it facing to the temple of Mecca, but this they only guess at.

In religious opinions they are far more tolerant than the Turks: they acknowledge the authority of the Old and New Testament, which they say were sent from heaven, and delivered to Moses and Christ, equally with the Koran; only they affirm that the last was given to purify and correct the errors of the two former, which they pretend have been much corrupted from their original state, both by Jews and Christians. They acknowledge Jesus Christ to have been a great prophet, but deny him to have been the Son of God, and the Saviour of Mankind; and pretend that their prophet Mohammed is the last or seal of the prophets, the number of which they say, amounts to one hundred and twenty-five thousand; from which circumstance he is called Khatim al Ambeai, or the Seal of the Prophets. In their opinion, all nations are to be converted to Mohammedanism on the day of judgment; and on that day the people of each faith flying to their particular prophet for protection, shall by him be screened and defended from God's wrath through mediation, and finally become all of one faith, which is to be Mohammedanism. In like manner they apply many things to their own Impostor, which only belong to our Saviour.

The mode of living of the Persians is in general as follows: They always rise at day-break, in order to perform their devotions. Their first prayer is denominated Numaz Soobh, or the morning prayer; it is said before sun-rise, after which they eat a slight meal, called Nàshta, or breakfast; this consists of grapes, or any other fruits of the season, with a little bread, and cheese made of goat's milk; they afterwards drink a cup of very strong coffee, without milk or sugar; then the Caleàn, or pipe, is introduced. The Persians, from the highest to the lowest ranks, all smoke tobacco. Their second hour of prayer is called Numaz Zòhur, or mid-day prayer, and is always repeated when the sun declines from the meredian. Their dinner, or Càsh, which is soon after this prayer, consists of curds, bread, and fruits of various kinds; animal food not being usual at this meal. The third hour of prayer is called Numaz Asur, or the afternoon prayer, said about four o'clock. The fourth hour of prayer is Numaz Shàm, or evening prayer, which is said after sun-set; when this is finished, the Persians eat their principal meal, called Shàmi, or supper. This generally consists of a Pilau, dressed with rich meat-sauces, and highly seasoned with various spices: sometimes they eat Kibaàb, or roast meat. When the meal is ready, a servant brings notice thereof, and at the same time presents an ewer and water; they then wash their hands, which is an invariable custom with the Persians, both before and after eating. They eat very quick, conveying the food to their mouths with their fingers; the use of knives and forks being unknown in Persia.

Sherbet

sherbets of different sorts are introduced, and the meal concludes with a dessert of delicious fruits. The supper being finished, the family sit in a circle, and entertain each other by relating pleasant stories (of which they are excessively fond), and also by repeating passages from the works of their most favourite poets, and amusing themselves at various kinds of games. The fifth and last prayer is styled Numaz Akhir, the last prayer; or sometimes Numaz Shàb, or the night prayer, repeated about an hour after supper.

The city of Shirauz is divided into twelve districts, or neighbourhoods; over each of which one of their Imaums, or Heads of Faith, is believed to preside, as a kind of guardian angel. Every Thursday night, which the Persians call the night of Friday, the cryers and other domestics of the mosques make a Zikir, that is, a recital of the life and good actions of the Imaum or Saint who presides over the districts, by whose influence the inhabitants hope to obtain their wishes, and be absolved from their sins. These Imaums are alluded to by the Persians in their conversations; they swear by them, and invoke them on all occasions of distress and adversity, as well as return them thanks on any good fortune befalling them.—The mosques of the Imaum Zadas, or descendants from the Imaums, serve as sanctuaries for criminals; but the most sanctified place in Shirauz, and which no one ever violates, is the Shah Cherang, where the greatest criminal can be protected, if the inhabitants of the place should receive him. However, persons offensive to government are generally delivered up when demanded.

SECTION II.

A short Account of the Remains of the celebrated Palace of Persepolis—Visit to the Tomb of the Persian Hero Rostum—Mode of Travelling in Persia—City of Bussora.

ON Thursday evening, the 30th of August, Ensign Franklin left Shirauz in company with Mr. Jones, for the purpose of visiting the ruins of the celebrated palace of Persepolis. The next morning they arrived at the village of Zarkan, situated eight fursengs, or thirty-two English miles, from Shirauz. The road to this place is chiefly through a rocky, mountainous country; approaching, however, to Zarkan, is some cultivated land. Zarkan is a large village under the government of Shirauz, and is ruled by a Calentar, or chief magistrate. From its vicinity to the mountain, the view of this place is very pleasing; the neighbourhood produces the large red grape.

September the 1st, they crossed the Bund Ameer river, which Mr. Niebuhr has laid down as the ancient Araxes; over this river is a stone bridge, which the natives call Pool Khan. They proceeded on through the plain, and in five hours and a half arrived at the ruins. This stage is five fursengs: the road lies entirely through the plain, which beginning about five miles to the southward of Zarkan, is continued up to Persepolis, which is situated close under the mountains. Their Cafila encamped in a garden a mile and a half to the northward of the ruins, near the village of Merdasht, from whence the whole plain takes its name. This plain is exceedingly delightful; it abounds in game of several sorts, amongst which are partridges, wild pigeons, quails, and hares.

What remains of the celebrated palace of Persepolis, is situated on a rising ground, and commands a view of the extensive plain of Merdasht. The mountain Rehumut encircles the palace in the form of an amphitheatre: you ascend to the columns by a grand stair-case of blue stone, containing one hundred and four steps. The first object that strikes the beholder on his entrance, are two portals of stone, about fifty feet in height each; the sides are embellished with two sphinxes of an immense size, dressed out with a profusion of bead-work, and, contrary to the usual method, they are represented standing. On the sides above are inscriptions in an ancient character, the meaning of which no one hitherto has been able to decypher.

At a small distance from these portals you ascend another flight of steps, which lead to the grand

grand hall of columns. The sides of this stair-case are ornamented with a variety of figures in basso relievo; most of them have vessels in their hands: here and there a camel appears, and at other times a kind of triumphal car, made after the Roman fashion; besides these, are several led horses, oxen, and rams, that at times intervene and diversify the procession. At the head of the stair-case is another basso relievo, representing a lion seizing a bull; and, close to this, are other inscriptions in ancient characters. On getting to the top of this stair-case, you enter what was formerly a most magnificent hall; the natives have given this the name of Chehil Minar, or forty pillars; and though this name is often used to express the whole of the building, it is more particularly appropriated to this part of it. Although a vast number of ages have elapsed since the foundation, fifteen of the columns yet remain entire; they are from seventy to eighty feet in height, and are masterly pieces of masonry: their pedestals are curiously worked, and appear little injured by the hand of time. The shafts are enfluted up to the top, and the capitals are adorned with a profusion of fret-work.

From this hall you proceed along, eastward, until you arrive at the remains of a large square building, to which you enter through a door of granite. Most of the doors and windows of this apartment are still standing; they are of black marble, and polished like a mirror: on the sides of the doors, at the entrance, are bas-reliefs of two figures at full length; they represent a man in the attitude of stabbing a goat: with one hand he seizes hold of the animal by the horn, and thrusts a dagger into his belly with the other; one of the goat's feet rests upon the breast of the man, and the other upon his right arm. This device is common throughout the palace. Over another door of the same apartment, is a representation of two men at full length; behind them stands a domestic, holding a spread umbrella: they are supported by large round staffs, appear to be in years, have long beards, and a profusion of hair upon their heads.

At the South-West entrance of this apartment are two large pillars of stone, upon which are carved four figures; they are dressed in long garments, and hold in their hands spears ten feet in length. At this entrance, also, the remains of a stair-case of blue stone are still visible. Vast numbers of broken pieces of pillars, shafts, and capitals, are scattered over a considerable extent of ground, some of them of such enormous size that it is astonishing how they could have been brought whole, and set up together. Indeed every remains of these noble ruins indicate the former grandeur and magnificence, truly worthy of being the residence of a great and powerful monarch; and whilst viewing them, the mind becomes impressed with an awful solemnity. Exclusive of the ancient antique inscriptions already mentioned, are others of a modern date able to be read as well as some in the Syriac character; the whole of which the celebrated Mr. Niebuhr has accurately copied and published.

Behind the hall of pillars, and close under the mountain, is the remains of a very large building of a quadrangular form: this may either have made part of the palace, or, not unlikely, a detached temple, as there is a considerable space of ground filled up with earth and mounds of sand betwixt the two; and as it has within-side symbols emblematical of a religious meaning. The building has four principal entrances to it, two from the North-East, and two from the South-West. The walls are divided into several partitions, which are ornamented with various pieces of sculpture, the most common of which has the figure of a man at full length; he is sitting in a chair, with his feet supported by a stool; behind the chair stands a domestic holding an umbrella; the man has in his hand a round staff; before him are two hundred branched candlesticks, with candles in them; beyond these is a little boy, and behind him is a woman with a goblet in her hand. Underneath this figure are several others in long garments; some of these are armed with bows and arrows, others with spears, and all of them have caps, in the form of turrets which we learn from ancient historians was the mode of dress observed by the Medes.—Over the doors of this building, which are twelve in number, are bas reliefs of a lion seizing hold of a bull, similar to that observable on the great stair-case: the recesses in the walls are all lined with fine granite, and their fronts have handsome cornices of stone. Besides the usual figures, there is a very extraordinary one, and is, I suppose, emblematical of the ancient religion of the Persians; it represents a man seated on a pillar, who hold

his hand a small vessel; he has a girdle twisted
ound the centre of his body, the two ends of
hich project a considerable distance beyond his
lothes, and have much the appearance of wings;
e is dressed in long garments, with a cap, turret-
orm. Underneath the figure are several lions
a symbol of empire amongst the ancient Per-
ians) very well executed.

Behind this ruin, a considerable way up the
ountain Rehemut, to the north, is the remains
f a curious place cut out of the rock, which
ad formerly an ascent to it by steps, but these
eing destroyed by time, you are obliged to
lamber up by the rock. There is another
uilding parallel to this, about the distance of
ight hundred yards to the south. They are
fty buildings of three sides, two of which are
lain, and forty feet in height; the third has
everal fine sculptures boldly executed; in the
entre is a pillar with the mystic figure, already
escribed, sitting at the top: opposite to this stands
man upon a pedestal of three steps; in his left
and he holds a bow, his right is held up,
inting to the figure on the pillar. To the left is
altar of stone two feet high, upon which fire is
urning, and a little on one side is a large globe
uspended in the air which has much the appear-
ce of being intended for the Sun. These two
st-mentioned symbols were considered by the
ersian Magi as the two grand principles of their
ligion, as they adored the Omnipotent Creator
the universe under these types, being each in
eir nature the purest and freest of corruption of
l created things: it may, therefore, be pre-
med they were intended to represent certain
steries in the Magian faith. The man with
e bow may possibly be designed for a chief of
e Magi; or, to hazard a further supposition,
e celebrated lawgiver and prophet Zoroaster
mself. However, this is only a supposition.
The modern natives call this place Mujlis
msheed, or the assembly of King Jemsheed, as
y say that prince used to visit the place, with
e nobles and great men of his court, in order
enjoy a delightful view of the adjacent coun-
, of which, indeed, there cannot be a finer
spect than from thence.

Underneath the above-mentioned devices are small openings, which lead to a subterraneous passage, cut out of the mountain; it is six feet in height, and four in breadth: the passage leads a considerable way into the rock, but is quite dark after advancing about thirty yards, and emits a most noisome damp smell. The natives call this place the Cherk Almàs; that is, the Talisman, or diamond of fate*.

Descending to the foot of the mountain, to the south are the remains of a small square building, which has several doors and windows still standing, having carved figures on them; but as these are only visible to the waist downwards, it is probable the sand from the mountains has choked up the remainder: the figures are the same with those in other parts of the palace.—A little to the westward of this building, is a stone staircase which leads into a magnificent court, of a quadrangular form. Several pedestals of pillars, and the remains of two grand portals to the east, are still visible: they are all of granite, and the cornices of the portals appear to have been very superb; they are of an oblong shape. On many of the broken pieces of the pillars are ancient inscriptions.

In several parts of the palace are stone aqueducts, made for the purpose of draining off the water that comes from the mountains: they are of blue stone cut under ground eight feet deep, and two and a half in breadth.

These venerable ruins have suffered much by the ravages of time and weather; but what still remains of them is as hard and durable as the rock itself. Earthquakes, which are frequent in Persia, have also proved the means of throwing down many of the columns, and otherwise injuring the apartments; and several of those which have not been overturned by the violence of the shocks, have had their tops nearly removed off, and in this situation remain. The sand, which is constantly washed down from the mountains by the rain, in the winter season, has choked up numbers of places, and even covered the pedestals of several pillars.

The old inscriptions discernible on the walls, and other parts of the palace, may be reckoned

* They affirm that at the end of the passage is the Talis-
, and that whoever arrives thither, and asks questions
future events, will be answered from within; but they
that no one has ever yet been able to penetrate to the
extremity of the passage, being opposed by the Demons and
Genii, whom they believe to dwell there; and superstitiously
imagine, that all lights taken in there will go out of them-
selves.

among the greatest curiosities, as they have never yet been decyphered, either in the East or in Europe; and what is very extraordinary, the most learned and curious in the Oriental languages have been baffled in every attempt made to learn their meaning:—like the hieroglyphics of Egypt, they remain buried in an impenetrable mystery*. It is one of the most considerable difficulties to solve when and by whom this palace was originally built. The Grecian historians have given very imperfect and dubious accounts of it, and the Persians no less so. By the present natives, the place is called Takhti Jemsheed, or the throne of Jemsheed; who they affirm built it between three and four thousand years ago: he is also expressly mentioned as having erected the Chehil Minár, or hall of forty pillars. It is related in Grecian history, that Alexander the Great set fire to and destroyed this rich and splendid palace, instigated to it in a fit of debauchery by the celebrated courtesan Thaïs†.

It is to be remarked, that in the figures throughout the whole of the palace, the rules of art are not attended to; the muscles of the figures are wanting, yet the drapery is finely done, and the proportions in general are well kept up, though the contour is only observed, which gives a sameness to the whole.

The materials of which the palace is composed, are chiefly hard blue stone; but the doors and windows of the apartments are all of black marble, and so beautifully polished, as to reflect an object like a mirror. One of the principal things worthy of admiration, is the immense strength of the foundation. The whole of the palace takes in a circumference of one thousand four hundred square yards: its front is six hundred paces from north to south, and three hundred and ninety from east to west. Being built at the foot of a mountain, a great deal of it has been smoothed with infinite labour, to make the stones lie even. The height of the foundation, in front, is in several parts from forty to fifty feet, and consists of two immense stones laid together: the sides are not so high, and more unequal, owing to the vast quantity of sand which has fallen from the mountain.

The Hall of Pillars appears to have been detached from the rest of the palace, and to have had a communication with the other parts by hollow galleries of stone. By the pedestals of the pillars, the hall seems originally to have consisted of nine distinct rows of columns, each containing six; making consequently, in all, fifty-four. The fifteen that remain, are from seventy to eighty feet in height; the diameter at the base twelve feet, and the distance between each column twenty-two. By the position of the front pillars the hall appears to have been open towards the plain; but four of the pillars, facing the mountain, and which are at some distance from the rest, seem to have been intended for a portico or entrance from the east. They are also of a different style of architecture. The materials of the columns are a mixed sort of red stone granular. The hall, situated on an eminence and commanding an extensive view of the plain of Merdàsht, is strikingly grand, and conveys to the beholder the idea of an Hall of Audience of a powerful and warlike monarch.

On the 2d of September, the Ensign and Mr. Jones went to visit the tomb of the celebrated Persian Hero, Rostum (called by the natives Nushkee Rostum). It is situated three miles and a half to the north-east of Persepolis: the place consists of four distinct chambers, excavated high in the rock. The devices, in the upper parts, are exactly the same as those of Persepolis, representing the mystic figure, with the altar of fire and the sun. Underneath the sculptures, in the second chamber, is a gigantic figure on horseback, cut in stone, and very perfect, richly completely armed and accoutred, and dressed something after the Roman fashion. On his helmet is a globe; two figures are before him

* Mr. Niebuhr has given all these inscriptions in his second volume, most elegantly and accurately copied, which may possibly assist the curious in their attempts to elucidate them.

† This circumstance, although it has the sanction of history, if one reflects upon the appearance of what still remains of these ruins, any person on viewing them would suppose such an event impossible to have taken place; as, in their present state, all the fire that could be applied, would not make the smallest impression on those huge masses of stone, equal in point of durability and hardness to the solid rock; and of such are the materials of the whole building. These sentiments arose to Mr. Francklin whilst on the spot, and his opinion was strengthened by the fullest acquiescence of Mr. Jones, who thought, like himself, it was absurd to give credit to the idea of it having been burnt by Alexander.

the one kneeling down in a supplicating posture, and the other in the act of taking hold of the horseman's hand, as if to mitigate his wrath; the horseman is looking sternly upon the figures, and the hand at liberty is applied to the hilt of his sword. On one side of this figure is an inscription in ancient characters, but different from those on the walls of Persepolis. Several attendants are in waiting behind the equestrian figure, all of them as large as life; but the proportions are not at all adhered to in the first sculpture, the man being twice the size of the horse on which he rides. A little to the northward is another representation. At the foot of the rock there are two figures completely armed; one of them is in the action of letting go a ring, which the other grasps. The figure to the right has a globe on his helmet, and a large battle-axe in his hand: that to the left has a domestic behind him, holding an umbrella. Under their horses' feet are two human heads; and a little on one side appear the heads of several figures, attendants; most of them have a broad fillet encircling their temples, and a profusion of hair flowing loose. Sir John Chardin supposes, that this may be intended to represent the action of Alexander the Great, receiving the submission of the Persian monarch Darius; but as we are informed by Grecian history, that Darius never saw Alexander, being murdered in his flight shortly after the loss of the battle of Arbela, by his servant Bessus; so I should imagine, says Mr. Francklin, the Persians themselves would hardly have taken such pains to render the dishonour and ruin of their lawful king so permanent and known to the latest posterity, in order to praise one who had utterly overturned their religion and their laws. Moreover, the work itself bears not the least trace of having been the production of any Grecian artists, as the Greeks at that period were arrived at the highest perfection in the arts and sciences; and had such a thing been done during the time of Alexander, he would most certainly have made use of one of the many celebrated artists who followed him into Asia; but these figures are disproportionate, and executed in a rude manner. Ensign Francklin supposes, that the above device was of a date prior to the Grecian conquests of Persia, and that it was intended to represent some remarkable action in the life of the hero Rostum (from whom the whole of the place takes its name), and that it was cut to perpetuate the memory of it.

Near the foot of the rock is a square building of blue stone, twenty feet in height, by eight in breadth. This place has several windows; the inside is empty, and there are small niches in different parts of the wall. The natives affirm that the celebrated Rostum was interred in this spot; but many travellers have supposed it to have been the tomb of Darius Hystaspes, from a passage of Herodotus, the Grecian historian, amongst whom Sir John Chardin and M. Le Brun are both of the latter opinion.

In a part of the rock, to the eastward, is the sculpture of a figure on horseback, the face of which has been much mutilated, and is scarcely visible; enough, however, remains to perceive that the figure is that of a man: he has long flowing hair, and has a projection, resembling a horn, on the left side of his forehead. The natives call this figure "*Iskunder Zu Al Kerneen,*" or "Alexander Lord of the Horns," that is, of an empire extending from east to west; and they affirm, that it is positively intended for Alexander the Great. Horns, we know, were considered by the ancients as emblems and symbols of power and majesty, and from this we may conclude, without a contrariety to reason, that the Persian idea of this figure is a just one; as Alexander is always described by the Grecian historians, having a horn on his forehead, or rather a particular *lock of hair,* resembling one; and it is also observed on the coins and medals of that prince, which are still to be seen in the cabinets of the curious. Behind the figure on horseback are several others; they are in armour, on foot, and seemingly attendants on him.

On the 4th of September, 1787, Ensign Francklin returned to Shirauz; and on the 11th of October, he set off from Shirauz on his return to India. On the 14th he arrived at Kazeroon, which, by its remains, appears formerly to have been a city of considerable note, and in size little inferior to Shirauz; it is situated in the centre of an extensive plain, surrounded by high mountains; there is a fine lake, about four miles east of the city. In the vicinity of Kazeroon, great quantities of opium are produced, but the Persians do not make this very valuable commodity an article of

trade. The city, excepting a mosque, and the Governor's palace and gardens, has nothing remarkable in it.

As to the mode of travelling in Persia, we may observe, that a Cafila is composed of camels, horses, and mules, the whole of which are under the direction of a Cheharwa Dàr, or Master. It is to him the price of a mule or camel is paid, and he stipulates with the traveller to feed and take care of the beast during the journey; he has under him several inferior servants, who help to unload the beasts of burden, take them to water, and attend them during forage. The Cafila, whilst on the journey, keeps as close as possible, and on its arrival at the Munzil Gah, or place of encampment for the day, each load is deposited on a particular spot, marked out by the master, to which the merchant who owns the goods repairs; his baggage forms a compartment; in the centre are placed the bedding and provisions: a rope or line made of hair is then drawn round the whole, at the distance of about three yards each way, which serves to distinguish the separate encampments. During the night, the beasts are all brought to their stations, opposite to the goods they are to carry in the morning, and are made fast to the hair rope aforementioned. At the hour of moving, which is generally between three and four in the morning, they load the mules and camels. In doing this, the passengers are awakened by the jingling of the bells tied round the neck of the beasts, in order to prevent their straggling during the march. When every thing is ready, the Cheharwa Dàr orders those nearest the road to advance, and the whole move off in regular succession, in the same order as the preceding day.

On the 22d of December he embarked on board the Scorpion cruiser, Captain Jervis, for Bussora. 24th, in the evening, passed the Bussora Bar, and on the 28th came to anchor opposite the town.

The city of Bussora is situated at the extremity of the Persian Gulph, in latitude 31° 30′ North, on the banks of a fresh water river, called the Shat al Arab, which is a branch of the Euphrates; that river uniting with it about fifty miles to the N. W. of Bussora. The city is a very large one, but indifferently fortified: a mud wall encircles the town, having bastions and turrets also of mud; it had formerly a wet fosse, this is now dried up in many parts. Although the Great Desert extends to the very walls of the city, the banks of the river on each side are exceedingly fertile and pleasant; they produce corn, pulse, rice, and several European fruits; but that which most adds both to the pleasant situation and profit of the place, is the date tree; by the cultivation and produce of this tree, a considerable revenue arises to the Turkish government. The vicinity of Bussora abounds in game, particularly hares, partridges, and the wild hog, whose flesh is of a delicious flavour. The modern Bussora is fourteen days journey (by couriers) from Aleppo. There is a very grand mosque in Bussora, and also a convent of Italian missionaries. The city is at present under the government of the Turks, and the residence of a Mussellem, appointed by the Basha of Bagdad, under whom he acts.

On the 12th of February, 1788, he embarked on board the brig Futta Illahi, Captain Nimmo, on his return to India; and on the 25th of April, he arrived at Calcutta, after an absence of two years and two months.

END OF FRANCKLIN'S TOUR FROM BENGAL TO PERSIA.

A

JOURNEY FROM INDIA,

TOWARDS

ENGLAND,

In the Year 1797;

BY AN OVER-LAND ROUTE, THROUGH COUNTRIES HITHERTO UNKNOWN TO EUROPEANS,

PARTICULARLY THROUGH

CURDISTAN, DIARBEKR, ARMENIA, AND NATOLIA,

IN ASIA;

AND

ROMELIA, BULGARIA, WALLACHIA, TRANSYLVANIA, &c.

IN EUROPE.

BY JOHN JACKSON, ESQ.

ON the 4th of May, 1797, Mr. Jackson left Bombay, and embarked on board the country ship Pearl, R. Spence, Master, bound to Bussora; and anchored off Carrick Town, in seven fathoms water, on the 8th of June, after a dangerous passage, in which the ship was frequently menaced by a number of vessels of war belonging to one of the Arabian powers.

Captain Reid and Mr. Jackson went ashore in a country boat at Carrick Town, with a view to shoot antelopes, of which there were many on the island, having first obtained the Sheikh's permission. They took with them two Arab guides, and presently saw about twenty antelopes, which, however, were so very shy, that they could not get near enough to have a shot; nor does it appear possible to take them without hawks, the mode usually practised in those countries. The swiftest greyhounds would be of no use, for the antelopes are much swifter of foot than most other animals. They are of a light brown colour, about the size of a goat, but with longer legs, and have small horns almost erect. They directed their walk to the highest part of the island, which appears to have been a volcanic production, having coral rocks and sea shells on its very summit; and in many places great quantities of lava have run down towards the sea. Here is plenty of good water, but very little vegetation, except near the springs. Being on shore in the middle of the day, they found the heat much greater than it is in India.

The island of Carrick, which contains between six and seven hundred inhabitants, is about twelve miles long and seven broad. It abounds with goats, but has very few cows, and no beasts of prey. Nor are there any fowls, tame or wild, except stock and turtle doves. It produces very few vegetables, particularly at this season, the heat being so intense as to destroy all vegetation, except in the immediate vicinity of water. Wheat, rice, and barley, however, are grown, but not in sufficient quantity to supply the inhabitants, the principal part of whose food is fish, which they catch in abundance all round the island. There is also very fine turtle, but the natives do not eat it.

On the 11th they saw the entrance of Bussora

River, N. W. distant off shore three leagues; and, while at anchor, a great many pelicans hovered about the ship. On the 12th Captain Reid and Mr. Jackson went ashore on the Arab side of the river; but only shot a few wild pigeons, procured some eggs and greens from the Arabs, and bought a bullock for six piastres. The extent of their walk inland did not exceed about half a mile, which space was planted throughout with date-trees, the male trees being generally planted North West of the females, because the wind usually blows from that point. The males are very easily distinguished, being higher than the females, and not so full of leaves at the top. The ground is full of cuts for the purpose of letting in the water from the river at tide-time; for without this the dates would not thrive, as they require much moisture. After having passed through the plantation, they entered some villages on the edge of the Desert, beyond which neither trees nor other vegetation were to be seen. All the prospect consisted of a burning desert covered with a crust of salt, making a noise under the feet similar to that caused by walking on frozen snow. Without being on shore in the middle of the day, and at the season near midsummer, a stranger to this country could not possibly form any idea of the heat upon the Desert. The bare feet of an European would be blistered in a moment, and Mr. Jackson felt some inconvenience to his, even through a pair of strong boots.

The houses here are built of clay, and covered with the leaf of the date-tree. The inhabitants are very numerous, and most of them have weak eyes, occasioned, probably, by the reflection of the sun upon the desert. Their dress is very simple; that of the men being in general no more than a woollen cap to defend the head from the sun; and a coarse woollen cloak, with short wide sleeves. An Arab always wears his woollen cap, though he has often no other cloathing. The woman's dress is equally simple, being only a few yards of blue cotton cloth wrapped round them.

These people have numerous flocks of cattle, sheep, and goats, which they drive every morning at sun-rise to the river side, where they find very good pasture. They are watched all day by men, women, and children, who frequently amuse themselves by bathing in the river; for an Arab, when he has an opportunity, will bathe five or six times a day. The flocks are always driven back at sun-set to the villages, where they remain all night. Every village and fixed residence is surrounded with a lofty mud wall, to defend them from beasts of prey, particularly lions, which are here very numerous.

The Arab women were not so shy as we expected to find them. They seemed much entertained by the novelty of the European dress, and very civilly offered them milk, bread, &c. Their bread is in cakes, but not fine; and their milk is not very palatable to an European, being curdled and quite sour. It immediately turns sour after sun-rise; but the Arabs prefer it in that state.

On the Persian shore are the ruins of a very large and ancient city, extending about twelve miles along the banks of the river, and containing many tombs which still appear entire. This city was destroyed by the Persian Emperor, Nadir Shah; and among the ruins several wolves were seen.

In the whole extent from the sea to this part of the Persian side of the river, there is very little culture, and but a thin population. It appears, however, to have been once well cultivated; there are still many embankments to prevent the river overflowing the country, and numerous canals to water the ground, similar to those on the opposite Arabian shore. As to plantations, we only saw a few straggling date-trees, which being neglected, bore very little fruit.

The next day, June 13th, they saw numerous herds of cattle, sheep, and goats, with a great many horses, on the Arabian side of the river. An Arab Sheikh, or a man of any consequence, usually keeps several horses ready saddled, in case of any alarm, and is always ready to ride off at a moment's notice. These horses are fed with grass cut by the side of the river at low water, or on some of the islands, which are very numerous. For this purpose they make use of large baskets, covered with a coat of bitumen, which effectually keeps out the water, and two men will paddle in them at a tolerable rate. Some of these baskets are large enough to carry a dozen people, and are frequently used as ferry boats.

On the 14th they observed, that on the Arabian side of the river the culture and population were nearly the same as before; but the Persian side had a better appearance. Vegetation was there much more flourishing; and at sun-set, a con-

siderable tribe, with their flocks, began to pitch their tents, not appearing to have any fixed residence. They lighted fires, which continued burning all night.

On the 15th they weighed anchor, but only gained about six miles. The Persian side of the river improved in its appearance, having a few small villages close to the river side, and some date-trees. It being rather swampy, there were also a good many willows, and a few elm-trees. The Arabian side, too, looked better than what they had lately passed, being cultivated farther from the river. The date-trees being planted about ten feet from each other, and full of leaves at top, afford a very good shade; and the people are enabled to cultivate the ground during the whole day, without suffering much inconvenience from the heat of the sun, which out of the shade, and in the middle of the day, is at this season not to be endured. They found here a very strong brown soil, which does not appear to want any manure, nor do the Arabs at this place ever make use of any.

On the 16th, they gained about six miles more, and the Persian side of the river now exhibited a high degree of cultivation. They saw many inhabitants and numerous flocks and herds; but had not much intercourse with the people, as they are not so much to be trusted as their opposite neighbours the Arabs. They are a very strong, robust, hard-featured people; and their dress is nearly similar to that of the Arabs. A piece of blue calico, about five yards long, is the whole of the woman's dress, and the children are entirely naked. The men have a very ferocious appearance, and will destroy whomsoever they can overpower, which renders it impossible to travel much in this country. Wild hogs are very numerous among the marshes, and there are various kinds of game in great plenty, which affords fine sport to a shooting party; but it will be always necessary to go in a considerable body, and never very far from the river, to avoid being cut off by the savage inhabitants. The Arabian side of the river was nearly the same as before, except that the canals were cut farther inland, which implied of course more cultivation. Some of the canals are very broad, and Mr. Jackson crossed over several in the wicker baskets before described, which are indeed very convenient where there is not much current.

The 17th they gained also about two leagues. A party of them went out a shooting on the Arabian side of the river, but were not very successful. Extending their walk inland about three miles, they found the whole well watered by means of canals from the river, and the population very great. The dates and other trees afforded an agreeable shade, and made their little incursion very pleasant. They found great abundance and many varieties of garden vegetables; some of them European, and several peculiar to the country. Beside the dates, which are the chief support of the inhabitants, there were great quantities of pomegranates nearly ripe; red and white grapes, some of them ripe; an abundance of oranges, limes, and lemons, but none of these had attained maturity. There were also many well-tasted apples, chiefly of the kind called codlings, but a little sweeter than those in England. They took with them about a bushel of these, for which they paid a very trifling sum*. The inhabitants are remarkably civil. There being no regular road, the Europeans frequently lost their way; and the natives would very readily offer their services to conduct them into the right path.

On the 18th Mr. Jackson set out for Bussora by land, with an Arab guide. They were frequently stopped on the road by soldiers; but his guide always satisfying them, he was permitted to pass without molestation. Many of the inhabitants seemed to view him with astonishment; and in all probability some of them had never seen an European before, this part being out of any accustomed road, and where no one can travel on horseback on account of the numerous canals. The country through which he passed had a delightful appearance, being well watered, and in luxuriant vegetation. Extensive crops of wheat, barley, and paddy, were nearly ripe; and of fruit and vegetables the quantity was immense.

* I was very much pleased, says Mr. Jackson, with little journey; and, though I had lately been in the of Ceylon among the cinnamon, in the Travancore try, and in every port of the Malabar coast, I certainould give the preference to this place; for the abundance of various kinds of fruits, the fragrant smell from the oranges, lemons, and sweet-scented shrubs, and the agreeable shade of the lofty date-trees, rendered it a most delightful spot.

mense. The city of Bussora is supplied from this neighbourhood, and the Turks and Arabs consume a very large quantity in proportion to their other food. After walking about ten miles, he reached the English factory at Bussora. Here he obtained a horse, and a guide, also mounted, and set out immediately from Bussora for Margill, the country residence of Samuel Manesty, Esq. the resident. This stands about three miles above the city, and is pleasantly situated on the banks of the river.

During his stay at Margill, which was about a week, he frequently visited the city of Bussora, which is very large and extremely populous. The Bazar, or Market-place, is nearly two miles long, and appears to be well supplied. It abounds with drugs of various kinds peculiar to the country, and which, though of considerable value in Europe, may be bought here at a moderate price, money being of more value here than in many other countries. European manufactures are scarce and dear; and the people prefer those of England to all others. English superfine broad cloth, and watches, will sell for more than double what they cost in England.

The length of the city walls, from the river toward the Great Desert, is about four miles, and from North to South about three miles. The walls are chiefly built of clay, and of course cannot make any very stout resistance, particularly against artillery. Of this, however, there is very little in the country; in the city were only ten pieces, most of them brass indeed, but only two or three of them serviceable. Being exposed to the sun, the carriages were dropping to pieces.

Here are several mosques and minarets, many of which are very handsome buildings. Some of the latter are entirely covered with variegated tiles, which have a very singular appearance. Most of the public buildings, as mosques, minarets, and hummums, are built of brick; but the English factory is now by far the best structure in the whole city. Within the walls are several vacant spots not built upon, and which appear to have been occasioned by fire. The houses in general are very indifferent, being chiefly built of clay with a small proportion of bricks. Their timbers are the trunks of date-trees, not squared, but round, and in the same state as when brought from the plantation: they are also very soft and spongy, and will not last long. The very thick walls, and these clumsy timbers, form together a very uncouth piece of architecture. The roofs are flat, and surrounded by a parapet. Here the inhabitants sleep during the summer season, in the open air. To an European every house appears like a prison, as it can receive no light from the street, because it has no windows. Every house forms a square, and the inhabitants have no communication with their neighbours. Within the square are various offices; some under ground, where the people retire during the heat of the day. The kitchen, the water, and not unfrequently the horses, are kept on the ground floor. The hall, where they receive company, the harem, and many other offices, are on the second, which has generally a gallery supported by pillars continued nearly round the inside of the whole building. They have generally two flights of steps; one leading to the hall, where alone strangers are admitted, the other leading to the harem, to which none but the family can have access. Women of the higher class are seldom seen out of doors; but when they do go out, they are always veiled. Many of the Arab women, particularly of the lower class, expose their faces.

Both men and women slaves are sold publicly in the Bazar. The majority of the people are Arabs, the rest are Turks and Armenians. The Turks are mostly men of some consequence, either being officers in the army, or holding some other posts under government. The Armenians are the merchants, and some of them are very respectable. They have a considerable trade with the East Indies, and chiefly to Bengal. In this trade several ships are employed, the largest of which does not exceed four hundred tons, on account of a difficulty in crossing the bar. These ships from Bussora to Bombay, or Bengal, usually receive a full cargo, the greater part of which consists of copper in small cakes, and drugs of various kinds; and the Bombay ships generally take dried fruits. It is very seldom, however, that a vessel sails to any part of India without taking a considerable number of Arab horses. There are many instances of ships carrying away silver, in bars and specie, to the amount of twenty lacks of rupees, the specie chiefly Spanish dollars and Venetian sequins*. A considera-

when they have a considerable sum on hand, in order to prevent the Turks from laying hold of it, (which is a

* The greatest part of the trade of this branch of the Turkish empire is in the hands of the Armenians, who,

siderable quantity of sugar and rice is frequently imported from India. The specie is sent here by the Armenians to their correspondents in most parts of the empire; considerable sums likewise are often sent from Constantinople. These are usually forwarded under the care of the Tatars*, messengers of government, who receive a handsome premium for their trouble. The Tatars, however, are sometimes robbed and slain by the wandering tribes, who in formidable bodies infest the greater part of the Turkish dominions in Asia.

With respect to the Arabs, the most numerous class of inhabitants, there are a few respectable men amongst them; but great numbers are extremely poor, labouring very hard for small wages. With a very little pay, however, they are enabled to support their families; for their dress costs them little; and their food consists of dates, bread, and water, with which they are perfectly satisfied; and indeed, though their food is so simple, they have generally speaking, twice the strength of Europeans, and are able to endure much more fatigue.

The streets in this city are so extremely narrow, as frequently to admit only one horse at a time; added to which, they are in many parts so very rough as to make it difficult for horses to pass. There is a Roman Catholic Church, a tolerably good building; and the people of that persuasion are not in the least molested. Every person wears the dress of the country, particularly mustaches.

On the 25th, every thing having been prepared for their departure for Bagdad, an Arab Sheikh, named Abdallah Teef, a very respectable man, engaged to conduct them safely thither; for which they paid him one thousand three hundred piastres. This sum, it is to be observed, was only for three boats and guards, having themselves provided a good stock of provisions of all sorts, with culinary utensils, cooks, and other servants, which cost five hundred piastres more. The clothes provided for each person were as follow: one Arab cameline, or riding cloak; two under coats; two pair of drawers; two shirts; one cumberband; one turban; one woollen cap; and one pair of yellow slippers. The boats being brought up to Margill, they went on board; two of the boats containing the passengers, the other boat the additional guards: Immediately after embarking, they were dressed so as exactly to resemble the Arabs in appearance; and their mustaches were now grown pretty long, having never shaved since they left India. Every attention was paid to their personal safety, the Sheikh being always in one of the boats, and his brother, Ahmood Sollay, in the other †. These boats usually go from Hilla down the Euphrates to Bussora in three days, and are seldom four. From Bagdad down the Tigris to Bussora they can never go in less than eight days, though the stream is much more rapid than the Euphrates; but it is above twice the length, on account of the many windings, and it runs a great way to the eastward towards Persia. On the Arabian side, above Margill, there is neither cultivation, inhabitants, nor vegetation, except near the banks of the river, where are a great number of camels

mes the case) export it to India, where they often receive elve per cent. interest. The interest is usually remitted ack in piece goods, with which they supply the greatest art of the Turkish empire.

* Usually, but very improperly, printed *Tartar*. See Campbell's Journey over-land to India," and other orks. It is pronounced *Tätar*, the accent being on the st syllable.

† As these boats were admirably calculated for their inended purpose, the following account of them may not be acceptable:

Description of the boat generally called a Donek, but sometimes a Kiraffe, used by the Arabs upon the rivers Euphrates and Tigris.

The extreme breadth is seven feet nine inches. The ngth forty-two feet. It is built of strong rough timbers at ifteen inches distance, connected by small rough pieces of ard, and covered with a coat of bitumen about half an h thick on the outside, which, in case of a leak, is very easily repaired. The inside is lined with the same kind of rough boards, none above three feet long, and of very unequal breadths; the lining is, of course, full of holes.—Some of these boats, instead of boards, are covered with basket-work, having a coat of bitumen upon it.—They are very sharp at each end, and sail fast.—Their oars are rough poles, having a piece of board tied on with a cord. They have besides strong timbers, which go down to the keel, and are about three feet above the gunwale; these are full of notches, to which they fasten the oars with strong kya rope; and by these means they either raise or lower the oar, as is most convenient. They have no tiller; but are enabled to steer with great accuracy by means of a strong kya rope fastened to both sides of the rudder; and they very seldom use more than five oars at a time. In the forepart was a place built with brick and clay for the purpose of dressing victuals; and this convenience was of great use, as it enabled them to provide every thing necessary without delaying the passage by frequent landings.

grazing. Here is also much game. The Persian side of the river has a better appearance, exhibiting extensive plantations of date-trees, and many villages. The river is here about two miles broad, bearing N. N. W. and S. S. E.

On the 26th they arrived at Corny, the conflux of the rivers Euphrates and Tigris. Here they remained two hours, and observed that the Tigris bore E. N. E. and the Euphrates due W. A ship of war was moored near the middle, between the two rivers, as a guard-ship, and to prevent vessels passing without paying customs. The two rivers, united here, form an immense body of fresh water. From this place to the Persian Gulph is called by the natives Shat-el-Arab. The tide has seldom any influence so far as Corny, except at the full and change of the moon; and even then the water is only raised a little; the current is not stemmed.

Corny is supposed by some learned men to have been the scite of the Garden of Eden. Its present wretched appearance, however, gives it no pretensions to the name of the Terrestrial Paradise, as described by Milton. It is a small village, surrounded by a mud wall; containing few inhabitants, with very little cultivation. There is, indeed, a small plantation of date-trees between the village and the river, and which forms a very agreeable shade. Here the Arabs sit and spend most of their time, seeming to depend for their livelihood much more on their exactions from passengers, than on their own industry.

Leaving Corny they went up the Euphrates, which is called by the Arabs Shat-el-Fraat. The country here was very little inhabited, being wet, swampy, and covered with reeds and willows*.

At sun-set several jackalls were prowling near the banks of the river. In the evening they made their boats fast to the western banks of the river near a large tomb, where they remained all night, but had very little rest, the musquitoes being extremely troublesome, and the howling of the jackalls, wolves, and other wild beasts, in the neighbourhood, rendering their situation truly dismal.

At day-break June 27, they resumed their voyage, tracking up the right bank of the river. The country afforded a pleasing prospect, abounding with plantations of date-trees and fields of corn. In their passage they passed a breach in the right bank of the river, which has overflowed the Great Desert for about three hundred miles, and has alarmed the inhabitants of Bussora and that neighbourhood very much. The excessive heat of the sun, with the immense numbers of fish and animalcules that perish when it dries up, serve to putrify the air, which in general proves fatal to great numbers; and hence the Arabs call it *the water of death*. The natives, however, were endeavouring to stop the breach. At night the English got very little rest on account of the musquitoes, and the horrible noises made by the wild beasts in the vicinity.

On the 28th they reached Suke Shue, and on the following day were treated by the Sheikh with a dinner in the Arab fashion. It consisted of a dozen and a half of fish, about the size of mackarel, fryed in ghee; a dozen boiled fowls and cakes made of barley flour, fresh baked, with plenty of milk. They sat upon the ground agreeable to the custom of the country, in a garden adjoining the river, under the shade of a grove of date and fig-trees. The fish, fowls and bread, were very sweet and good; but the milk was sour, and not very palatable to an European. They did not make use of knives and forks, as in Europe, but ate with their fingers as the Arabs do, tearing the fowls and fish in pieces†.

Suke

* I fired at a crane among the willows, says Mr. Jackson; and instantly after the report, a large herd of wild hogs rushed out, some of them of such extraordinary size, that at first sight I could scarcely believe they were hogs. Their colour is a deep red. In the neighbourhood of Bussora some wild hogs have been killed, whose carcasses have weighed ten cwt. English. As the Arabs do not eat them, they are permitted to remain unmolested. It is said, that they continue growing as long as they live; and indeed the immense size of some of them seems to sanction such an opinion.

† Mr. Jackson informs us, that on this occasion he was much amused by observing the dexterity of the Arab women in baking their bread. They have a small place built with clay, between two and three feet high, having a hole at the bottom, for the convenience of drawing out the ashes; something similar to that of a lime kiln. The oven is usually about fifteen inches wide at top, and gradually grows wider to the bottom. It is heated with wood, and when sufficiently hot, and perfectly clear from smoke, having nothing but clear embers at bottom (which continue to reflect great heat), they prepare the dough in a large bowl, and mould the cakes to the desired size on a board or stone placed near the oven. After they have kneaded the cake to a proper consistence

Suke-Shue is a very large and populous town, and the residence of Sheikh Twyney, a very powerful Arab Prince. Mr. Jackson walked with the Sheikh through the town, and went into the Bazar, or market, which is about a mile long. It is opened at sun-rise, and continues till nine o'clock; it is then shut up, opened again at three, and continues till sun-set.

The Sheikh also took him into a coffee-house, where he was treated with coffee, after the custom of the country. He was also obliged to smoke tobacco, they presenting him with a pipe about a yard and half long. He sat down on a mat cross-legged, like the rest of the company, and they served the coffee in a small China cup about the size of half an egg-shell; but he could not get either milk or sugar, without which the beverage was rather unpleasant, till he became accustomed to it.

On the 30th they reached a village called Gomcreek, the neighbourhood of which abounds in game. Several branches of the river meet at this place; and a Collector of the Customs is stationed here. The river, a little above this place, is very broad, nearly as far as the eye can reach; but in many parts it is so very shallow, that reeds make their appearance above the surface of the water. Here they altered their course to the Eastward, and on the 1st of July, entered a river called by the Arabs Shat-el-Degela, which communicates with another named Shat-el-Hie, being a branch of the Tigris.

I cannot quit the Euphrates, says Mr. Jackson, without taking notice of its salubrious water, which is by much the most pleasant that I ever tasted. Though very muddy when it is first taken up, it soon becomes perfectly clear; and while I could get this water, I had not the least desire for either wine or spirits. They continued tracking up the river called Shat-el-Degela till six o'clock, when they made their boats fast to the banks, and pitched their tents not far from some Arab encampments.

The Sheikh represented to them, that this was a very dangerous situation, and recommended them to keep their arms in their tents, in case of an attack. They had each a gun, a brace of pistols, and a sabre; and the Sheikh, his brother, and all the guards, remained under arms during the night. They placed some centinels at a distance from the tents for fear of a surprize, and passed the watch-word from one to another the night through, but were not molested.

Whoever travels through these countries, ought not to put so much value on his life as Europeans in general do where they are perfectly secure, except from casualties. This country is in a state of perpetual warfare; many of the inhabitants, under no controul, live in a state of nature, and are not susceptible of the nobler passions. They murder and plunder, without remorse, all whom they can overpower, and are at war against all the world, except their own tribe. Such is the present state of one of the most fertile countries in the universe. No traveller is safe, having reason to expect every moment to be attacked by a superior force.

On the 2d of July they struck their tents, and arrived at the head of the Degela, when they entered a larger river, which is divided into two branches: the one running S. E. the other W*. At twelve o'clock they entered the river called by the Arabs Shat-el-Hie, running from the N. N. W.

The Sheikh always chose as open a country as he could find, to remain in all night, for fear of being attacked by the Arabs at a disadvantage.

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dence, they pat it a little, then toss it about with great xterity in one hand, till it is as thin as they choose to ake it. They then wet one side of it with water, at the me time wetting the hand and arm with which they put it to the oven. The wet side of the cake adheres fast to the de of the oven till it is sufficiently baked, when, if not id proper attention to, it would fall down among the bers. If they were not exceedingly quick at this work, e heat of the oven would burn the skin from off their nds and arms; but with such amazing dexterity do they rform it, that one woman will continue keeping three or ur cakes at a time in the oven till she has done baking. is mode, let me add, does not require half the fuel that is de use of in Europe.

* Whether these branches have been cut to water the country, or not, is uncertain; but it is probable they have. The ground for about forty yards from the river is usually three or four feet higher than it is farther inland. The larger branches are often near a quarter of a mile broad, and the smaller about half that distance. They make the country through which they pass exceedingly fertile; but there is no doubt that these different branches are much larger than they were originally, and that they are still increasing, as the Tigris, from which they are supplied, is much more rapid than the Euphrates, particularly at this season, when the freshes are coming down from the snowy mountains.

During

During the night they were much disturbed by the jackalls, who seemed very near, and made a most hideous noise.

The next day they were visited by some Arabs on horseback. They were about twenty in number, armed with spears and tolwas. As the horsemen approached, our Sheikh, with a double-barrelled gun in his hand, walked about twenty yards to meet the Chief of the other party, who also advanced before his people about the same distance. After some conversation between the two Chiefs, the whole advanced. The Chief was mounted on a beautiful Arab mare, and it is a general rule, that Sheikhs and men of consequence are always mounted on mares, which are usually valued at three times the price of horses*. There is much jungle (wood) in the neighbourhood of this place, and lions are very numerous. Parties of Arabs likewise frequently lie in wait here, and the Sheikh who conducted Mr. Jackson fully expected a night-attack; and he therefore, with his brother and all the guards, remained under arms all night, the Sheikh constantly walking round the tents with a double-barrelled gun in his hand. A very good look-out, and probably the preparations which the horsemen observed making for defence, prevented the travellers from being molested.

The heat of the sun was so excessive on the 4th of July, that the boatmen were not able to endure it. They were in general nearly naked, having no other covering than a small woollen cap, which barely fits the crown of the head. The rapid current of the river continues deepening the beds, and in consequence the Arabs are not able to water many parts of the country, which renders it uninhabitable except on the banks of the river. Where they cannot have water, the excessive heat of the sun soon destroys all vegetation, and particularly at this season. In the afternoon they passed a village on the western banks of the river, called Waasut. The river is here above half a mile broad. The Sheikh was particularly careful not to go near the village, but continued tracking up the opposite banks, and made as much haste as possible. "All the inhabitants," said the Sheikh, "are desperate thieves, and have no mercy on those who are so unfortunate as to fall into their hands; for they are under no government or controul except that of their own leaders, who are every whit as bad as themselves."

In the afternoon of July 5, they arrived at the town called Hie, from which this river takes its name. It is situated on the eastern banks; and, the inhabitants of this town not being much better than those of Waasut, the Sheikh mustered all his guards a little above the town, amounting to thirty men, all exceedingly well armed, and dressed in their best clothes. He spread a carpet on the ground, and with his brother, and another principal officer, sat down, having all the guards under arms draw up near them. Here they were visited by the principal men in the town, who were treated with pipes and coffee. The Sheikh, however, kept the double-barrelled gun lying on the carpet before him, and ready to fire in a moment; the other officers' men being equally prepared. This ceremony must appear very strange to those who are wholly unacquainted with the singular manners and customs of these people; but all this caution is perfectly necessary till they have given the salam and ate together. When that has been done, there can be no room for apprehension. An Arab, after he has eaten or drank with another, let him be ever so great a stranger, and of whatever religion or country, would sooner perish than suffer him to receive the least injury, either in person or property; and whoever, in distress, puts himself entirely under the protection of an Arab, may rely upon being defended in the most faithful manner†.

* To those who are strangers to the language, manners, and customs, of this country, it is no unuseful thing to recollect, that whenever a man is mounted on a mare it may be depended on that he is above the common class. Dress cannot be relied on; for a Sheikh will often have his meanest servant dressed much better than himself, and will eat out of the same dish with him, as if they were equals.

† An instance of this singular trait in the character of the Arabs occurred not long ago. A Frenchman was carrying dispatches to India, across the Great Desert, from Aleppo to Bussora. He had with him an interpreter, and an escort of about eighty men, mostly on camels. When about five days journey from Bussora, they were attacked in the evening by a wandering tribe of Arabs. The messenger had a double-barrelled gun, with which he shot the Sheikh of the hostile party; but they rushed with such fury at the first onset, that before he had time to charge again he was cut down with a sabre. Most of the messenger's guards being killed, they were stripped by the conquerors and the messenger among the rest, it being imagined that

It is customary for these people to lay very heavy contributions on vessels and passengers that pass this way, or plunder them when they do not comply with their demands: and in case of the least resistance, they will seize the boats and murder every person on board. In this they have an advantage over boats going up the river, which being obliged to track against both wind and stream, their progress is seldom more than four miles an hour; but going downwards there is very little danger; for the current being very rapid, and the wind usually blowing fresh from the N. W. all vessels go at a great rate, and particularly the small doneks, which sail remarkably fast. Hie is a small town surrounded by a mud wall; but there are a vast number of inhabitants in proportion to the size of the place.

The locusts in this country are very numerous. Mr. Jackson caught one of a different colour from the common locust, and much larger. Its very extraordinary appearance induced him make a sketch of it from life, of the exact natural size. Every part of it is green, except the under wings, which are crimson; and when flying it has a beautiful appearance. The eyes are very remarkable.

On the 7th, they entered the river Tigris, called by the Arabs, Shat-el-Amaar. Nearly opposite, on the eastern banks of the Tigris, is a small town called Coote, off which several stout vessels were lying at anchor. The main body of the river runs S. S. E.; and from the best observation they could make, it appeared that the river had been originally a canal cut to water the country, but had in course of time increased to a very large river, containing much more fresh water than the Thames. The Tigris is here above a mile broad; and, though reckoned at its height, on account of the snow melting upon the mountains, the banks were upwards of ten feet perpendicular above the surface of the water. Several large droves of camels were grazing upon its banks. The river is very crooked, winding from N. N. E. to South. They passed a Turkish camp pitched on the western banks, and made their boats fast to the same banks, about half a mile above them. The Turkish tents had a very handsome appearance, some being red, others green, and some white. The army consisted of six thousand horse; and the Bashaw had two armed vessels to attend him on the river; these were about a hundred and fifty tons burden each, and were built much like the Grabs in the East-Indies. This army had been sent to punish some rebellious Arabs in the neighbourhood, who had murdered the Sheikh of Hilla, and several other officers under the Turkish government. The Sheikh dressed himself and half a dozen of his slaves in their best clothes, and paid a visit to the Bashaw.

On the 10th Mr. Jackson informs us he had an opportunity of observing the progress of the hot winds, called by the natives Samiel, which sometimes prove very destructive, particularly at this season. They are most dangerous between twelve and three o'clock, when the atmosphere is at its greatest degree of heat. Their force entirely depends on the surface over which they pass. If it be over a desert, where there is no vegetation, they extend their dimensions with amazing velocity, and then their progress is sometimes to windward. If over grass, or any other vegetation, they soon diminish, and lose much of their force. If over water, they lose all their electrical

dead. After the engagement, the Arabs lighted fires to make coffee and refresh themselves; and, as is customary with them, sat on the ground in a circle round the fire. The messenger's wound not proving mortal, (for though he had one side of his face cut down, his skull was not materially injured) he at length recovered his senses; and finding himself entirely naked, as well as much weakened by the loss of blood, he had nearly given himself up to despair. But recollecting to have heard of this singular disposition of the Arabs, he resolved to try the experiment, as the only means of saving his life, or putting an end to his existence. He took a view of the Arabs sitting round the fire, and singled out him whom he thought most likely to be the chief, being the oldest-looking man in the company. Naked as he was, and almost covered with blood, he rushed into the circle and threw himself at his feet. His conjecture was right. This old man was the chief, who immediately covered him with his cloak. He was now at a loss for an interpreter; but, on search being made, the interpreter was found in a similar situation, wounded, but not dangerously. The messenger had his clothes and dispatches returned to him; and the chief entered into an agreement to deliver him safe at Bussora, on the messenger promising to pay him one hundred Venetian sequins. Both parties performed their agreement; the messenger arrived safe, and had engaged a dow to take him to Muscat. This having reached the English resident's ears, he seized the messenger with his dispatches, and had his wounds dressed by the English surgeon. It was imagined that the messenger, if suffered to proceed, would not have reached India, as his wounds required much surgical assistance.

fire, and ascend; yet he sometimes felt their effects across the river where it was at least a mile broad.

On the 12th they made their boats fast to the eastern banks of the river, and pitched their tents near the ruins of the ancient city of Ctesiphon. The river here takes a circuit to the southward for about ten miles, and leaves only a narrow neck of land, on which are still standing many lofty walls and towers, being fragments of ancient Ctesiphon. In their passage they met with several stout vessels, some upwards of two hundred tons burden, laden with fire-wood, and bound to Bagdad. They appeared to Mr. Jackson of such a singular construction, and so ill adapted for the purpose, that he was induced to take a sketch of one of them. The rudder is composed of a great quantity of rough timbers very aukwardly put together, and is guided by a tiller. They are built of very coarse materials, and covered with a thick coat of bitumen. The lofty head is generally ornamented with a variety of shells stuck into the bitumen. They form altogether a very uncouth specimen of naval architecture, and require twenty, and sometimes thirty trackers; but when the wind blows strong, even they are not able to move them. On enquiring the reason why they made use of vessels so ill adapted to the purpose, that a man with a very slight knowledge of naval architecture might soon discover their inconveniences, and observing, that a vessel built upon a plan similar to the English ware barges would carry as much cargo, draw less water, and might be worked with one-third of the men; the answer he received convinced him of the danger and inutility of attempting any innovation among these people. He was told, that the children invariably continued to follow the trade of their fore-fathers; thus the sons of a carpenter are all carpenters, &c.; that their fore-fathers had always built vessels upon the same plan, and that it would be reckoned very prophane in them to deviate from the custom of their ancestors. This completely solves the problem, and shews to what a length superstition and prejudice is carried among them. These people have continued from the earliest period to speak the same language, wear the same kind of dress, and eat and drink in the same manner. Their mode of warfare is still the same; and scarcely the slightest deviation has taken place in their manners and customs, prejudices and passions; though almost every other nation has undergone a thorough revolution within a few centuries.

Should a man here, convinced of a defect in any branch of trade, offer to adopt an improvement, complaint would soon be made to the Mufti, and the artist probably pay for his temerity with his life.

At sun-set on the 13th they passed Javer, on the western banks of the river. Though but a small town, it is much celebrated on account of a very beautiful mosque that stands in it. At nine o'clock they crossed the mouth of a large river running from the North, called by the Arabs Shat-el-Deaal, and at half past nine made their boats fast to the eastern banks of the river, which were upwards of twelve feet above the surface of the water.

On the 14th they reached Bagdad. The river was very crooked, being nearly round the compass, yet from the place where they set out in the morning was only three hours walk by land. They arrived at the house of Mr. J. L. Renaud (an agent to Mr. Manesty, of Bussora), which was very conveniently situated adjacent to the river*.

Bagdad is seated on the eastern banks of the Tigris. It is a large and populous city, extending along the banks of the river about three miles, and the length of the walls from the river being about two miles, gives it the form of an oblong square. The houses, though very inferior to the European, are much better built than those of Bussora, but nearly in the same stile. Many of the public buildings, such as mosques, minarets, and hummums, are constructed of hewn stone, and make a very handsome appearance. Here is also an extensive Bazar, which is well supplied with variety of articles; but the prices in general much higher than at Bussora. The Armenians are the principal merchants here

* An Englishman has at Bagdad a privilege which is not granted to the people of any other nation. Whatever baggage he may have with him, instead of being taken to the Custom-house, is allowed to be carried to the place where he is going to reside, and an officer of the customs is sent thither to examine it. This privilege was obtained by the solicitation of Mr. Manesty in favour of his country, and will be at all times advantageous to the interest as well as the convenience of a traveller.

the manufactories carried on are few, and those confined to articles for immediate use, as shoes, boots, clothes, sadlery, and culinary utensils. The Armenians at Mosul send great quantities of copper down the Tigris to Bagdad upon rafts of timber fastened together. On their arrival the rafts are sold, wood being very scarce here. The copper is afterwards shipped for Bussora on board large dows, which are usually about six months in performing the voyage thither and back again. The copper is in small round cakes about six inches broad, and nearly two inches thick in the middle, but gradually sloping to the edges. It is of a quality nearly the same as English battery cake copper. This trade, which has not long been carried on, is fast increasing to a very great extent; for sometimes ships sail from Bussora laden almost entirely with copper; and it is probable that it will in time prove prejudicial to the English manufactories. Labour being much cheaper in these countries than in Europe, they are enabled to carry it to market at a much cheaper rate; and this makes it very profitable to those at present concerned in it. Though Bagdad is much better built than any other city in this part of the world, it is still very inferior to many cities in Europe. Every house wears the appearance of a prison, as described in Bussora, but composed of better materials; they are in general of brick, and the timbers very good, being those which are floated down the Tigris. The streets are very narrow and dusty. Scorpions, tarantulas, and other noxious insects, are very numerous. Of the former Mr. Jackson frequently killed four or five in a night; they are of the large black kind, and their stings often prove mortal. All persons at this season of the year sleep on the tops of their houses; and the people run off with their clothes in their hands at sunrise; for as soon as it has risen above the horizon it becomes excessively hot. Mr. Jackson soon learned, however, that even looking over the parapet-wall was a deed of danger; for that the Turks would not hesitate a moment to shoot at any person whom they might discover overlooking their houses. Here are many cranes, much larger and very different from any in Europe. They build their nests upon the tops of the minarets and the loftiest houses, where they are never molested, and are in consequence very tame. As there are no canals to water the city, many poor people are constantly employed in carrying water from the river in skins. Some take it on their backs, while others have asses and mules. Without the walls, to the westward, is entirely desert, not having the least traces of vegetation, except on the banks of the river. Behind the city, to the northward, the same barrenness prevails; there is no water nor any cultivation. To the eastward, along the banks of the river, there are excellent gardens, which extend about four miles; and a great many houses filled with inhabitants stand without the walls. The city, however, is chiefly supplied with fruits and vegetables from the opposite side of the river, where there is much cultivation. The Bashaw and some of the principal people have country seats in this neighbourhood. This was the scite of ancient Seleucia, built by Seleucus, one of Alexander's generals, who succeeded to the government of this part of the country; and several of his coins are still to be met with in Bagdad. The gold coin is worth about two guineas; it bears as strong an impression of the head as the ancient Roman coins, but has a long beard. A little farther, towards Hilla, are still to be seen some ruins of ancient Babylon.

Bagdad at present is supposed to contain more treasure than any city of equal size in the world; and the immense quantity of specie and bullion found in the coffers of the late Kya (or Prime Minister) of Bagdad seems to warrant such a conjecture. He was murdered a few months ago by conspirators employed against him by the present Kya; and when the Bashaw seized on his property, an exact account was taken of his treasure, which amounted in value to upwards of three million sterling*. The present Kya can

* The following story is related of the late Kya by the merchants; and many of them, much to their sorrow, are enabled to vouch for the truth of it: it also proves to what a length many of the Turkish Ministers and Bashaws carry their tyranny and oppression. He was a man (say they) of superior abilities, had the confidence of the Bashaw, and kept a most strict watch over the conduct of all officers, civil and military; hence it was, that so many of them readily joined in the conspiracy. He was withal very avaricious, and invented many singular methods of adding to his treasure; among others, the following proved very productive: he always kept spies over the merchants in the Bazar; and when he heard of any dispute among them, he would first send for one of the parties, question him respecting

can neither read nor write. He was originally a Georgian slave boy, and brought up in the Haram; but was afterwards raised to an inferior office on the military establishment. Having heard that the Bashaw's daughter wished to marry him, he gained over some of the military and civil officers, and caused the Kya to be murdered one evening as he was returning from the Seraglio. When the Bashaw heard of it he immediately fled for protection into the Haram, where he concealed himself till he was informed that no injury was intended towards him. There was a considerable commotion in the city for a few days, which, however, was soon settled by orders being issued, that whoever was found in arms in the streets should immediately be put to death. The present Kya was soon after appointed to succeed, and married to the Bashaw's daughter. When it became necessary to transmit an account of the affair to Constantinople, it was stated, that the late Minister had intended to poison the Bashaw, which was the cause of his being put to death. The present Kya does not appear to be thirty years of age, is comely, and has a very graceful figure; but in all probability he will not continue long in office; the lives of princes in this country are extremely precarious, perhaps more so than in any other country in the universe, as no less than seven have been assassinated within the last twelve months.

Few Europeans transact any business at Bagdad, or keep any Consuls there. The English have no Consul, but their business is managed by an Armenian named Coja Makell, a very respectable man. Mr. Jackson had letters to another Armenian merchant named Coja Stephon Babeck, a very worthy man, who speaks tolerably good English, and is the only resident in the whole city that understands a word of it. The French at present have here a Consul named Rousseau, who is a relation of the famous writer Jean Jaques. They do not, however, carry on much business here, having at present no communication with India.

Mr. Renaud, though only a clerk to Mr. Manesty, waited on the Bashaw for a firmaun for Mr. Jackson, which he obtained under the Bashaw's seal, and having engaged a Tatar, named Siad Ahmed Aga, to attend him, he prepared for his departure. The Mookadar (or keeper of the seals) paid us a visit, which was considered as a very great honour. He gave directions to the Tatar in my presence (says Mr. Jackson) to be attentive to the preservation of my person and property, for that otherwise he should forfeit his head. I had now for the first time an opportunity of observing the ceremony of perfuming, &c. which is usually paid to men of consequence. But the Mookadar was an exception to one very general custom amongst the Turks, as he did not smoke tobacco. On his taking leave he was complimented with an elegant white muslin turban and cumberband, the articles most commonly presented on visits of ceremony.

Mr. Jackson's Tatar dress being ready, as well as the trappings of his horse, he began to prepare for his departure from Bagdad. Though he was to travel under the title of Consul, yet it was necessary to wear the Tatar dress, to avoid being insulted by the populace, as is always the case when they discover an European, whom they call Fringui. He had also his head shaved, which he found to be of great service, as it kept him cool, and was more convenient to him in wearing the Tatar dress. He had entered into a written agreement with his Tatar to give him eight hundred piasters; five hundred to be paid in ready money at Bagdad before his departure, and the remaining three hundred on his safe arrival at Constantinople; and the Tatar engaged not to take any other passengers or merchandize under his care. Mr. Jackson took bills from Bagdad and Constantinople both for his Tatar's three hundred piastres, and the money he had

specting the matter in dispute, and, under a plea of the government being in want of money, enquire how much he would give to gain his cause. The sum was usually in proportion to the wealth of the complainant, and the animosity between the parties; sometimes so much as four or five thousand piastres. He would then set this man aside, send for the other party, and examine him respecting the quarrel, and as to the sum that he would give to gain his cause. This done, he would confront the two parties, and decide in favour of him who had given the greater sum, returning the other his money, with some harsh censures of his conduct. At length this practice of the Kya was attended with a very good effect. The merchants found themselves egregiously fooled and fleeced, that whenever any dispute occurred, they were very glad to settle it amicably among themselves, taking all possible care to prevent its reaching the ears of the Kya.

provided

rovided for the remainder of his journey. He
d also letters of credit on Constantinople from
r. Manesty, in case he should have occasion
e more money. His dress consisted of a yellow
p about a foot high, broad at top and almost
t, but becoming gradually narrower till it fitted
e head. The lower part of the cap was cover-
l all round with black lambskin about four
ches deep, the inside lined and quilted, and in
e upper part stuffed with wool extremely tight.
eing thus calculated to resist any weapon, it is
excellent safeguard to the head. This cap,
hich being very heavy, feels unpleasantly at
st, is called a Culpack, and is only worn by
e Tatars. His other articles of apparel were,
brown cloth coat trimmed with a broad black
k-binding, wrapped quite round the body with
ort wide sleeves, and hanging down to the calf
the leg; blue Turkish trowsers trimmed with
ack silk binding, made very wide, but button-
g tight round the small of the leg; and strong
d boots to pull over the trowsers as high as the
lf of the leg. The under-dress is a Turkish
wn, with long sleeves buttoning close to the
st; and a shirt without a collar. Turks of all
scriptions have the neck entirely bare. The
tars wear drawers; but Mr. Jackson wore a
ir of strong leather breeches under his trowsers,
ich he found of great service. A cumberband
out six yards long was tied very tightly round
waist, and in this he hung a brace of pistols,
ide having a large Turkish sabre fastened
nd his middle with a belt. His Euro
thes, and whatever he had not immediat
ion for, he had packed up in wax cloth;
rts, stockings, and other necessaries that he
uld have occasion for on the journey, he had
into a leather-pouch, which was fastened
ind the saddle.

Being completely equipped, at five o'clock on
25th of July, he took leave of his companions.
Jackson and his Tatar guide rode near a
e through the Bazar, where the merchants,
ing been apprized when he should go, were
ting with their letters. His Tatar took up-
rds of two hundred under his charge, this
g the only method they have of forwarding
rs from one city to another. The merchants
Tatars are, therefore, always upon very
d terms; and the office of Tatar, as it is of
greatest trust, is also very profitable; for, be-

side their other emoluments, they receive considerable presents from the merchants. The letters are not any great inconvenience to them, giving no farther trouble than the mere carriage; for when a Tatar arrives at any considerable city, the merchants immediately go to the Conac for their letters. Near the western gate of the city a caravan was preparing to set out, several hundred camels being already loaded. As soon as we were without the gates (says Mr. Jackson) we set off at a brisk trot, the first part of our road being a perfect desert, without the least appearance of vegetation. Having ridden about four miles, we overtook the Tatar's servant with three horses, the one on which he rode had my European clothes, a few necessaries belonging to the Tatar, and a couple of leathern bottles with water. The second horse had only a cloth on him and a bridle; being brought as a reserve, in case of any accident happening to the other horses. The third was laden with two bales of merchandize, a thing expressly against our agreement. I had actually deprived myself of many necessaries that I might not be encumbered; and now finding that my Tatar had deceived me, I thought of returning to Bagdad, and charging him with his breach of contract. Reproaching him for his conduct, I threatened to return, which alarmed him very much, as such a step would in all probability have ruined him. He solemnly assured me, that he should only take them to Mosul. Though much disconcerted by this conduct in my Tatar, yet having already paid him five hundred piastres, I thought it better to proceed, even though I might be detained a few days. The Tatar then promising to make as much haste as possible, we continued our journey, and about nine miles from Bagdad arrived at the banks of a branch of the Tigris. The road was here very rough, and full of stunted shrubs. We soon left the river, and passed through the town of Yankja. In the vicinity were several flocks of sheep, watched by shepherds for fear of the jackalls, which were very numerous, and made a most hideous noise. On crossing a plain westward of Yankja, I felt much inconvenience from a hot and sulphureous wind. I tied a handkerchief over my mouth and nose till it passed us, and my Tatar did the same; but I began to apprehend some danger. As those winds were so strong even in the night, what havock might

they

they not make when the sun was at its height, and the earth at its greatest heat! We continued our journey at the rate of about five miles an hour till eleven o'clock, when we arrived at a town called Doucolla, where we slept in the open air on a quilt and a pillow, with all our clothes on. This place and Yankja are both small straggling towns, every house being surrounded by a separate mud wall.

On the 21st they set out at half past four o'clock in the morning and were soon joined by a Turk with a servant and three horses. They passed through several villages, and saw many very fine fields of corn, with great quantities of game. Small cuts that led from a large canal supplied the country with water, and made it very rich; the bridges over these cuts were narrow, and sometimes dangerous for the horses to pass, being only a few sticks laid across, and covered with clay. They continued their route at the rate of four miles an hour till half past six o'clock, when we arrived at a Conac in a small village called Hope. A very fine stream of clear water ran through the village, in which were large quantities of turtle. At seven they arrived at a small town, surrounded by a mud wall, called Massabbas, near the banks of the river Deaal. In this neighbourhood were the remains of some military entrenchments. Here were several wild hogs, some of which were very large, and of an extraordinary size. They crossed the river Deaal over a stone bridge which had two very lofty stone pillars at one end, and in the evening arrived at a village called Chubuccan, where they slept on the bare ground in the open air; and on the next evening they arrived at Adanaque.

This town is situated at the foot of a range of mountains, running East and West, and is well watered by some clear rivulets that run from the mountains. Though here is plenty of stone, yet all the houses are built with clay, and are only one story high. In this place cranes are so abundant, that there is scarcely a house which has not several nests upon it. They are very tame, and the inhabitants never molest them. When any thing disturbs these birds, they make a violent clatter with their long beaks, which is sometimes repeated by the others all over the town; and this noise will sometimes continue for several minutes. It is as loud as a watchman's rattle, and not much unlike it in sound. From Adanaque they set out on fresh horses, and ascended the mountains by very narrow passes. Some were cut through the solid rock, giving room only for one horse to pass at a time. On the top of one of these mountains some Arabs were encamped, who exacted a few piastres from the Tatar*. After crossing these mountains they entered an extensive vale, through which a considerable river runs from West to East, called by the natives Shat-el-Narin. There were several Arabs with their flocks on the banks of the river. Though a considerable body of water, it is a fine clear stream; but has no bridge over it near this place†.

They continued their journey till they arrived at a town called Karatapa. Here the Tatar dismissed the servant he brought from Bagdad after giving him a severe horse-whipping. After they left Karatapa, though the road was often very rugged, and they had sometimes difficulty enough to discern any track, they rode full gallop the greater part of the way. One servant usually leads one or two horses, and those are whipped by the Tatar or other servants who follow. Travelling still on full gallop, they passed many of those encampments where the Arabs are stationed to exact money. As the night was very dark, no moon being visible, and the road exceedingly rough, there was scarcely a horse among the party but had one or more falls, though those cattle are in general very sure footed. They arrived at Kuppree after crossing the river Narin over a stone bridge; and in the morning of the 23d arrived at a town called Tuscomartee, where they rested.

Tuscomartee is very pleasantly situated to the North, at the foot of some hills, and is well

* There were indeed only half a dozen of them, but they were all well armed; and were getting their matchlocks ready, in case the Tatar had refused to comply with their demands. It requires some time for a man to prepare a matchlock, as he has to strike a light. They are very certain at a steady mark, but otherwise cannot be depended upon. They are chiefly rifle-barrels, and the Arabs are near a quarter of an hour in charging them.

† About the banks of this river were several very curious animals, a species of the Jerboa is described by Buffon. They burrow like rabbits, seem very tame, and run very fast upon their hind legs. The tail is extremely long in proportion to the body, and has a large white tuft at the end. When sitting on the ground they have much the appearance of rats, but are about twice the size, and of a much lighter colour.

watered by several clear streams that flow from them. It commands a very fine prospect over an extensive vale to the South; in which it should seem that in winter there is a great deal of grass, if we might judge from the long brown tufts that still remained. The sun is so very powerful at this season as to destroy all vegetation, except near the rivulets that flow from the mountains, where are numerous flocks of sheep and herds of cattle. These, however, the shepherds are always obliged to drive to the town in the evening, on account of the wild beasts. Though there is a view over this vale for nearly fifteen or twenty miles, not a single habitation was to be seen. Continuing to gallop the whole of the way over a barren country, they arrived at a town called Karakoosh, which is situated on the North of the same extensive vale, which is about twenty miles over, and has a chain of mountains on each side, running East and West. About four miles from Karakoosh they arrived at a Tepellee, a town in the same vale, watered by several streams flowing from the mountains on the North. We did not stop at Tepellee, but continued our journey, riding at about four miles an hour, the roads being rough, and sometimes intricate*.

On the 24th they arrived at Kircook, also situated in the vale before-mentioned. They soon after ascended the chain of mountains on the right. Near the summit are several Naphtha pits. These are dug out of the rock, are about three feet deep, and into them the Naptha oozes in a thick liquid, having a very strong smell, nearly resembling that of our coal-tar. Just above these pits were several rocks of salt. They soon after found themselves among some hills shaped like hay-cocks, which appear to have been so formed by water, being covered with pebbles and shells, like those usually seen on the sides of the rivers. Toward the top of this chain of mountains, these round hills were very large; but they gradually diminished for about two miles, when the travellers descended into an extensive vale. This immense range of mountains appears as if it had once formed a barrier. Along the top are the remains of a very strong wall, built with stone and cemented with bitumen.

Soon after descending into the vale, they gallopped the greater part of the way, to Alton Kuppree, which is a large and populous town, built on an island formed by the river Alton, which divides itself close above the town, and uniting again a little below it, the town nearly covers the whole island. Here is at present a very large garrison of Turkish soldiers; and the town may be deemed impregnable, being difficult of access, and the use of artillery not known in this country. On entering the town we crossed the river, over which is an exceedingly high stone bridge of one arch. The passage over this bridge is very disagreeable, it being exceedingly steep on both sides, and like a Gothic arch running up to a point in the center. The pavement upon the bridge too is very bad. This town is at present the capital of Turkish Curdistan, and a Bashaw resides in it.

On leaving this town they crossed the other branch of the river, over which is a bridge of two arches. This river contains a large body of water, and falls into the Tigris, a few miles below the town.

Evrill, which is thirty-two miles from Alton Kuppree, appears to have been formerly a place of some importance, for it exhibits the remains of an old castle on the top of an artificial hill on the West side of the town, and in the vicinity are several Naphtha pits. It is said to be the ancient Arbela, near which Alexander fought with Darius, and the country for some distance round it is an open champaign.

On the 25th they set out from Karakoosh, a little after nine o'clock; but the sun was now become excessively hot, the inhabitants began to retire into the shade, and some of them down into deep vaults. This part of the country is reckoned the most dangerous at this season, on account of the Samiel winds, which are now at their greatest strength, and more people are destroyed by them than in any other way. Both my Tatar and myself being exceedingly well mounted, we

* The Tatars are excellent riders, being the greater part of their time on horseback; they have not, however, the least regard for the beasts, but gallop up hill or down without distinction, and keep on till sometimes the horses fall under the fatigue, unable to go any farther. Nevertheless, these horses are much more hardy and able to endure fatigue, than those of Europe. The riders do not seem to be much afraid of a fall, which often happens in gallopping down hill; for the cap preserves the head, the cumberband the body, and the strong boots the legs; and the foot is very easily disengaged from the stirrups, which are iron-plates, nearly as long as the foot.

set out at full speed, and continued that pace most part of the way, which is near twenty miles; for the Samiel winds were beginning to rise before we could reach Mosul, and they would have gained strength so fast, that there is no doubt if they had been an hour later, exposed as they were, the whole party, men and horses, would have been laid dead on the ground. They reached Mosul at a quarter before eleven o'clock, after crossing the Tigris over a bridge of boats.

Mosul, which is said by some of the inhabitants to be the ancient Nineveh, is pleasantly situated on a declivity upon the right banks of the Tigris. What it may formerly have been it may be difficult to say, but it is now a very large town, and contains many handsome buildings, exclusive of the hummums, mosques, and minarets, which are all built of hewn stone. Here is not so much reserve of manners as in the cities to the eastward, women of all descriptions being nearly as much exposed as in Europe. The town is very populous, and comprises men of various religions; but the great bulk of the inhabitants are Curds, or, as the Arabs call them, Kurks. The Bazar is large and well supplied; and most of the articles, except clothing, are very moderate. The people appear much more industrious than they are in any of the towns between this place and Bussorah. Various manufactories are carried on, and in some they even excel the Europeans. Their saddles and trappings for horses, in particular, are very elegant. They also make carpets of silk, with flowers worked in them, which seem to vie with the best of our articles. They are also very dexterous in making edgings and trimmings of various kinds, both for men and women. Their manufactories in copper and iron too are very numerous; and a great variety of articles made of those metals are sent down the Tigris as low as Bussora, exclusive of the immense quantity of metal sent down unmanufactured; for they get the ore in abundance from the mountains to the northward. The town of Mosul is surrounded by a strong lofty wall built with hewn stone. The space within the wall is not entirely occupied by houses, many places being covered with ruins, which proves that it has once been much more populous than at present. Directly opposite the Conac where Mr. Jackson stopped was the Court of Justice. The trials here are very short; for in less than five minutes after the prisoner is taken before the court, if he be found guilty, he is conveyed to receive his punishment. The Court of Justice is opened at sun-rise; but it does not continue above two hours; for, as the reader will perceive, they have a method of dispatching business very quickly*. There was not a person in the whole town that understood either French or English.

They left Mosul on the 26th of July, and soon after they had left the town, many of the horsemen, to give their beasts a breathing, exercised with their spears, which to me was one of the finest sights I had ever beheld. The officer wore a scarlet gown and cameline; his cap was near two feet high, and shaped like the crown of a hat; his beard was long and black; and he was about thirty years of age. The soldiers were dressed in white, with scarlet caps and turbans, and only wore mustaches. The unsettled state of the country compelled them to travel up the right banks of the Tigris. The country through which they passed is very well cultivated, producing great quantities of corn; and nearly the whole of the way are ruins on both sides of the river, some at a considerable distance, and others close on the banks. This village where they arrived is situated on the top of an almost perpendicular cliff, about a hundred and fifty yards above the river. The road soon became very hilly and rugged: but after having got through some very steep and narrow passes, where only one horse could go at a time, they again came to the banks of the Tigris. The night was dark and the road so very bad, that it was difficult to make any progress. They then turned to the southward, leaving the Tigris on the right, and joined a large caravan going to Diarbekr. It consisted of about two thousand camels, three

* "I here found," says Mr. Jackson, "that I could not proceed by the usual route, on account of the then turbulent state of the country. The inhabitants of Jesseera were in open rebellion against the Turkish government, had killed the Bashaw, and committed many other excesses. I was also told, that it was very dangerous to go even a few miles from Mosul without a strong guard. In consequence of this information, my Tatar waited on the Bashaw with the firmaun, who immediately ordered a guard of an odjak and sixteen horsemen."

thousand

thousand asses and mules, and one thousand horses; the whole being conducted by an Arab Sheikh, with a considerable number of guards.

There are no fixed residences in this country, and it is much infested by wandering hordes of banditti.

On a plain near to a rivulet is a lofty mound of earth, which commands an extensive prospect. On the top of this mound the Sheikh kept a watch the whole of the day, to prevent a surprize*.

Here Mr. Jackson caught some locusts of an extraordinary size, and very thick in proportion to their length. They have no wings, move slowly, and are easily taken. He soon found it necessary to be careful that they did not bite him, for he was persuaded that they could easily have bitten his finger to the bone. He tried one with a twig about as thick as a quill, which it bit through instantly. He then dissected one, and on examining one of its grinders found it nearly as large as a human tooth, and so hard, that he was not able to make any impression on it with his penknife. The grinders were nearly the colour of mahogany†.

Being joined by the Diarbekr Tatars and five Arabs, which made their party amount to twenty horse, they left the caravan, and pushed forward, at the rate of six miles an hour, over an open desert country, in which not a habitation nor any species of cultivation were to be seen. At sun-rise on the 28th of July, they came to some rivulets, whose banks were covered with grass and rushes, growing very thick and long. Among these were several wild hogs, which rushed out to the neighbouring plain. A drove of about twenty run towards a rivulet, as if they intended to cross the travellers; and all the noise the whole party could make was not sufficient to turn them‡. There is no fixed residence to be seen near this place, and the tents are only temporary, to accommodate travellers who are obliged to pass through this unfrequented route, on account of the present disturbed state of the country.

Continuing their route, and after travelling ten miles nearly due West, over an open country which appears to have been once inhabited and cultivated, though now entirely forsaken, they came to some fine streams of water, on the banks of one of which are the ruins of a city, which appears to have been once very extensive, and nearly in the shape of a half moon. Here were many hewn stones of very large dimensions; and among the ruins was a stone coffin, with the lower part entire, but not any inscription either on the stones or on the coffin. About this unfrequented place no living creatures are to be seen, except wild hogs, a few wolves, and some eagles, the latter very tame. The streams, however, abound with fish.

On the 29th they arrived at Nissibin, which is at present a small and miserable place; but the many circumjacent ruins imply that it has once been of more consequence. About six miles westward from Nissibin are some magnificent

* Of these lofty mounds of earth there are many in this country, and they are no doubt artificial, as they always stand singly on extensive plains. They must, however, have cost much labour, some of them being extremely large.

† Finding that they were not molested by flies or other insects, and ascribing this circumstance to the excessive heat of the sun at this season, he made an experiment on one of these large locusts, by exposing it to the sun, which actually killed it in less than an hour. He also found that flies, when exposed in the middle of the day, fell down almost instantly; and that all kinds of insects must either get into some shade, or inevitably perish.

‡ Being exceedingly well mounted, says Mr. Jackson, they pursued them at full speed, having with me two Arabs armed with their long spears. We overtook them at the rivulet, when the whole herd rushed through, and ran across the plain, except one, which attempted to hide himself among the rushes. The Arabs with their spears soon found him out. He attempted to run across the plain after the others, but we pursued closely, and turned him. I soon found that the Arabs were more dexterous than myself, for they had wounded him before I was able to get a cut at him with my sabre. After he had been wounded two or three times, he became exceedingly furious, and ran at our horses, while we endeavoured to keep him off with our weapons. The Arabs had the advantage with their long spears, as I could not cut him with my sabre till I was very near him. Through my inattention and want of experience, he actually touched my horse with his tusks, and I was very near being dismounted. Such an accident might have proved fatal, as the hog would soon have destroyed me while on the ground. He also touched one of the Arab's horses, but did not greatly injure either, the horses being very quick in their motions. He foamed at the mouth, and snatched at the spears, or any thing that came near him. While he had strength we were all afraid to close upon him, and only wounded him as he run at us. He soon, however, became weak through loss of blood, and we then closed upon him, spearing and cutting till at last he fell. I did not observe that he made the least noise either during the chace or while we were killing him. He was rather under the middle size, and his colour was a deep red. They defend themselves much longer than I could have imagined, and when irritated, no animal can be more furious.

ruins of an ancient palace, which appears to have been very lofty, some parts of the building being still of a great height. Some Curds were drawing water from a well in the centre of the inner square, about forty yards deep. The water was very cold and exceedingly clear. The walls of the building are of astonishing thickness; a stone staircase remains almost entire; and some parts of the walls, which have been undermined, are so strongly cemented, that in their fall they still adhere together.

About twelve miles westward of the first ruins is another heap, among which a very lofty arch remains entire. Near these ruins, and a little out of the road towards the mountains, were some young Curd women milking their goats. The features of these women were much handsomer than those of the Arabs, and they are nearly as fair as the women in England.

Being now again exposed in the middle of the day, the excessive heat of the sun was very troublesome. The hot winds too began to collect; but before they had acquired strength enough to be dangerous, the travellers passed the village called Arin, and ascended the side of the mountain towards Mardin, when they were out of their reach, these winds never prevail in elevated situations; and whenever they shape their course towards a mountain, they soon subside*. Though there is much cultivation and some fine pasture in the vale below, the people are obliged to drive their flocks towards the mountains, whenever and so long as those winds prevail.

Mardin, situated at the top of a very lofty and rugged mountain, is a city of considerable size, and very populous. The greater part of the inhabitants are Armenians, who are very industrious, and carry on several manufactories. The city is surrounded by a strong and lofty wall built with hewn stone; and on the summit of the mountain is a strong fort, on which a few cannon are mounted. The city is built on the south side of the mountain, at a part where it is extremely steep. The houses are well built. The streets run East and West, and have steps communicating from one to another. The bases of the houses in the upper street are even with the tops of the houses in the street below. The city is very well supplied with water, and of good quality. The inhabitants, who seem to be a hospitable well-disposed people, enjoy a pure air, have as fair complexions as the people in England, and in general appear ruddy and healthy. Many of the women are very beautiful, and expose their persons nearly as much as the ladies in Europe. Provisions, and vegetables in particular, are plentiful, good, and cheap; they have also most kinds of fruits, and of the finest quality, the climate being exceedingly hot in the valleys, and temperate on the mountains. This city, by its situation, may be said to be impregnable; and some historians affirm, that Tamerlane laid siege to it for three years, without being able to reduce it. Finding that it would be dangerous travelling to Diarbekr without protection, the Tatar waited on the Bashaw with the firmaun, who immediately gave orders for a guard.

On the 30th they left Mardin, accompanied by one of the Diarbekr Tatars and his attendants, and descended the north side of the mountain on which the city is built; of which, though very steep and rocky, every little patch of ground capable of cultivation bore proofs of the industry of the Armenians, in abundance of grapes, apples, pears, plumbs of various sorts, cucumbers, melons, and almost all kinds of European fruits and vegetables. The Curd women here labour in the fields as well as the men, and resemble much the peasantry of England. Among the hills they continued travelling for near twenty miles, when they gradually diminished in their descent, and cultivation re-appeared. Some people were sowing, and others reaping. They have cattle and horses in abundance, very few sheep, but a great number of goats, which seem better adapted to the situation. The hills in general were thickly planted with trees.

Here are a great number of small sheds made of the branches of trees, having their door-way toward the North. The people live in them in preference to houses at this season of the year, and they were very full of inhabitants, who appeared to be all diligently employed. The

* From near the top of these mountains, Mr. Jackson had an opportunity of observing the progress of the hot winds, which was nearly similar to what he had observed of them when on the banks of the Tigris, with this difference only, that this being a mountainous situation, and the other quite level, they here lost their force by approaching the mountains, and in the other case by crossing the river

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women dress differently from both the Arabs and Turks. They wear a cap like that of an Hussar, seven or eight inches deep, covered with a white cloth, and bound with a shawl or handkerchief round the forehead. Part of the white cloth protects the neck from the sun; but the face below the forehead is entirely exposed. Over their under dress, they wear a loose gown with short wide sleeves, tied round the waist by a sash. They wear no stockings, but have yellow Turkish slippers. They spin with a rock and spindle, and some of them weave. They appear to be as happy people as exist in the world, and, indeed, content appears in every countenance.

Among the hills in this part lions are very numerous, and destroy many of the flocks belonging to the industrious inhabitants.

At Mardin, and to the southward of that extensive range of lofty mountains, the Arabic is the prevailing language. To the northward, the Turkish language is more common.

On the 31st, after fording the Tigris, which was here very broad, they entered a fine level well-cultivated country; and travelling at the rate of four miles an hour, again forded the Tigris at Diarbekr. They had to wait till sunrise, however, before the gates could be opened.

Diarbekr is a large populous city, and the capital of an extensive province of the same name. It is pleasantly situated on an eminence upon the western banks of the Tigris, and surrounded by a strong lofty wall built with hewn stone. On the land-side it has once been protected by three walls and two ditches, part of which are still to be seen. Toward the river, which runs nearly half round the city, nature has strongly fortified it by a solid rock about twenty feet perpendicular. On the walls are several towers, in which a guard is constantly kept. They have also some cannon here, chiefly brass field pieces of a small calibre, and a few brass mortars; but very few of either are serviceable. The city commands an extensive and delightful prospect over a fertile country, and the winding streams of the Tigris add much to the beauty of the scene. It is well watered by means of a canal from the Tigris, which is cut several miles above, and in some places through very rough ground. A branch of this canal runs on the outside of the walls, on the western side of the city, and soon after falls into the river. On this branch are several corn mills; and it being very steep where those mills are built, the water falls upon the wheel, and by this means a small body of water acquires great power. They are something like the over-shot mills in England.

The houses are built with hewn stone, and the streets all paved. Many of the public edifices are very elegant. The Armenian cathedral is a large and handsome structure, about the length of Westminster-hall, but not so wide. The roof is supported by two rows of pillars, and the whole of the floor is covered with carpets, for even the Turks on entering it pull off their shoes. The Armenian mode of worship is nearly similar to that of the Roman Catholics; they have their crucifixes and burning lamps. In the court before the cathedral is a very handsome fountain, which throws its water to a considerable height. They manufacture copper, iron, wool, cotton, silk, and several other staples. Some of their wool is very fine, and the weavers are numerous. People of the same trade usually live together; thus, one street contains nothing but weavers; another street, shoe-makers; another, smiths, &c. Their leather is very good, and they work it exceedingly well. Here are a great many dyers, and the waters of the Tigris are said to be peculiarly adapted to the purposes of that trade. In some branches, these people are equal, if not superior, to many European; but the weavers are very inferior to the English; and the cloth they make, whether of woollen, cotton, or silk, is always very narrow. They entertain a very high opinion of the British manufactures, and the very name of an Englishman is sufficient to gain the greatest respect. The superfine broad cloth worn by the principal people is of English manufacture, as are also their watches, of which latter a great many have Arabic characters. People of all descriptions seem here to enjoy much liberty. The various sects of Christians have their chapels and churches, and each follows his own mode of worship without molestation. The city has two gates to the westward, which are the only ones ever opened. There is one to the eastward, but it is always kept shut, and people are in consequence obliged to go round the greater part of the city, which covers about a square mile, all the walls, except to the southward, being quite straight, and about a mile long. Above the walls, on the east side of the city,

city, is a path cut through the solid rock, and another leading across the hill towards the river. On the side of this path are many holes cut out of the rock, large enough to hold half a dozen people, and into many of these the water falls from the rock perpendicularly. The lofty trees near the rock form an agreeable shade, and make it a pleasant cool retreat, so that the Armenian women and children may be frequently seen bathing. The women are as fair as any in England; but they walk much better than the fair sex in Europe, their loose dress allowing more free action to the body, to which Europeans are entire strangers. Though Diarbekr is a populous city, provisions plentiful, good, and cheap, every inhabitant enjoying full liberty, and that it is in many other respects a desirable place to live in, yet there is one thing which is both disagreeable and dangerous, and reflects great disgrace on its government: the circumjacent country, to a considerable extent, is so much infested with banditti, that no one can travel to or from the city without a strong military guard.

On the 1st of August they left Diarbekr, and arrived the next day at Argeenah, which is a large and populous town built in a most extraordinary situation. The mountain on which it is founded, is much steeper than that of Mardin, and cannot be ascended in front. There is, therefore, a road up each side of the mountain; and across the front of it are little narrow tracks, so very steep that a false step would be inevitable destruction both to horse and rider. What could induce the building of a town in such a situation it is difficult to conjecture. There is an extensive plain below, with plenty of water; yet this is left wholly without cultivation, except a little below the Argeenah mountain*. Above Medan is a mountain which is commonly called Argeenah Medan. It is a considerable smelting-place, and had between twenty and thirty smelting-houses at work†. They collect from the surrounding mountains iron, copper, and silver ore, and some gold. These they do not dig out of mines, as is the case in most countries, but collect it from the surface. A great number of men and boys are employed in breaking pieces off the rocks; but the mountains are so steep, that they are obliged to carry the ore on the backs of asses and mules. There is scarcely any vegetation. The poor labouring people are very numerous, and go almost naked.

Having passed many dreadful precipices, the paths being frequently not more than a foot broad, and saw several skeletons of horses that had fallen down those dangerous places, they came into a very pleasant valley, through which the Tigris runs. This is the most western branch of the Tigris, which rises among some hills at the head of this valley, and here several streams uniting form a tolerably large river.

On the other side of this valley there is a considerable salt-water lake, fifteen miles long and about four broad. Though several small rivulets run into this lake, none run out of it. Towards the west end of it is a small island called Gurgeik, from which the lake takes its name. The island is entirely covered with houses; and here are great numbers of boats, the inhabitants receiving water and every necessary from the shore.

After quitting the lake they got again among some lofty mountains, and arrived at a large town called Germilly, and on reaching the Conac, they received every attention that their situation required; but as their beds were on the top of the Conac in the open air, they could not sleep after sun-rise. After riding about eight miles over a very beautiful and well cultivated country, they reached another considerable town called Kessireek. They remained here all day under some trees by the side of a pleasant stream, and at night slept upon the ground in the open air. While Mr. Jackson staid at this place several people belonging to the town brought their spinning machines, and began spinning under the shade of the trees, by which they made considerable progress with a very simple machine. By these machines one man spins two threads, twist

* The mountain appears at a distance like a barren rock, incapable of producing any vegetation; and, indeed, there is no spontaneous product; but the industry of the inhabitants amply repairs the deficiency. In many places they have gardens, producing various kinds of fruits and vegetables, and in others they even carry mould to make little artificial gardens. They have plenty of good water, and the mountain abounds in iron ore, in the extracting of which a great many people are employed.

† The officer who superintends the smelting houses is usually esteemed the most confidential servant in the Turkish government, and is perfectly independent of the Basha of Diarbekr, though Medan is within his Pachalic.

the two threads he has spun before, and turns the wheel at the same time.

On the 5th they arrived at a large smelting-town, called Gaban Medan. It is extremely populous, and great numbers of its inhabitants are employed in collecting ore from the neighbouring mountains, as at Argeenah Medan. Here is also a very handsome mosque, and a lofty minaret, both built with hewn stone. The town is seated near the bottom of a steep mountain, a river running below it in a very deep channel, which soon after joins the Euphrates.

The banks of the Euphrates are about a mile from the Gaban Medan. The river here ran in a very deep channel, and the way to it was down a narrow path cut through the solid rock. They then crossed in a ferry-boat, capacious enough to carry fifteen or twenty horses. The river is at this place much larger than might be expected at so great a distance from its mouth. Mr. Jackson drank the water, and found it had a peculiar taste, wholly unlike that of any other water that he had ever tasted. After crossing the Euphrates, they entered a strait path between two lofty mountains, by which they continued ascending for nearly two hours. On the top the ground is highly cultivated. A little farther are some higher mountains, on which are no signs of culture. From these, however, there is a most extensive prospect. To the northward is a chain of exceedingly lofty mountains, ranging N. W. and S E. having their tops covered with snow. Running along the bases of these lofty mountains, the Euphrates receives many very large streams that flow from them; and this it is that gives it the appearance of extraordinary amplitude near its source. On the left, to the southward, are many stupendous mountains which supply the other branch of the Euphrates; for in this way it receives almost the whole of its contents, no large rivers joining it till it meets the Tigris.

Many of the people in this country, during the sultry summer months, leave their towns and villages, which lie chiefly in vallies, and encamp upon some lofty hills, taking their flocks with them. On the mountains they enjoy a cooler purer air, and in general appear as fair and ruddy as the country people in England.

Leaving this encampment, they descended some rugged passes by a road so very bad, that it was sometimes with much difficulty they could make their way. At length they reached a small town called Emir, situated on the west side of a pleasant and well cultivated valley, with a very fine stream of water running to the North.

From Emir they passed a very hilly and woody country, with seldom any track to direct them. On this account they often lost their way; the Tatar's guide not being well acquainted with the country. Great numbers of people were here employed in making charcoal for the use of the smelting-houses at Gaban Medan. They carry it from this place on mules in panniers, and sometimes go fifty or sixty in a drove. Many of the peasantry here fix their dwellings by the side of a hill, the top of the house being even with the ground; and Mr. Jackson says, that he has often ridden over the top of a house without knowing it, and has with difficulty avoided falling through.

On the 6th they arrived at the encampment of Hassan Chillaby; for here also the inhabitants, having quitted the town, which was about two miles distant, had encamped on a hill. The people belonging to the tent wherein they rested were very attentive. The whole of the cattle belonging to these encampments are driven every morning into such of the vallies as contain the greatest plenty of water and vegetation, where they are watched all day by two or three persons employed for that purpose, and in the evening are brought back again. The tents are always pitched in a circle, and the cattle remain all night in the centre. The people rise at dawn of day, and the first employment of the women is to milk their cows and goats, which are immediately sent off again to pasture. The women then put the milk into a sort of bottle made of a goat's skin, every part of which is sewed up, except the neck; but when they are churning, the neck is tied with a string close and tight enough to prevent the milk running out. They then fix three strong sticks in the ground, in a form something like what we often use in raising weights, only on a smaller scale. From these they suspend the goat's-skin tied by each end, and continue shaking it backward and forward till it becomes butter; and they easily know when it is ready by the noise it makes. They then empty the skin into a large vessel, skim off the butter, put hot water into the skin to clean it, and hang it up to

dry. Beside this employment, they have also to bake bread every morning for the day's consumption; for all this work is performed by the women. The bread is baked on large iron plates, as in many parts of Europe; but should any of the women happen to lie longer than usual in the morning, so as not to be able to get their work done before the sun becomes hot, they not only have to work in the sun, but are heartily laughed at by the better housewives. The principal men who have many wives keep them in tents in a particular part of the encampment.

About four miles from Hassan Chillaby, are neither cultivation nor inhabitants, though there is plenty of good water, and the soil appears favourable for culture. Here they met a caravan going to Diarbekr, which consisted of horses, asses, and mules, camels not being able to thrid many of the steep narrow passes with which this country abounds.

On the 7th they arrived at Hadjee Khan, which is a large village lying in a valley. The land is well cultivated for about half a mile round it; but the inhabitants in general are very poor, and much addicted to thieving.

On this plain, which they passed over the next day, were three encampments, pitched in a triangle. Two of these were near the path. When I got abreast of the first encampment, an officer and six men from the guard came up to me on full gallop, and said that the people in the encampment would cut my throat. They took hold of Mr. Jackson's bridle and wanted him to return; but thinking it useless, as a part of the guard were now in sight, he remained till the whole of our party came up. A few men came from the encampment and conversed with the officer. They were remarkably strong hardy looking fellows, but had a something in their countenances which seemed to indicate that they did not get their livelihood very honestly. Having enquired who I was, says Mr. Jackson, the officer told them that I was an English Consul, that being the title I bore in the firmaun. The men examined the arms of our guard very attentively, and wished to lay hold of some of them, but the guards would not suffer it. I was not under the least apprehension of their doing me any personal injury, even before the military came up; for in case they had attacked me I should not have attempted to resist; but I thought it prudent afterwards to keep near my Tatar. On our reaching the second encampment, four men, armed with sabres and pistols, stood in the way to oppose our passing; and as we rode up, they seized my bridle, my Tatar's, and those of two other Tatars in company, who were all riding abreast a little before the military. I was perfectly passive, not supposing that they could mean to rob us, as the military were only a few yards behind. A scuffle, however, ensued; but the guard coming up rescued me. The man who had held my bridle in one hand had a drawn sabre in the other; but on one of the officers telling him that I was an English Consul, he immediately let go the bridle. I had my pistols ready, and was prepared to have shot my opponent, had any of the Tatars fired; but I did not think it proper to begin, not knowing the intentions of these people. One of the Tatars cocked a pistol to shoot a young man who seemed to be very violent; but the military interfering prevented him. The young man, however, continuing to threaten the Tatar with his sabre, the guard, by order of one of the officers, surrounded him in such a manner with their spears and sabres, that had he moved an inch he must have been killed. In that situation we left them, but they soon after came up with us, and had not put the young man to death as I expected.

This is a very extensive uncultivated plain, and contains neither sheep nor cattle but what belong to these banditti. The ground, however being favourable to tilting, and the horses with the silver travelling very slowly, our guard made several matches. They would sometimes draw out of the ranks half a dozen on each side and throw blunted spears, at which exercise these men are wonderfully dexterous, being able to pick up spears from the ground without quitting their horses. They have also a particular

* These people seem to be most violent against the Tatars, who frequently pass through the country without paying any tribute; for, being the messengers of government, they think they ought to be exempt. The people here demanded fifteen piastres from each Tatar, who, having such a strong guard with them, boldly refused. The young man whom I have just mentioned as having been more violent than the rest, had lately had a brother shot by a Tatar.

method of avoiding their opponents' spears by hanging down on the opposite side of the horse, and thus exposing only one foot, yet at the same time going on full gallop. The horseman makes very little use of the reins on these occasions, and the horse is governed by the motions of the rider's body. If the latter lean towards the right or left, the horse will turn to that side, and if the motion be quick will gallop full speed. If the rider lean forward, the horse gallops straight on; and if the man raise his body upright, the horse, though at that time on full speed, will stop in a moment, without the rider touching the bridle.

At about six miles distance from the second encampment, they approached another, the Chief of which came, and demanded money from the commanding officer, which was refused. He got, however, a few piastres from the Tatar.

They then continued unmolested till they got within about two miles of Delectetas, when they observed some men armed, on horseback, pursuing them at full speed from the second encampment, where they had the dispute. The Tatars, being much frightened, set out full gallop for Delectetas, and as Mr. Jackson was dressed in the same manner, and thought they might take him for a Tatar, he pushed on with them, leaving the military drawn up to receive them. When the banditti came up with the military, and found that the Tatars had rode off, they returned. These people always keep a number of horses near their tents to be mounted on a short notice, and some of them ready bridled and saddled.

Delectetas is a small town, situated on the side of a mountain, in a barren country, and having little cultivation about it in proportion to the number of its inhabitants. Here is plenty of good water; and in the middle of the town is a large square stone building. Many of the inhabitants have stacks of corn on the tops of their houses. Here also were some stacks of hay.

On leaving Delectetas, were very rough roads among some steep mountains covered with firs. Beyond these is an extensive uncultivated plain, and on the 9th arrived at a town called Ullash, pleasantly situated by the side of a river which flows from the mountains, and runs into the river Casalmack. Between the town and some mountains to the northward are two salt lakes, one about three miles in circumference, the other about two. From Ullash, in the neighbourhood of which there is a great deal of cultivation, we departed in an hour. There are several other lakes of the same kind on the left, which are easily distinguished, their shores being crusted with salt. Shortly after they arrived at Sivas, which is a very large populous town, and is exceedingly well watered, having several fountains and a great many clear streams running through it. It is seated on the west side of a very fertile valley, which is almost surrounded by lofty mountains, having no opening except where the river runs in and out, through a very narrow channel between two steep hills. Here are two stone bridges at about a mile distance from each other. Great quantities of corn grow in this valley, but not much fruit, excepting plums, apples, and pears; but of garden vegetables there is great abundance. In the middle of the town are some very extensive gardens; and on an artificial hill is an old castle now tumbling into ruins. Though the neighbourhood furnishes plenty of good materials for building, the houses in general have a very ordinary appearance, a great quantity of unsquared timber being employed to support an immense weight of stone and clay, with which the houses are covered. The inhabitants appear to enjoy much liberty; nor are the women confined, as in some large cities to the eastward. Sivas is nearly as large as Liverpool, contains as many houses, and is fully as populous. Though most of the private houses are but indifferent structures, many of the public buildings are elegant, and some of the minarets very lofty.

On the 10th, after descending through some narrow passes, they arrived at Tocat, which is about the size of Sivas, but has a much better appearance than any town in the Turkish dominions. The houses are all tiled, and chiefly built with wood. Here was a great abundance of fruits, which were remarkably fine in their kind; the grape vines, in particular, were abundant and excellent*. The Armenians, who are very numerous here, make an excellent red wine, of a flavour something like claret, but much

Mr. Jackson informs us, that he went into the Bazar to buy some fruit, and found that he could purchase for the value of a farthing as much as a man could eat of either mulberries, pears, apples, peaches, or apricots; and those, in general, much finer in their kind than he ever saw in Europe.

stronger.

stronger. The town is surrounded by eminences, and is well watered. On the top of a lofty rocky mountain, on the west side of the town, are the remains of an old castle, part of the wall of which has been built on the edge of a very steep rock, and much of it has fallen down the precipice.

They set out on the 11th, from Tocat, and, being all badly mounted, and the greater part drunk, made a curious figure as they rode through the town. The streets being much crowded, the Tatars roared like so many bulls for the people to clear the passage, every one being obliged to give way to them, as in England to the mail coaches; and if they were not very quick in getting out of the road, they were sure to feel some of the Tatars long whips.

On the 12th they arrived at Amasia, a very extensive town, nearly as large as Tocat, and surrounded by many lofty rugged mountains. The faces of some of these mountains have nearly half a mile of almost perpendicular height; and in one of these are several pieces cut in the solid rock, similar to a Hindoo Pagoda, and which can only be approached by little narrow passes cut through the rock. The river Casalmack runs through Amasia, but cannot be seen at one view for more than the length of the town, making a circuitous course among the mountains, and running in a deep narrow channel both above and below the town. It is here a very large river, but much too rapid for navigation. The town is well watered, particularly the lower parts, by means of large wheels, nearly thirty feet in diameter, are turned by the stream, having a great many large buckets fastened to them. As the wheel turns round, those buckets empty themselves into troughs fixed within a few feet as high as the wheel. By this method they are enabled to keep up a continual stream of water, which is conveyed by pipes from the troughs to the hummums, fountains, &c. The houses in Amasia are mostly built with wood, but many with stone, and covered with tiles as at Tocat. The greater part of the inhabitants being Christians, here is only one mosque, and two lofty minarets, all built with hewn stone, and very handsome structures. The dome of the mosque is covered with lead. The hummums are very extensive, and built with hewn stone. Before these are some pleasant walks, with several rows of trees, and the whole is surrounded by a lofty wall. The town can only be approached by two narrow passes, one toward the North, and another toward the South; and these are so very rugged, narrow, and steep, that they might be easily defended by a very small force. They make here a very good white wine, something like sherry, and very strong. With this and rackee our whole party again got drunk*.

On leaving Amasia, they ascended a very lofty mountain towards the northern pass, and before they got to the top it became very dark. As they came near a spring of water, the guide said that he wanted to drink. Putting, therefore, the fore-horse's bridle into the Turk's hand, to hold it till he returned, he availed himself of the darkness of the night to run away unperceived. They waited for him some time, but at last suspecting the case, pursued the journey. The Turk leading three horses, they with some difficulty got to the top. Here they soon lost their road, but were fortunate enough to discover a light, which proceeded from a small encampment, where some of the inhabitants of Amasia were employed in getting in their harvest.

At length they got from among these dangerous steeps, and on the 13th, descended into an extensive uncultivated vale about fifteen miles over which they crossed at full gallop, and arrived at Marsiwan in the evening. Marsiwan is a town nearly as large as Sivas, and situated near the foot of some woody mountains on the north side of this extensive vale. It is well watered, and abounds with corn, as well as most kinds of fruits, which were now ripe. They have many vineyards near the town, and make a very good red wine similar to that of Tocat.

About twenty miles west of Marsiwan is a town called Ajamque, and about ten miles farther Osmanjike, which town is built round a steep rocky mount, on the top of which also some houses have been erected. It is a tolerably large place, and stands on the banks of the river Atoc

* A Sivas Tatar, named Suliman, who had accompanied us from Sivas, attempted to shoot another Tatar who was returning from Constantinople, but was prevented by the rest interfering. It is impossible to describe the confusion among these people when they quarrel. Upon the slightest provocation they have immediate recourse to their arms; they are never without a brace of pistols and a dagger at their side.

They then crossed the river over a neat stone bridge of fifteen arches, and continuing their route for thirty miles, over much rough and woody ground, they arrived at a small town called Hadjee Hamza.

On the 14th they arrived at Tosia, a neat town built on the side of a hill, at the foot of which is a fine fertile country. This stage was twenty-seven miles. Quitting Tosia, they passed several vineyards, and then got into a very hilly woody country. In the evening they reached a small town called Cojasate, situated in a barren hilly country. The next town they came to, at the distance of twenty-eight miles from Cojasate, was Carachurin, a large straggling place, built on both sides of a rivulet between two hills. The houses in general are very mean, and badly built. They are only one story high, and have flat roofs.

On the 15th, the roads being very good, they arrived at Corregelar, being only twelve miles from Carachurin. This is a small and ill-built town, containing about two thousand inhabitants, who are chiefly employed in cultivating the neighbouring plains. After travelling over a fine cultivated open country for twelve miles more, they arrived at Serkees, a small but neat town, many of the houses being built with hewn stone.

Leaving Serkees, they rode briskly over a fine well cultivated country, and got among some very steep mountains, great part of the road over which was so dangerous, that one false step of the horse would have plunged them from the height of at least three hundred yards into a river. Quitting at length these dangerous passes, they entered a fine open country on the right, where was a small town by the side of a river. They turned, however, to the left, and arrived at Bainder. This stage was eighteen miles.

Bainder is a small town, but stands on an eminence, and at a distance has a very pretty appearance. The mosque is an indifferent building, but the minaret is very handsome and lofty; and the houses are chiefly built with wood.

On the 16th they arrived at Jeredare, which town is an elevated situation, being almost at the top of a high hill. The town is large, and has a good Bazar, well supplied. They excel here in manufacturing leather, and many other articles; and there are also several copper manufactories. The houses have a singular appearance, being in general built with large round trees let into each other at the ends, and the crevices filled up with clay. Very few houses are tiled, being chiefly covered with deal boards.

After passing several villages both to the right and left, they arrived at Boli at the distance of forty miles*.

Boli is a large town in a fertile situation. It contains, however, nothing worthy of particular notice. The mosques, minarets, and hummums, are all very ordinary buildings. The public edifices are numerous, and the town is well supplied with good water.

After riding over an extensive forest for twenty-five miles, they continued till they reached Duchea, on the 17th. Duchea is a small village situated in a very fertile country, but entirely surrounded by large forests. This stage was thirty-six miles. They departed from Duchea, and, after travelling twenty-seven miles, arrived at Hindak, which is an inconsiderable town, situated in a valley amid large forests, and contains nothing worthy of particular notice.

After they left Hindak they passed upwards of a thousand buffaloes carrying ship-timber to Constantinople from the forests through which they had travelled. Some of the timbers were remarkably fine; and the whole had been squared and formed in the forests, where they had seen many sawyers at work. They crossed the river Zacharea over a wooden bridge about a quarter of a mile long; but were obliged to dismount and walk over this bridge; for, instead of planks, it was covered with half round pieces of wood, which frequently gave way under the horses' feet, and it had neither parapet nor railing. After crossing the Zacharea, they continued in a very woody country till they reached the lake Sabanja†,

* About half way between Jeredare and Boli are some ruins, of which most of the stone was marble. Much of it appearing to have been cut in a stile of workmanship superior to Turkish masonry. On one marble column are several Greek letters, but much defaced. Mr. Jackson says, he was able, however, to trace the word Zeus, and is persuaded, that could he have spared time, he might have been able to have made out great part of the inscription. About three miles nearer Boli, on the right side of the road, are some more ruins, with walls of an extraordinary thickness.

† The lake Sabanja is about six miles long, and nearly of a triangular form. It is a very fine sheet of fresh water, and its being situated in a woody country, adds much to its beauty.

whence, keeping along the western shore, they arrived at the town of the same name. This stage was thirty-six miles.

On the 18th they left Sabanja and rode through a beautiful country, about eight miles, when they reached Ismit, a large town, which has a delightful appearance from the valley before it. The houses are not over-crowded, and the prospect is much enlivened by cypress trees interspersed all over the place. The lower part of the town is washed by the sea. Being built on the slope of a hill facing the South, it is very well supplied with water; and on the side of the hill, both to the East and West, are many vineyards and orchards, but more particularly to the westward, which is entirely covered with gardens, orchards, and vineyards, for five or six miles. The neatness of the town, the garden grounds, the sea, the finely-cultivated country on the opposite shore, and the two rivers, with the corn-fields in the vale before the town, form altogether an exceedingly fine prospect.

Leaving Ismit they continued near the sea of Marmora, sometimes on the beach. About twenty miles West from that place are some ancient ruins close to the sea. Part of the walls, some of which are about ten feet thick, have fallen on to the beach. Seven miles further West is the town of Coushan, very pleasantly situated on the side of a hill sloping gradually to the sea. About this town are many hundreds of acres disposed in vineyards, and gardens for a great variety of other fruits, which were now chiefly ripe.

At Coushan they left the sea and turned northward. After passing the vineyards belonging to the town, they entered a very fine plain, through the middle of which runs a small river that has a neat stone bridge of three arches over it. Continuing to ride briskly they arrived at Gabaza, which is a small but neat town, pleasantly situated on the side of a hill, from the top of which is a very fine prospect of the Archipelago, and part of its numerous islands. From the town to the sea, which is about three miles, is entirely covered with gardens, orchards, vineyards, and corn-fields.

From Gabaza they passed through a very fine country near the sea, sometimes on the beach, and arrived at a town called Maricar, where they remained an hour to refresh; and setting out again, reached Scutari in a few hours. Here they rode down to the sea-beach, unsaddled their horses, and remained till day-break, when they procured a boat, put into it their baggage, and crossed over to Constantinople to have it examined at the Custom-house. The officer suffered it to pass upon receiving a piastre.

Constantinople having been so often described by travellers, and being so well known to English readers, the author thinks it neither expedient nor proper to swell this volume by accounts that cannot possibly possess either novelty or interest to recommend them. His object has been to describe such parts as he has visited, and which had been but little frequented by former travellers from England.

Having stayed a week at Constantinople Mr. Jackson obtained fresh passports from the Porte, and from the Imperial Minister Baron Herbert de Rathkaal, and set out on the 25th, accompanied by a janizary, who was to be paid three hundred piastres to conduct him to the frontiers. After travelling two or three miles from Constantinople, they entered an open country without the smallest marks of cultivation, and not bearing the least appearance of being in the vicinity of a large city. Even round the city itself the garden grounds and orchards are very small in proportion to the population.

Continuing the route over an open barren hilly country, travelling at the rate of five miles an hour; they arrived at a small neat town called Chaque Medja. This town is pleasantly seated at the head of a salt lake about fifteen miles long, but of very unequal breadth. The lake is about two hundred yards from the Archipelago, but has communication with it by a very narrow channel over which is a stone bridge. The ground being swampy, there is a stone causeway of about a quarter of a mile long, for the convenience of passengers.

On the 26th they set out from Chaque Medja and after crossing the bridge and causeway at the head of the lake, ascended some hills, whence they had a very fine prospect over the Archipelago and the surrounding country, which had a more favourable appearance than in the neighbourhood of Constantinople, it being in high cultivation and almost crowded with villages. In three hours they arrived at Beu Chaque Medja, which is a tolerably large town, situated on the

West side of a hill at the head of a salt lake about four miles long, which has communication with the sea. Here too is a stone bridge, and a cause-way about a quarter of a mile long between the lake and the sea. Nearly opposite to Beu Chaque Medja, on the East side of a hill, is a small neat town called Callitratta, behind which are many vineyards.

Continuing their route along the beach twelve miles further, they reached a very neat town called Badus. Here is a considerable building standing on the beach, having part of its walls washed by the sea. It is a square structure and very lofty; the whole is built entirely with hewn stone, has been very well finished, and still remains almost entire.

After passing many vineyards and orchards, they arrived at Killeever, which is a large and populous town, that has once been well fortified, a great part of it being still surrounded by a strong wall. Some of the mosques and minarets are very handsome buildings. The lower part of the town is washed by the sea. Here were several vessels, some of about two hundred tons burden, riding at anchor in a very fine bay, which appeared to be so well sheltered by the high land on each side of it, that ships might, in any weather, ride in safety.

From Killeever they set out on the 27th, and journied about eight miles along the sea-shore, sometimes on the beach. They then turned to the right, and, quitting the sea-coast, passed over an open country, with little cultivation and few inhabitants. The first village is Connyclue; after leaving which place they travelled across a very dreary country, in which not a tree nor a stone was to be seen. The soil is very white, but is neither clay nor sand; and what little vegetation there is, is nearly destroyed by innumerable quantities of ground squirrels. The first signs of cultivation they met with were the vineyards belonging to a town called Chouroe, and which are near three miles long. About eight miles beyond Chouroe they crossed a river, over which is a bridge of fifty arches, all built with hewn stone, and neatly turned. So many arches, however, did not appear by any means necessary at present, as there was not a great body of water in the river. They now entered a country possessing higher cultivation and more inhabitants, and about a quarter of a mile out of the road, is a town called Carrastran. In a deep narrow valley near this town are three lofty stone pillars, which were to support pipes for conveying water across the valley to the town. In the evening they reached Borgas, and on the 28th they entered a large forest, in which they continued for about twenty miles without seeing either habitation or culture, till they reached a small village called Assibaly. From this place to Kirkleesan, about four miles, the whole way is covered with vineyards. This is a very large and populous town, having ten mosques and minarets, and several hummums. All the public buildings are of hewn stone and marble, and some of them very handsome.

In the afternoon they arrived at a village called Canarea, where they put up at a Greek's house to refresh. The Greeks are a very civil and obliging people, and the host brought out the best refreshments he had in the house. In these small villages there are very few Turks, and if there be one, it is almost certain that he is a barber; but he will strut about and assume as much consequence as a bashaw. In the evening they arrived at a town called Karrapoonar. The distance from Kirkleesan to Karrapoonar is fifty-one miles.

On the 29th they arrived at a village called Benlee, and stopped half an hour at a Greek's house to refresh. The master of the house had two very beautiful daughters*. Continuing their journey, they arrived at Idos, a tolerably large town, and pleasantly situated. Many of the houses are built within a compound, similar to those of the Bramins and Nairs in India, which makes the town at a distance appear much larger than it really is.

The peasantry here separate the corn from the straw by the same method as in Asia Minor, which is adopted in all countries where the rains are periodical. They make a ring about forty yards

* The Greeks in general have handsome features; but these particularly attracted his attention. They, as well as the peasantry in general, had a very ridiculous custom of tying all their treasure round their necks; they sometimes wear three or four hundred Venetian sequins perforated and fastened round their necks with silk strings. This custom, however, is confined to the unmarried part of the sex, wives having no ornament whatever on that part of their persons.

yards round, sometimes of clay, and sometimes paved. They then bring their corn from the field, and throw it in a heap in the middle of the ring. They have a sledge too, which is sometimes drawn by bullocks, sometimes by horses, and some of these have pieces of iron driven into the bottom to cut the straw as it goes round; though in others there are flint stones fastened to the bottom. Upon the sledge is a heavy weight. Beside the person who drives the cattle, another is employed with a fork in tossing the straw from the ring if the grain is extracted, and taking fresh from the heap in the middle. In this manner they are enabled to continue till they have extracted the whole of their corn, without being in any danger of having it spoiled by rain. This is much quicker, and easier too, than the mode of thrashing in England.

On the 30th they arrived at Pravadee, which is a large and well inhabited town, containing many very good buildings. It is situated in a narrow vale running N. and S. between two steep rocky hills. In the afternoon they reached Chumloo, which is a very populous town, and, though not regularly fortified, is of great natural strength from its situation, having a steep mountain behind the town, forming a semicircle, on which the Turks have planted several batteries of cannon*. On the western side of the mountain is a thick forest which is perfectly inaccessible to an army.

On the 31st they arrived at Rochuke, but could not see the town till within half a mile of it, being situated on the banks of the Danube at the foot of a hill, which continues for several miles near the river, and is covered with vineyards. Rochuke is a large populous town about the size of Liverpool. They refreshed at Ergnoff, on the opposite side of the river, and waited near two hours for horses and carts, in which they were conveyed to a village called Copuchen. This was the manner in which they were to travel through Wallachia. These post carts are light, and run very easy upon four wheels. They have not, either about the cart or the horses' furniture, the smallest particle of iron or other metal whatever. The horses are small, but run very fast; going, upon an average, rather quicker than the mail coaches in England.

On the 1st of September they reached Bukarest, the capital of Wallachia, and the residence of the Hospodar. Bukarest is a very extensive and populous city, containing three hundred and sixty Greek churches, one Roman and one Lutheran chapel, and a few convents. Here are no Turkish mosques, nor are they permitted to be built in any part of the province. Gentlemen's carriages are here very numerous, and a man is looked upon in no other light than as a servant or a peasant, who does not keep one. A coach, with a pair of horses and a driver, may be all kept here for fifty pounds sterling. The coachmen and footmen are in general Egyptian slaves. There is much intrigue carried on in the higher classes, particularly among the married people. A man never sees his intended bride till they exchange rings, a ceremony that takes place a few days before the marriage; for the parents or guardians of both parties make up the match without asking the consent of either. In a very short time after the marriage ceremony the parties generally discontinue sleeping together, each carrying on their respective intrigues. The ladies usually keep their separate carriages, as a coach, with a proper equipage, is commonly a part of the marriage portion. The unmarried young ladies, however, are kept up as close as in a nunnery, and are not permitted to keep company with any men whatever until the ceremony of exchanging rings with their intended husbands has taken place. There are few people in the world, particularly among those who call themselves Christians, that make more profession of religion than these people, and in reality have less. In some of the churches here they have prayers continually from morning till night, and these are chaunted as in Catholic chapels. Their language is harmonious, something resembling the Greek, and indeed has several Greek characters in it.

Wallachia possesses in general a rich soil, but is rather woody. In the greatest part of the

* During the late war a considerable Russian army appeared in the plains before this town, and defeated the Turkish forces. The latter retreated into the town, and threw up a mud wall with a fosse and paling before the town, and up each side of the mountain. This temporary fortification still remains entire. As the Russian army approached the town, the Turks played upon them from their batteries on the mountain. The Russians here lost their general and retreated.

province there is scarcely a hill or stone the natural produce of the country. Their corn is chiefly maize, of which they have a great quantity; yet good wheaten bread is to be had in the larger towns. Provisions of all kinds are very cheap; and a fine fowl may be bought for six Turkish parra, value about three halfpence sterling. The inhabitants in general are Greeks, and they have not many foreigners among them. In the larger towns, however, there are some Jews and a few Germans. They erect crucifixes near the roads; some of these are of stone, but they are chiefly made of wood. All, however, are painted; some having Jesus Christ, some the Virgin Mary, others the Twelve Apostles, some the Ten Commandments, prayers, &c. depicted on them. These Crucifixes are very numerous, and most of the country people make their obedience as they pass them. The province is well watered; the bridges are all built with wood; but they have a very ridiculous custom of laying loose pieces of half-squared timber across the bridges, which frequently give way under the horses feet.

On the 4th Mr Jackson resumed his journey, and travelled much faster than he could have expected, and even quicker than the mail in England, as will appear by the following distances and towns through which he pased.

	German Posts.
Bukarest to Polontine	1½
Florest	2
Giest	3
Gierbuoff	2
Pittest	1½
Moara	1½
Argish	2
Salatrook	3½
Perishaw	2
Keenen	2
Rothen Thurn Pass, where he performed quarantine,	1½
	22½;

which, reckoning twelve English miles to a German post, is two hundred and seventy miles*.

He arrived at the Rothen Thurn Pass in the afternoon of the 5th September, when his quarantine commenced. He had brought letters from M. de Merkelius to the Director of the Lazaretto, however, which proved of much service; for he was in consequence particularly attended to, had a servant appointed to wait on him, and was supplied with plenty of the best provisions, wine, and fruits. He performed quarantine here ten days.

From the night of the 25th August to the evening of the 31st, he had travelled six hundred and seventy-two English miles, as will appear by the following distances, given me by M. de Merkelius, the Director of the Post.

	German Posts.
From Constantinople to Rochuke on the Danube, through Romalia and Bulgaria	50
From Erguoff on the Danube to Bukarest	6
	56;

which, reckoning twelve English miles to a German post, is six hundred and seventy-two miles.

The latter has been accurately ascertained by the German engineers, who had the conducting of artillery to Erguoff in the late war.

On the 14th September Mr. Jackson's quarantine expired, the day on which he arrived being reckoned as one, because he was there before sun-set; and on the following morning he set out in the post-cart, a carriage built on purpose, and with better accommodations and more conveniencies than the Wallachian; though both are very light. The road for the first six miles was near the banks of the river Alauta, with very high hills and thick woods on each side. There are many steep narrow passes here, but just broad enough for the carriage, and which have been cut out of the solid rocks. At Boetzhar all his passports, and certificates of having performed the quarantine, were examined. After getting through those passes they entered a fine open country, in which numerous villages and some considerable towns were to be seen, and the greater part of the whole was cultivated. At length he arrived at Herrmanstadt, the capital of Transylvania.

* The above are not the only towns through which he passed; but are specified as being the places appointed for fresh horses, which are always kept ready on purpose to convey the German mails, and are paid for that service by M. de Merkelius, who has great part of the management of forwarding the German post from Constantinople to the frontiers, and through whose hands all the East India Company's dispatches pass, on their way to Vienna.

Herrmanstadt is a tolerably well built city. The promenade is very pleasant, and they have also a very handsome theatre. Their music is excellent, having the advantage of some of the best German performers. The people are very polite, and observe much formality; for no person above the rank of a servant can walk in the streets without a sword by his side. They are also very particular in their dresses; and a native of the province wears a dress similar to what is worn in England upwards of a hundred years ago, viz. a long coat almost reaching to the ground, trimmed all round with fur; a pair of boots like those of our heavy cavalry, with a cocked hat something like a Dutch skipper's. People from every province are known here by their respective dresses; and even every tradesman is distinguished by his apparel. Whoever visits this city, if he can spare two hours, should not neglect seeing Baron Brukenthall's extensive collection of the most valuable paintings, many of which are by the first masters, Guido, Rubens, Rembrant, &c. His antique coins, medals, and other curiosities, also are well worth seeing. His library is very extensive, and considered of great value. He has likewise a beautiful garden about half a mile out of the city, laid out after the English taste. The Baron is almost eighty years of age; he was many years Civil Governor of this province, and speaks English tolerably well.

Transylvania is, generally speaking, a fine country, but capable of much improvement. It produces great quantities of most kinds of grain, and flax of a very good quality, which is manufactured into linen. The nobility are for the most part very proud, and keep their peasantry in a state of slavery; for out of six days in the week the peasant is obliged to labour four for his master, having only the remaining two days for himself. This province pays to the Emperor in taxes of all kinds one million five hundred thousand florins annually, which is chiefly imposed upon the land, for what the citizens pay is very trifling indeed.

On the 18th he left Herrmanstadt, and travelled post, by day and night, till he arrived at Temeswar, the capital of Banate, where he was detained a few hours to have his passport examined. This being a strong fortification, the officers were very particular in examining all strangers, and he was obliged to go before the General Commandant, with whom he conversed in Latin. When informed that he was an Englishman he shewed him much attention.

The Banate is a very fine province, the greater part of it being level and well cultivated, except on that side adjoining to Transylvania, which is mountainous and woody. Provisions of all kinds are good and cheap; and their wines are excellent, particularly at a large town called Lugos.

From Herrmanstadt he went to Pest, which is at present the capital of the kingdom of Hungary. It is a large and populous city, and has been much improved within the last six years, great part of the city having been entirely rebuilt. It is seated on the left banks of the Danube. On the opposite side of the river is the city of Offen, nearly as large as Pest, and remarkable for its excellent wines, which are held in much esteem all over the empire.

Offen is situated on the side of a hill facing the South, which is covered with vineyards for about six miles below the city. The wine is red and something like port, but has a stronger body and is very rough.

On the river Danube below Pest, are many floating corn-mills, which are admirably adapted for the purpose. The vessels on which the mills are built are always kept afloat, and at anchor in the middle of the stream; the wheel is turned by the current.

On the 25th September he set out from Pest and arrived at Vienna the same night. The road was in general tolerably good, and he travelled about as quick as does the mail coach in England.

On the 12th October he left Vienna, coming through Bohemia, and remaining two days at Prague to take a view of the city and its environs.

Leaving Prague he came on to Dresden, the capital of Saxony, where he remained two days. There is a degree of elegance in this city and the neighbourhood, superior to most other places. The gallery is supposed to contain the largest and best collection of paintings in Europe, and it has lately received considerable additions; for, on the French entering Italy, many of the best pieces were conveyed to Dresden, as a place of safety.

After leaving Dresden, he travelled through Leipsic, Halle, Halberstadt, Brunswick-Luneburg, and to Hamburgh, which he reached on the evening of the 28th October.

4

END OF MR. JACKSON'S TOUR.

EUROPE.
ATLANTIC OCEAN
60
55
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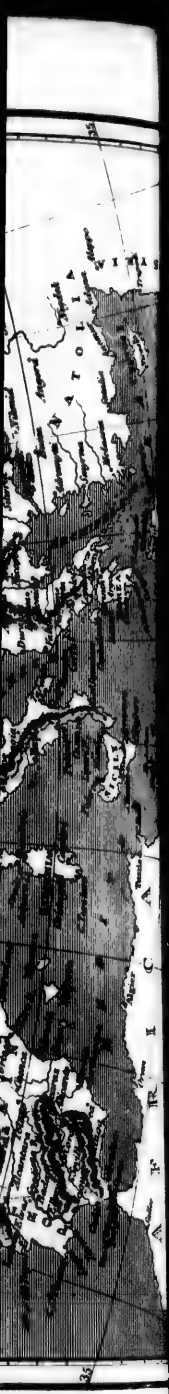


GENERAL GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION

OF THE

WORLD.

EUROPE.

THIS part of the globe is the smallest in extent, yielding considerably to Africa. From the rock of Lisbon in the west, to the Uralian mountains in the east, the length is about 3,300 British miles; and the breadth from North Cape in Danish Lapland to Cape Matapan, the southern extremity of Greece, is about 2,350. The contents in square miles is about 2,500,000.

LIMITS.] On the south the continental part is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, on the west by the Atlantic, which contains the furthest European isle, that of Iceland, Greenland being regarded as a part of North America*. On the north the boundary is the Arctic Ocean, embracing the remote isles of Spitzbergen and Novaya Zemlia, or the New Land. Toward the east the Uralian mountains is admitted as a boundary.

RELIGION.] The christian religion prevails throughout Europe except in Turkey, where however at least one half of the inhabitants are attached to the Greek church. Wherever the christian faith has penetrated, knowledge, industry, and civilization have followed: among the barbarous tribes in the north the progress was unhappily slow, Scandinavia remaining pagan till the eleventh century; and some Sclavonic tribes on the south of the Baltic till the thirteenth; nay, it is not above a century ago since the Laplanders were converted by missions from Denmark. The two grand distinctions are catholics and protestants: the former in the south, where the passions are more warm and the imagination more delighted with splendour; the latter in the north, where the satisfaction of the judgment predominates. This universality of the christian religion has been followed by another superlative advantage, that of constituting all Europe, as it were, into one republic, so that any useful discovery made in one state passes to the rest with celerity.

CLIMATE.] Europe is chiefly situated in the temperate zone: if such distinctions have not vanished from geography since modern discoveries have evinced, that the climate often depends on local causes; that the Alps in a southern latitude present mountains of ice unknown in Lapland: that the torrid zone abounds with water and habitations, and may perhaps contain mountains covered with snow. Yet freedom from the excessive heats of Asia and Africa has contributed to the vigour of the frame, and the energy of the mind.

INLAND SEAS.] In a general view of Europe one of the most striking and interesting features is the number and extent of the inland seas; justly regarded as chief causes of the extensive industry and civilization, and consequently superior to the other grand divisions of the globe. Among inland seas the Mediterranean is justly pre-eminent, having been the centre of civilization to ancient and modern Europe. The columns of Hercules marked its western boundary; being the mountain or rock of Abyla, now called Ceuta, and Kalpe in Spain, the Gibraltar of modern fame. The length of the Mediterranean is about 2000 miles to its farthest extremity in Syria. On its northern side open two large gulfs, that of Venice and Archipelago. From this last a strait called the Hellespont conducts to the sea of Marmora; and another now styled the strait of

* In the opinion of several geographers, the Azores or Western Isles are clearly European, being nearer to Portugal than to any other continental land, while the Madeiras, for the same reason, belong to Africa.

Constan-

Constantinople, leads to the Euxine or Black sea; which to the north presents the shallow sea of Azof, the utmost maritime limit of Europe in that quarter. This wide expanse of the Mediterranean is beautifully sprinkled with islands, and environed with opulent coasts, abounding with the most sublime and picturesque features of nature: tides are not perceivable except in the narrowest straits; but according to naturalists there is a current along the Italian shore from the west to the east, and towards the African coast in an opposite direction. In the Gulf of Venice the current runs north-west along Dalmatia and returns by the opposite shore of Italy. The Mediterranean abounds with fish, many of which are little known in the more northern latitudes. The chief fisheries are those of the tunny, of the sword fish, and of the sea dog, a species of shark, and the diminutive anchovy. It is also the chief seminary of coral, now known to be the work of marine insects. This supposed plant is of three colours, the red, the vermillion, and the white; and its greatest height is about eleven inches. It is equally hard in the sea and in the air; and is generally brought up by a kind of net from the depth of 60 to 125 feet. To enumerate and ascertain shoals and rocks is the office of the hydrographer; but fishing banks are of general importance, and some are found near Sicily.

The second grand inland sea of Europe is the Baltic, which extensive inlet opens from the German sea by a gulf pointing N. E. called the Skager Rack; and afterwards passes south in what is called the Cattegat, to the S. E. of which is the sound of Elsinore, a strait where vessels pay a tribute of courtesy to Denmark. The Baltic afterwards spreads widely to the N. E. and is divided into extensive branches called the gulfs of Bothnia and Finland, both covered or impeded with ice for four or five months of the winter. The greatest depth of this sea is said not to exceed fifty fathoms. Swedish naturalists pronounce that it loses about four feet in extent in the course of a century. Tides are unknown, and the fish are few.

The third and last inland sea of Europe is that called the White Sea in the north of Russia, more known in Europe, and particularly to English enterprize, before the commerce of Archangel was supplanted by that of Petersburg.

Among the other maritime divisions may be named the German sea, so called because it waters the western shores of ancient Germany, from the Rhine to the extremity of Jutland. It is now often stiled, with sufficient impropriety, the North sea, a term probably adopted by us from the Dutch. It may be regarded as a part of the Atlantic ocean, terminating at the straits of Dover; whence the British Channels extend to the west. The bay of Biscay is another large inlet of the Atlantic. The Bristol Channel is rather the estuary or wide frith of the Severn. Between Great Britain and Ireland are St. George's Channel on the south; the Irish sea in the center, which leads to the North Channel. That part of the Atlantic which passes between Scotland and the extreme range of the western isles from Barra to Leuis has received no distinct appellation.

To the north of Europe is the Arctic Ocean, the dismal and solitary reservoir of myriads of miles of ice, the very skirts of which floating in enormous mountains crowned with brilliant pinnacles of every hue delight the eye and appal the heart of the mariner*.

On the coast of Holland there are many banks which supply excellent fish, as turbot, soal,

* Yet this enormous waste is in the hand of Providence a fertile field of provisions for the human race. Here the vast battalions of herrings seem to seek a refuge from numerous foes, and to breed their millions in security. About the middle of winter emerging from their retreat they spread in three divisions; one towards the west, which covers the shores of America as far as the Chesapeak and Carolina, while another more minute squadron passes the strait between Asia and America, and visits the coasts of Kamschatka. The most memorable, the central division, reaches Iceland about the beginning of March, in a close phalanx of surprising depth, and such extent that the surface is supposed to equal the dimensions of Great Britain and Ireland. They are however subdivided into numberless columns of five or six miles in length and three or four in breadth, followed by numerous sea fowl, and perceived by the rippling of the water and a brilliant reflexion like that of a rainbow. In April or May the vanguard of those allotted to the British dominions reaches Shetland, and the grand body arrives in June; towards the end of which month and through that of July they are in the greatest perfection. From Shetland one division proceeds towards the east as far as Yarmouth, where they appear in October. The other brigade passes to the west along both shores of Ireland. A few stragglers are found at irregular periods, having proceeded beyond their powers of return; but it is generally credited that millions regain the Arctic Ocean and deposit their spawn about the month of October.

plaice, &c. Further to the north is the extensive Dogger-bank, stretching south-east and north-west; beginning about twelve leagues from Flamborough head, and extending nearly seventy-two leagues towards the coast of Jutland *.

RIVERS AND MOUNTAINS.] The chief rivers of Europe are described under the respective countries through which they flow. Of the vast Wolga far the greater part is included in Europe: the Danube is the next in fame; and is followed by the Dneiper or Nieper, the Rhine, and the Elbe. The most elevated mountains are the Alps, which are followed by the Pyrenees and the extensive ridge which divides Norway from Sweden. The Carpathian mountains, and the chain of Emineh or Hæmus, are, with the Apennines, of inferior extent and height.

GOVERNMENTS.] The kingdoms and states of Europe may be considered, 1. As despotic monarchies, as those of Russia and Turkey: 2. Absolute monarchies, as Denmark, &c.: or, 3. Limited monarchies, as Austria, kingdom of Great Britain, &c. Since the fall of Venice, and the subversion of Swisserland and Holland, scarcely an example occurs of permanent and hereditary aristocracy, or the hereditary government of nobles. Of democracy, or, more strictly speaking, elective aristocracy, a few cities and some Swiss cantons may preserve a semblance; while France at the present hour is a military nation under the name of an empire.

ENGLAND.

EXTENT.] The island of Great Britain extends from fifty to fifty-eight and a half degrees of north latitude, being about 500 geographical miles in length. Its greatest breadth, from the Land's End in Cornwall to the North Foreland in Kent, 320 geographical miles. In British miles the length is about 580, and the breadth 370.

England is bounded on the east by the German Ocean; on the south by the English Channel; on the west by St. George's Channel; on the north by the Cheviot Hills, by the pastoral river Tweed, and an ideal line falling south-west down to the Firth of Solway. The extent of England and Wales in square miles is computed at 49,450; and the population at nine millions three hundred and forty-three thousand five hundred and seventy-eight, the number of inhabitants to a square mile will of course be one hundred and eighty-eight.

England proper is divided into forty counties, and the principality of Wales into twelve, thus making the whole number of counties in South Britain fifty-two†; of which the following is a list, together with their respective chief towns.

		Number of Inhabitants according to the late Enumeration.	*Chief Towns.*
Six northern counties	Northumberland	157,101	Newcastle
	Cumberland	117,230	Carlisle
	Durham	160,361	Durham
	Yorkshire	563,053	York
	Westmoreland	41,617	Appleby
	Lancashire	672,731	Lancaster
Four bordering on Wales	Cheshire	191,751	Chester
	Shropshire	167,659	Shrewsbury
	Herefordshire	89,191	Hereford
	Monmouthshire	45,582	Monmouth
Twelve midland	Nottinghamshire	140,350	Nottingham
	Derbyshire	161,142	Derby
	Staffordshire	239,153	Stafford
	Leicestershire	130,081	Leicester
	Rutlandshire	16,356	Okeham
	Northamptonshire	131,757	Northampton
	Warwickshire	208,190	Warwick
	Worcestershire	139,333	Worcester
	Gloucestershire	250,809	Gloucester
	Oxfordshire	109,620	Oxford
	Buckinghamshire	107,444	Aylesbury
	Bedfordshire	63,393	Bedford
Eight eastern	Lincolnshire	208,557	Lincoln
	Huntingdonshire	37,568	Huntingdon
	Cambridgeshire	89,346	Cambridge
	Norfolk	273,571	Norwich
	Suffolk	210,481	Ipswich
	Essex	226,437	Chelmsford
	Hertfordshire	97,577	Hertford
	Middlesex	535,129*	London
Three south-eastern	Surrey	269,043	Guildford
	Kent	307,624	Maidstone
	Sussex	159,311	Lewes

* Between the Dogger and the Well Bank to the south are the Silverpits of the mariners, which supply London with cod, a fish which loves the deep water near the banks, while the flat fish delight in the shallows.

† The division of South Britain into shires is said to have been instituted by the great Alfred. These departments are also styled counties, as having been each governed by a count in the Saxon times, styled Ealdorman, and after the Danish conquest called Earl, from the Danish Iarl, implying a great man. The dignity and title becoming hereditary, the government of the county devolved upon the Earl's deputy, the Shire-reeve, sheriff or manager of the shire. Yorkshire being very extensive it was divided into three parts, called in Saxon trithings, now corruptly called Ridings.

It is also generally believed that Alfred founded the subdivisions of counties called Hundreds and Tythings, now seldom mentioned except in legal proceedings and in topographical descriptions. The Hundred probably contained one hundred farms, while the Tything was restricted to ten.

* Exclusive of the capital.

		Number of Inhabitants according to the late Enumeration.	*Chief Towns.*
Four southern	Berkshire	109,215	Reading
	Wiltshire	185,107	Salisbury
	Hampshire	219,656	Winchester
	Dorsetshire	115,919	Dorchester
Three south-western	Somersetshire	273,750	Taunton
	Devonshire	343,001	Exeter
	Cornwall	188,269	Launceston
Six, North Wales	Flintshire	39,622	Flint
	Denbighshire	60,382	Denbigh
	Caernarvonshire	41,521	Caernarvon
	Anglesey	33,806	Beaumaris
	Merionethshire	29,506	Bala
	Montgomeryshire	47,978	Montgomery
Six, South Wales	Radnorshire	19,050	Presteign
	Cardiganshire	42,956	Cardigan
	Pembrokeshire	56,280	Pembroke
	Caermarthenshire	67,317	Caermarthen
	Brecknockshire	33,633	Brecknock
	Glamorganshire	71,525	Caerdiff

HISTORICAL EPOCHS.] Geography has been styled one of the eyes of history, a subservience to which study is undoubtedly one of its grand objects; but it would at the same time be foreign to its nature to render it a vehicle of history. The proper and peculiar subjects of geographical science are so ample, and often attended with such difficult research, that it becomes equally rash and unnecessary to wander out of its appropriated domain.

ANTIQUITIES.] The ancient monuments of a country are intimately connected with the chief epochs of its history, and particularly with the revolutions it has undergone by foreign conquest or new population. The English antiquities fall of course into six divisions. 1. Those belonging to the primitive Celtic inhabitants. 2. Those of the Belgic colonies. 3. Those of the Romans. 4. Those of the Saxons. 5. Reliques of the Danes. 6. Norman monuments. Few of those remains, it must be confessed, throw much light upon history; but many of them being interesting and curious in themselves, they deserve the attention of the traveller and geographer.

Those of the first Celtic inhabitants were probably, as usual among savage nations, constructed of wood, and of course there can be no remains. Some rude barrows and heaps of stones may perhaps belong to the Druidic tribes, but Stonehenge, the large Barrows or tumuli, &c. &c. more probably belong to the Belgic colonies. Stonehenge is situated near the capital of the ancient Belgæ, and there is a similar monument, but said to be of far greater extent, near Vannes, a town on the French coast which was possessed by the Belgæ. Similar monuments also occur in Denmark and Sweden, and in Iceland even the date of erection is sometimes ascertained, these circles being familiarly known by the name of *Domb-ringr*, that is literally Doom-ring, or Circle of Judgment, being the solemn places where courts were held. Stonehenge is a noble and curious monument of early times. There appear to be three principal circles of stones, the outer connected together by an uniform pavement as it were at the top, to which the chiefs might ascend and speak to the surrounding crowd. A second circle consists of detached upright stones about five feet in height, while the highest are eighteen. Within this is a grand oval, originally consisting of five trilithons of two huge stones crossed by another at the top and inclosing smaller stones, which seem to have been seats, and a large flat stone commonly called the altar, but which seems to have been the throne or seat of judgment. There is besides a very high stone, towards the north east or rising sun, and near this a large flat stone encompassed with a mound, which is probably the real altar on which human victims were sometimes sacrificed. There are also two other stones at a considerable distance to the E. and W. and the whole seems to be in the midst of a very extensive circle, marked by an earthen embankment almost effaced by the lapse of years, and affording sufficient space for all the males of the tribe or nation. The largest stones are of silicious sandstone, but the altar, or rather throne, is a calcareous sand-stone. The smaller stones are of grunstein or hornblend mixed with felspar. On its first erection the appearance must have been striking, the large stones being of pure white and the smaller black.

After the establishment of christianity the circles of judgment, which had been polluted with human sacrifices and other pagan rites, were abandoned, and the great courts were held on what were called Moot hills, or hills of meeting, many of which still exist in the British dominions and in the Netherlands.

The Roman antiquities of England have been repeatedly illustrated. The greatest number of Roman inscriptions, altars, &c. has been found in the north along the great frontier wall which extended from the western sea to the estuary of Tyne. The Roman roads were also striking monuments of their power. A grand trunk,

it may be called, to anticipate the language of of our inland navigations, passed from the south to the north, and another to the west, with branches in almost every direction that general convenience and expedition could require. What is called the Watling-street led from Richborough in Kent, the ancient Rutupiæ, N. W. through London to Chester. The Ermin-street passed from London to Lincoln, thence to Carlisle and into Scotland, the name being supposed to be corrupted from *Herman*, which means warrior, as the chief wars lay in the north. The Fosse way is supposed to have led from Bath and the western regions N. E. till it joined the Ermin-street. The last celebrated road was the Ilkenild, or Ikneld, supposed to have extended from near Norwich S. W. into Dorsetshire.

The Saxon antiquities in England are chiefly edifices, sacred or secular; many churches remain which were altogether or for the most part constructed in the Saxon period, and some are extant of the tenth or perhaps the ninth century. The vaults erected by Grimbald at Oxford in the reign of Alfred are justly esteemed curious relics of Saxon architecture. Mr. King has ably illustrated the remains of the Saxon castles. The oldest seem to consist of one solitary tower, square or hexagonal: one of the rudest specimens is Coningsburg Castle in Yorkshire; but as that region was subject to the Danes till the middle of the tenth century it is probably Danish. Among the smaller remains of Saxon art may be mentioned the shrines for preserving relics, which some suppose to present the diminutive rudiments of what is called the Gothic architecture; and the illuminated manuscripts, which often afford curious memorials of the state of manners and knowledge.

The Danish power in England, though of considerable duration in the north, was in the south brief and transitory. The camps of that nation were circular like those of the Belgæ and Saxons, while those of Roman armies are known by their square form: and it is believed that the only distinct relics of the Danes are some castles to the north of the Humber and a few stones with runic inscriptions.

The monuments styled Norman, rather to distinguish their epoch than from any information that Norman architects were employed, are reputed to commence after the conquest, and to extend to the fourteenth century; when what is called the rich Gothic began to appear, which in the sixteenth century was supplanted by the mixed; and this in its turn yielded to the Grecian. In general the Norman style far exceeds the Saxon in the size of the edifices and the decoration of the parts. The churches become more extensive and lofty, and though the windows retain the circular arch they are larger and more diversified; the circular doors are festooned with more freedom and elegance, and uncouth animals begin to yield to wreaths of leaves and flowers. The solitary keep or tower of the Saxon castle is surrounded with a double wall, inclosing courts or dwellings of large extent, defended by turrets and double ditches, with a separate watch-tower called the Barbican. Among others the cathedrals of Durham and Winchester may be mentioned as venerable monuments of Anglo-Norman architecture, and the castles are numerous and well known. What is called the Gothic or pointed arch is generally supposed to have first appeared in the thirteenth century, and in the next it became universal in religious edifices. The windows diffused to great breadth and loftiness and divided into branching interstices, enriched with painted glass, the clustering pillars of excessive height spreading into various fret-work on the roof constitute, with decorations of smaller note, what is called the rich Gothic style, visible in the chapel of King's College, Cambridge, and many other grand specimens in this kingdom. The spire corresponds with the interior, and begins about the thirteenth century to rise boldly from the ancient tower and diminish from the sight in a gradation of pinnacles and ornaments.

RELIGION AND ECCLESIASTIC GEOGRAPHY.] The church of England is established upon a peculiar basis, and characteristic of a moderate and judicious nation. As in the political system extremes, the usual concomitants of inexperience, are carefully avoided, and despotism or anarchy from whatever source, monarch, nobles, or people, prevented as far as human wisdom can devise; so in the church, while the papal power and other catholic chains are proscribed, the other extremes tending to loose democracy are equally avoided. It is the only reformed church which has retained the episcopal form in its ancient splendour; the bishops are peers of parliament and have the style and importance of nobility. Yet the creed of the church of England is rather Calvinistic than Lutheran.

Lutheran. But the special tenets of the English church are sufficiently explained in the thirty-nine articles; and a brief idea of its government will be more pertinent to the present purpose.

The king is the supreme head of the national church. Next in dignity and power are the archbishops of Canterbury and York, the first being styled Primate of all England, and the second, Primate of England. The archbishop of Canterbury precedes all persons except the royal family; he has the power of probate of all testaments within his province and of granting several dispensations concerning benefices; he has also four courts of judicature, that of Arches, of Audience, of Prerogative, and of Peculiars. In other respects the archiepiscopal office is rather a dignity than a jurisdiction, and the primates rarely interfere in any dioceses except their own. They are appointed by the king in the same manner as the bishops, by what is called a Congé d'Elire, or leave to elect.

Upon any vacancy in an episcopal see, the dean and chapter apply to the king, who returns a Congé d'Elire, naming the person to be chosen. A chapter of the prebendaries is then summoned by the dean, and they are constrained under the penalty of a *præmunire* to elect the person nominated. The solemnity is completed by the royal assent under great seal, and by the confirmation and consecration performed by the metropolitan or in his name. The prelate afterwards pays homage to the king for his temporalities, or the baronies connected with the see: and compounds for the first fruits, that is, the revenue of the first year, which is paid to the corporation for increasing the benefices of the poor clergy. The omission of consecration is the only difference when a bishop is translated to another see; and when an archbishop is nominated, the king appoints four or more bishops to officiate at the confirmation.

The bishop alone may ordain deacons and priests, dedicate churches and burial grounds, and administer confirmation. In former times episcopal jurisdiction extended to the licensing of physicians, surgeons, and schoolmasters, and to the conjunction of small parishes. At present it chiefly embraces questions of births, marriages, deaths, and testaments, and any delinquencies of the clergy; to which body indeed their attention is now chiefly confined, and they rarely, except in parliament, interfere in secular subjects. The bishop of Sodor and Man has no place in parliament. All the other bishops are barons and peers of the realm by three different claims; in right to the baronies attached to their sees, as barons summoned by writ, and as barons by patent, a form which accompanies their consecration. Their privileges approach the regal; they are sole judges in their own courts, and issue writs in their own names, not in the royal style used by other courts. They can depute their authority, which no other judge can; and their episcopal power of conferring orders, &c. may be exerted in any Christian country, while lay peers are only acknowledged in the country whence they derive their dignities. To pass other more minute privileges, the bishop of London, as presiding over the capital, has the precedence of all the others. The see of Durham constitutes a county palatine, with great power and prerogatives: the authority and patronage of the bishop are of course very extensive, and even the king's judges only sit in his diocese by his permission. The bishop of Winchester is the third in dignity, but esteemed the first in opulence, as the large civil list of Durham, while it adds power, diminishes revenue. These three bishops precede all the rest, who take place according to the seniority of consecration.

To every cathedral in England belong several prebendaries as canons, and a dean, so styled, as is said (*Decanus*) because he anciently presided over ten canons. The dean and chapter of prebendaries assist the bishop in ecclesiastic affairs. The prebendaries are so styled or *pars prebenda*, a portion of land or income allotted to them; and with the dean, from a body, college, or corporation: and they have several privileges superior to the common or minor canons. At the reformation their salaries were mostly converted into money, but those of Durham preferred the ancient portions of land; which having prodigiously increased in value, they are now styled golden prebends, being worth from eight hundred pounds to twelve hundred pounds a year, while the bishop out of nine thousand pounds a year has to support a great and unavoidable expenditure.

The next order is that of the arch-deacons, amounting in all to about sixty; their office is

inspect the moveables of the churches, to reform slight abuses, and to induct into benefices.

Of the clergy in general, the lowest order is that of deacons, whose office formerly was to superintend the poor; the ancient donations to the church being always assigned in three divisions, one to the poor, another for repairs, and the last for the clergy. At present the deacon's office is restricted to baptism, to reading in the church, and assisting the priest at the communion by handing the cup only. Deacon's orders cannot be canonically received before the age of twenty-three years, those of a priest require twenty-four, and a bishop must be thirty. The curate is a clergyman appointed to officiate for another, and is so named from his having the care of souls. If the predial or great tythes of the parish be impropriated, or converted into secular hands, the priest is termed a vicar, a name originally implying that they were the *vicarii*, or deputies of the rector; but if the tythes be entire, the priest is styled rector*. The churchwardens superintend the repairs and decorations of the church, and the requisites for divine service, and collect the alms of the parishioners; they are annually elected at Easter, and have sometimes sidesmen, a kind of assistants. The sacristan, corruptly called sexton, originally had the care of the furniture and plate of the church; and by a still greater corruption the appellation is now applied to the grave-digger, when it ought to have been conferred on the parish-clerk.

Ecclesiastical courts still retain considerable power: the convocation, consisting of the archbishops and bishops, with a lower house of one hundred and fifty members, only meets for the sake of form; but have not been allowed to deliberate since the reign of Anne.

Next in dignity is the court of delegates, acting by a special commission under the great seal; and to whom an appeal lies from the highest metropolitan court. The court of arches is so styled because it was held in the arches of the church St. Mary-le-bon, London, but now in the great hall, Doctors Commons; only doctors of the civil law are allowed to plead. The court of audience is always presided by the archbishop himself, who decides any doubts concerning the admission to benefices and dispensation of the banns of matrimony.

The next court is that of prerogative, which judges of estates fallen by will, or intestate; the prerogative office is likewise in Doctors Commons. The court of peculiars refers to several peculiar parishes exempt from the jurisdiction of the bishops, but here amenable: the judges are sole and without jury†.

Those who differ in tenets or forms from the

* The clergy in general enjoy some peculiar privileges. Their goods are free from tolls in fairs or markets; they cannot be compelled to any office civil or military: they are only amerced according to their temporal estate: nor are they assessed for a robbery committed in the hundred, or for watching, warding, highways, &c. &c.

† The ecclesiastical geography of England may be seen in the following table:

Province of Canterbury.

1. Bishopric of London, containing Essex, Middlesex, and part of Hertford.
2. Winchester.—Surrey, Hampshire, Isle of Wight, Jersey, Guernsey, and Alderney.
3. Litchfield and Coventry.—Stafford, Derby, and part of Warwick and Shropshire.
4. Lincoln.—Lincoln, Leicester, Huntingdon, Bedford, Buckingham, and part of Hertford.
5. Ely.—Cambridgeshire.
6. Salisbury.—Wilts and Berkshire.
7. Exeter.—Cornwall and Devon.
8. Bath and Wells.—Somersetshire.
9. Chichester.—Sussex.
10. Norwich.—Norfolk, Suffolk, and a small part of Cambridge.
11. Worcester.—Worcester, and part of Warwick.
12. Hereford.—Hereford and part of Shropshire.
13. Rochester.—part of Kent.
14. Oxford.—Oxfordshire.
15. Peterborough.—Northampton and Rutland.
16. Gloucester.—Gloucestershire.
17. Bristol.—The city of Bristol, part of Gloucestershire, and county of Dorset.
18. Llandaff.—Glamorgan, Monmouth, Brecknock, and Radnor.
19. St. David's.—Pembroke, Cardigan, and Caermarthen.
20. St. Asaph's.—The greatest part of Flint, Denbigh, and Montgomery, and some part of Shropshire.
21. Bangor.—The counties of Anglesey, Caernarvon, Merioneth, and part of Denbigh and Montgomery.

Province of York.

22. Durham.—Durham and Northumberland.
23. Carlisle.—Great part of Cumberland and Westmoreland.
24. Chester.—Cheshire, Lancashire, Richmondshire (which is part of York); with part of Cumberland and Westmoreland.
25. Isle of Man.

Several changes have taken place in the number and situations of the bishoprics since Christianity was first established in this country, but these are not in our province to describe.

established church may, in general, be styled Dissenters, though the term be more strictly applied to the Presbyterians and Independents. The other principal classes of the dissidents are the Papists, Methodists, Quakers, the Anabaptists, the Swedenborgians, and the Unitarians; the last class denying the Trinity, and believing only in one God, is now intermingled with the two first, who have considerably relaxed the strictness of their discipline. The Independents assert, that each congregation has a right to regulate itself, while the Presbyterians unite churches under various divisions, provincial and national. The clerical aristocracy of the Presbyterians was obtruded with great haughtiness upon the English nation during the civil war in the last century, and was rendered the more odious, because it admitted no toleration: hence the English found that they had only exchanged one yoke for another, or rather for slavery, as ten presbyters amounted to one bishop, and superadded the petulance and moroseness of individual inquisitors. Milton and other friends of freedom soon began to satirize the whole sect, and to fly for refuge to the Independents, whose benevolence granted universal toleration. To this body Cromwell lent an iron hand; and after annihilating the Presbyterian power in England, in a great measure subverted that of Scotland. The intolerant spirit of the Presbyterians originated with their apostle Calvin, whose cruelty to Servetus was balanced by surprising talents in clerical polity: it rendered their power singularly adverse to letters and taste; and no man of science who had studied the literary history of this country would wish for the revival of such domination. But at present Calvin would not recognise his disciples, as they have abandoned their polemical thistles, and cultivate the most elegant productions of the literary field. The Papists used chiefly to abound in Lancashire, Staffordshire, and Sussex; they had potent chiefs, and were a formidable body; but the passage from superstition to contempt is so natural, that many have fled to the opposite extreme. Those who retain their faith generally display moderation, which has been naturally increased by the late privileges extended to them.

The methodists are extremely numerous and respectable. They seem to allow the propriety of the creed and government of the Church of England; but inculcate Arminian doctrines rather than those of the establishment. A philosopher may well envy the mild creed and universal charity, or fraternal love of the Quakers; while we must allow with a sigh that a nation of quakers could not exist, except all nations were of the same persuasion. The Anabaptists disown infant baptism, and bathe the adult disciple. The Swedenborgians derive their name from the Baron Swedenborg, a nobleman, who exchanged his native country of Sweden for a residence in England. After having published two folio volumes in Latin upon the art of exploring mines, he was seized with a violent fever, and with great difficulty recovered. In his disordered imagination he seemed to maintain a frequent intercourse with the spiritual world; and he has published twenty or more vast volumes in quarto, also in Latin, replete with curious metaphysical ratiocination, interspersed with visions, which are sometimes narrated with high poetical spirit and elegance. His system is so much adapted to the strongest propensities of human nature, that his disciples encreased with great rapidity. His chief tenets are, that there is but one person of the Deity, namely, the Lord Jesus Christ; that the day of judgment is already passed, &c. &c.; but his most alluring tenets partake of Mohammedanism, in representing the connubial pleasures and the other enjoyments of a future world, which he paints as similar to this state of existence, but far exceeding it in the gratification of every sense whether mental or corporeal.

GOVERNMENT.] It is difficult to give a brief idea of the English constitution, which presents an infinite number of practical ramifications, and is ultimately connected with the spirit and manners of the people. A mere outline must here suffice. It is a limited monarchy, counterpoised by two senates, one of hereditary peers, the other of representatives, who are or ought to be chosen by the people. The stability and real power of the House of Commons depend on a general concurrence with the popular voice, arising partly from the mode of election, and partly from the sympathetic gradation of ranks.

Our lawyers pronounce that the King of England unites in his person the dignity of chief magistrate with the sanctity of a priest; and the title of Sacred Majesty appears to have commenced when he assumed the sanction of Head of the

the Church. So august is his person that even to mention or intend his death is a capital offence, when in all other cases the deed alone is punishable. Fortescue in his old emphatic language has described the office of the king of England to be "to *fight* the battles of his people, and to judge them with most righteous judgment." At his coronation he solemnly swears to govern his people according to parliamentary statutes, and the law of the country; to maintain the Protestant religion; and to preserve the legal rights and privileges of the bishops, clergy, and the church.

The acknowledged prerogatives of the monarch are chiefly to declare war and to make peace, a power upon which the whole of public prosperity may be said to depend; to form alliances and treaties; to grant commission for levying men and arms, and even for pressing mariners. To the king also belong all magazines, ammunition, castles, forts, ports, havens, and ships of war; he has also the special management of the coinage, and determines the alloy, weight, and value. The prerogative likewise extends to the assembling, adjournment, prorogation, and dissolution of parliament, and to its removal to any place. The sovereign also enjoys the nomination of all officers on sea and land; of all magistrates, counsellors, and officers of state; of all bishops and other great ecclesiastical dignitaries; and is not only the fountain of honour but of justice, as he may pardon any offence, or mitigate the penalty. As head of the church he may call a national or provincial synod, and with the consent enact canons either relating to faith or practice. The other prerogatives are more minute and more adapted to jurisprudential enumeration. The more important exceptions are, that he cannot enact new laws or impose new taxes without the consent of both houses of parliament.

This grand national council claims the next consideration. Originally both the nobles and the commons met in one house, and it is not improbable that the mere inconvenience of not finding halls large enough for our then ambulatory parliaments might have occasioned the division into two houses, unknown in any other country, and which in fact may be regarded as the sole foundation of English liberty. The House of Peers may be said to have existed from the earliest period of our history, but concerning the origin of the Commons there is a dispute between the Tory and the Whig writers. The present constitution of the parliament of England may however be traced with certainty to near the middle of the thirteenth century; but it remains unknown at what precise time happened the important separation of the Commons from the Peers. The latter are hereditary senators in their several degrees of duke, marquis, earl, viscount, and baron*. The various orders of nobility have been preserved more pure in England than in any other country; owing partly to the laws of primogeniture, partly to their senatorial office, partly to the institution of the college of heralds. The privileges of the peers are moderate and uninvidious, there being no exemption from taxes, &c. as in some countries.

The House of Commons consists of knights, citizens, and burgesses, chosen by counties, cities, and burghs, in consequence of royal writs directed to the sheriff. The members have certain privileges, as exemption from arrest in civil causes, on their journey to parliament, during their attendance, and on their return; nor can they be questioned out of the house for any sentiment there uttered. The commons form the grand inquest of the realm, and may impeach or accuse the greatest peers; but their chief privilege, and upon which their whole power depends, is the levying of money, in which they are deservedly so jealous, that they will not permit the smallest alteration in a money bill. Since the union with Ireland the House of Commons consists of six hundred and fifty-eight members; but by sickness, important offices, and indispensable avocations, there rarely appear above two-thirds of the number. A Speaker or president is chosen at the meeting of every new parliament, but is usually continued from one to another as the office requires a complete and ready knowledge of the forms, and considerable abilities.

Acts of parliament are first presented in the form of *bills*, and, after having gone through various and exact forms generally observed with

* The Duke is so styled from the Latin *dux*, a leader or general; the title of Marquis springs from the Gothic language, and implies the commander of a march or frontier: the Earl and Baron are also from the Gothic, and merely implies eminent men: the Viscount is Latin, and signifies the lieutenant of the count or earl.

great

great minuteness, become law on receiving the sanction of the Crown.

The attention of the nation is chiefly bent upon the Parliament, when grand political questions arise concerning war and peace, or affecting the constitutional liberties of the land. On such occasions the utmost powers of eloquence are exerted; and specimens produced worthy of Greece or Rome. Such trials of elocution may either arise in the stages of a bill as before described, or by the special motion of a member for some particular object for address to the throne.

Adjournments may frequently happen in one session, and the business is continued and resumed; but a prorogation terminates the session, and the bills not then passed must recommence their whole progress. By a modern statute the death of the king does not, as formerly, terminate the parliament; which, on the contrary, had it been previously dissolved, may, on that event, resume its functions.

Such are the three grand component parts of the English constitution; but perhaps its most beneficial and popular effects arise from the mode of administering justice, and other ramifications. For the sake of connection, however, it is proper first to consider the Privy Council and the other divisions of the government.

The Privy Council formerly possessed great power, but at present is chiefly employed in deliberations on affairs of sudden emergence, on peace and war, and special provinces of the royal prerogative. The members are chosen by the king, and on changes of administration are seldom erased, though those in opposition never attend. They are styled Right Honourable, and are sworn to observe secrecy: the lowest at the board pronounces his opinion first, and the king, if present, concludes with declaring his judgment.

Even at an early period, when the monarch maintained in his own hands a great share of the administration of justice, and of the actual exercise of authority, there were intervals of absence or recreation in which he delegated the chief management of business to some select person, usually an ecclesiastic whose cultivated talents qualified him for such an important trust. To lend more weight to this substitute, he was commonly appointed chancellor or chief administrator of civil justice, was president of the House of Peers, and supported the royal influence in that great assembly. But in later times, when the management of the House of Commons became the chief object of the crown, the chancellor of the Court of Exchequer, as superintendant of the public revenue, is the officer generally considered as prime minister. The distribution of fifty millions a year, joined with the royal support, has recently carried his power to the highest elevation. Next to him in authority are the secretaries of state, who are followed by the chancellor, the treasurer of the navy, the president of the council, the paymaster of the forces, the commissioners of the treasury, and other persons of high trust.

JUDICATURE AND LAWS.] The judicature of England is worthy of the highest applause with regard to precision and purity; and bribes, so frequent in other countries, being totally unknown, the saving of this expence must be candidly poised against other legal disbursements. The trial by jury is another glorious feature of English jurisprudence, handed down from the Saxon times, and is justly respected as the very safeguard of the lives, liberties, and properties of the nation. It would be idle and extraneous here to attempt even a brief sketch of the laws of England. The most singular usages are what are termed *Borough English*, by which the youngest son, or, in defect of issue, the youngest brother was to enjoy the heritage, as it was to be presumed that his elder brethren had learned their father's business, and that of gavel kind, scarcely known except in Kent. In no country are wills so much venerated by law.

The forest laws relate chiefly to offences committed in or near the precincts of the royal forests, and were formerly regarded as a considerable portion of the national code. But a more vigorous branch of English judicature must not be forgotten: martial law, or the *Lex Castrensis Anglicana*, may be clearly traced to the reign of Henry V. who issued a code of military statutes published by Upton and Grose. The statutes chiefly relate to sacrilege, prisoners, robbery, merchants, &c. &c. and refer solely to the acts exercise of war; the pain of death rarely occurs except in the case of any person who cries *hare*, an expression seemingly equivalent to "no quarter." Martial law may be proclaimed by the king, regent, or lieutenant-general of the king

dom; and even in time of peace, though the prerogative be rarely employed except during war. It is in fact a dictatorial power never exerted except on great emergencies. The trials are summary and severe according to the necessity of the case.

Among the courts of law the next in dignity to the House of Lords is the court of King's Bench, so called because the sovereign was understood to judge in person; and its jurisdiction of course extends to the whole kingdom, the presiding judge being denominated Lord Chief Justice of England. The Court of Chancery judges causes in equity to moderate the rigour of the law, and defend the helpless from oppression, and especially to extend relief in three cases, accident, fraud, and breach of trust. The Court of Common Pleas determines, as the name imports, the common suits between subject and subject, and tries all civil causes, real, personal, or mingled, according to the precise precepts of the law. The Court of Exchequer, so termed from the ancient mode of accounting upon a chequered board, decides all causes relating to the royal treasury or revenue. There is also a court for the duchy of Lancaster, having cognizance of the revenues of that duchy annexed to the crown by Henry IV.

The judges perform their circuits in the spring and autumn, and in the mean while more minute cases are determined by the justices of the peace, who may be traced to the fourth year of Edward III. Every three months the justices of the county meet at what is called the quarter sessions, and the grand inquest or jury of the county is there summoned, which inquires concerning crimes, and orders the guilty to jail till the next circuit or assizes. The office of the sheriff is to execute the royal mandate, to impannel juries, to bring persons for trial, and to see the sentences executed; to collect fines and remit them to the exchequer, and to preserve the tranquillity of the shire.

There was formerly a bailiff in every hundred, but the office is now rare. The constables personally assist in the preservation of the peace, and execute the warrants of the justices. The coroner inquires by a jury of neighbours into cases of violent death. The clerk of the market superintends the weights and measures; and it were to be wished, for the benefit of the poor, that the office were multiplied and strictly enforced.

Such are the chief magistrates and officers in the country. Cities and towns are generally ruled by a mayor and aldermen, or by similar magistrates under different appellations, whose juridical power little exceeds that of justices of the peace.

To enumerate the various punishments inflicted by the laws of England would be an unnecessary task. It has been justly observed that they are too sanguinary, and that their frequency diminishes the intended purpose of impressing terror. If death were only inflicted in cases of murder, the relaxation would be found beneficial to the community; for, as man is an animal reared with considerable difficulty, and may generally be rendered useful, it would certainly be preferable to send criminals for life to the new and distant Asiatic settlements, than by the waste of blood to lessen strength and population.

Population.] The population of England and Wales by the late enumeration amounts to nine millions three hundred and forty-three thousand five hundred and seventy-eight. That of Ireland is generally computed at three millions, while that of Scotland has been lately found to equal one million six hundred and seven thousand seven hundred and sixty.

Army.] The army during the late war was supposed to exceed one hundred and seventy thousand, with thirty thousand fencibles, and seventy-eight thousand militia, the volunteers being supposed to be sixty thousand.

Navy.] But the great rampart and supreme glory of Great Britain consist in her navy, in size, strength, and number of ships, far exceeding any example on record. At the beginning of June, 1810, the following was the state of the British Naval Force: In commission one hundred and fifty-two ships of the line; twenty-two from fifty to forty-four guns, one hundred and seventy-eight frigates, besides sloops, yachts, bombs, fireships, brigs, &c. amounting to eight hundred and thirty-four.

For this immense fleet the number of seamen amounts from one hundred to one hundred and twenty thousand, a number which no other country ancient or modern could have supplied*.

The

* The naval power of Great Britain constitutes so striking and important a feature in the national portrait, that it merits particular illustration. Even in the Saxon times we find considerable fleets mentioned of the small vessels then in

The special superintendance of the navy is committed to the Board of Admiralty, composed of admirals of known skill, and of peers whose impartiality generally regards merit alone in this important service. The recent conduct of maritime war has been crowned with distinguished success.

REVENUE.] In ancient times the royal revenue chiefly arose from the domains, or lands appropriated to the crown, from amerciaments civil and criminal which passed to the fisc or treasury, and from customs on goods imported and exported. As in war each soldier was obliged to maintain himself for a certain time, the expenditure was not much increased. Upon extraordinary emergencies, it appears that a contribubution was raised by the consent of the national council. In later periods subsidies were granted to the amount of a fifteenth or a tenth of landed income, and a proportionable rate on moveable goods. As society advanced, taxes began to be imposed on the materials themselves; and from a small plant an enormous tree has risen, with a labyrinth of roots, which in the opinion of some politicians undermine the island, while others believe that they only produce a more firm consolidation.

The excise forms one of the most productive branches of the revenue, amounting to between seven and eight millions. Next stand the customs, which produce about half that sum. The stamps and incidental taxes, as they are termed, arise to an immense sum†. The land tax has recently been rendered perpetual, and sold to proprietors of estates and other individuals. But instead of the land-tax, now appear those on sugar, tobacco, and malt, amounting to two millions seven hundred and fifty thousand pounds; the other supplies arise from the East India Company, lotteries, &c. In the year 1809 it was supposed that the additional sums raised by loans, and other methods, swelled the national expenditure to near eighty millions sterling. The property tax produces an enormous sum, but it is said to give general dissatisfaction.

Of the permanent taxes the greater part is employed in discharging the interest of the national debt, which after the American war amounted to more than two hundred and thirty-nine millions, while the interest exceeded nine millions. At present, May 1810, the national debt is about nine hundred millions!!!.

To alleviate this growing burthen, a sinking fund was instituted in 1786, by which a small part has been redeemed. The national debt began in the reign of William, and grew into what are called the funds or stocks, only synonimous terms for the public debt.

The civil list, from which are defrayed the salaries of officers of state, judges, ambassadors, &c. together with the expences of the royal family, amounts to one million annually.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS.] With such a prodigious command of national treasure, the political importance and relations of Great Britain may be said to be diffused over the world; for wherever money influences man, there may her power be perceived. The union of Scotland with England delivered the latter country from the perpetual check, exercised by politicians ancient and modern, of exciting an enemy from behind, and thereby dividing the power of an antagonist. That with Ireland, if preserved by

in use. One of the Northumbrian monarchs assembled a numerous fleet near Jarro, the monastery of Beda, in an extensive haven of the time, now become a salt marsh. About the year 882 we find that Alfred directed a powerful fleet against the Danish invaders. The fleet of Edgar is also celebrated, but the armament of Ethelred the second in the year 1009 exceeded any which England ever before had beheld, probably amounting to five hundred of the small ships then known. But the devastation of the Danes and Normans occasioned such a decline in the naval power of England, that Richard I. was obliged to have recourse to foreign vessels for his crusade. In the reign of John we, for the first time, find commemorated a signal victory of the English and Flemings over the French fleet of Philip Augustus, which was computed at one thousand seven hundred ships, or rather boats. The English monarch in the pride of his triumph was the first who ordered the SALUTE to be paid by foreign vessels to the national flag. The fleet of England thenceforth continued to be always respectable, and generally victorious; but the preponderance of the English armaments over those of France only became permanent and decisive a little more than a century ago, after the battle of La Hogue, Spain had yielded the contest since the destruction of her great Armada, and Holland had been greatly reduced in her naval conflicts unders Charles the Second; so that no other rival remained, and Great Britain still maintains a superiority over the ocean.

† The stamp duty for the year ending the 15th of January, 1810, amounted to five millions one hundred and nineteen thousand four hundred and sixty-seven pounds eighteen shillings and four pence.

wise

ble and lenient measures, must also impart additional energy. The most important political considerations are those between Great Britain and France. If this country must not be styled the natural enemy of Great Britain, she has yet for many centuries been a constant and jealous rival, eagerly embracing every opportunity to check British prosperity and power. Such being the case, it has been regarded as the political interest of England to balance and divide the enmity of France by a strict alliance with some limitaneous state: but at present (1810) there is not one nation on the continent of Europe in alliance with Great Britain, the whole having been overturned by the gigantic power of France. Even Russia, a strict alliance with the Emperor of France, might, by no great stretch of oriental power, attach an army into Hindostan, which, in all probability, would overturn our opulent possessions in that quarter of the world.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] The English are deemed to exceed in the use of animal food; but since the introduction of potatoes and other excellent vegetables, this position may be doubted. In potations of heavy malt liquor, deservedly like foreigners, as a singularity in English diet. Even our lightest liquors of that sort have not escaped their remark; for a late French traveller has observed, that the English commonly drink with their meals a sort of medical ptisan, which they call small beer. Our ancestors prided themselves on the variety and richness of their ales; but the most peculiar malt beverage is porter, which ought to be solely composed of brown or high dried malt, hops, liquorice, and sugar; but it is sometimes debased by other ingredients: that of London is particularly famous, and is an article of exportation, being esteemed a luxury on the banks of the Delaware and the Ganges. The prodigious consumption of tea is another peculiar feature, the use of that plant being rare in other European countries. The baneful effects of excess in spirituous liquors may be traced in the ruined health and morals of the people.

The simplicity of the English cookery strikes foreigners as much as that of the dress, which even among the great is very plain, except on the days of court gala.

The houses in England are peculiarly commodious, neat, and cleanly; and domestic architecture seems here arrived at its greatest perfection.

The amusements of the theatre and of the field, and various games of skill or chance, are common to most nations. The baiting of bulls and bears, is nearly discontinued: one of the most peculiar amusements of the common people is, the ringing of long peals, with many changes.

Prior to the middle of the sixteenth century, the English and French were regarded as barbarous nations by the more polished Italians. The reign and female blandishments of the court of Elizabeth seem to have had a wonderful effect in civilizing the manners.

The genuine attribute of the English is integrity, which has carried their credit and commerce to an extent before unknown in the history of nations.

LANGUAGE.] Most European languages are derived from the Gothic or the Latin. To the Latin origin belong Italian, French, and Spanish; to the Gothic, the German, Dutch, Flemish, Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian. From the situation of the country, and other causes, the English participates of both those grand sources; and unites in some degree the force of the Gothic with the melody of the Latin dialects. The ancient ground, and native expression, originate from the Gothic divisions of the Belgic, Saxon, and Danish; but particularly from the Belgic, as will appear from comparison with the Dutch and Frisic. The languages of Latin origin have, however, supplied a vast wealth of words, sometimes necessary, sometimes only adopted because they are more sonorous, though not so emphatic as the original Gothic. The construction of the English language is peculiar, and renders the study of it very difficult to foreigners. The German and other Gothic dialects present declensions of nouns, and other correspondencies with the Latin, while in the English all such objects are accomplished by prefixes. Anomalies also abound, and are too deeply rooted, ever to be eradicated by grammatical rules.

EDUCATION.] In a view of any country, education forms one of the most important topics, as its consequences extend to the essence and well-being of the community. The education of the lower classes in England had become extremely neglected, before the benevolent institution of the

the Sunday schools. The middle and higher ranks of English spare no expence in the education of their sons, by private tutors at home, or at what are called day schools and boarding schools. Our most eminent public schools are those of St. Paul's, Westminster, Eton, and Winchester; and from them have arisen some of the most distinguished ornaments of their country. The scholars in due time proceed to the universities of Oxford and Cambridge; foundations, of an extent and grandeur that impress veneration.

Of the two universities, many minute descriptions have appeared. Oxford is the more majestic; from the grandeur of the colleges and other public buildings, and the superior regularity and neatness of the streets: but the chapel of King's College, at Cambridge, is supposed to excel any single edifice of the other university. Both of those magnificent seminaries impress every feeling mind with reverential awe; not only by their architectural dignity, but by a thousand collateral ideas of ancient greatness and science.

Cities and Towns.] London, the metropolis of England, is situated in an extensive plain or valley watered by the Thames, and only confined on the north by a few small elevations. It now includes Southwark, a borough on the south side of the Thames, and Westminster, another city on the west. London presents almost every variety which diversifies human existence. Upon the east it is a sea-port, réplete with mariners and with the trades connected with that profession. In the centre, it is the seat of numerous manufactures and prodigious commerce: while the western or fashionable extremity presents royal and noble splendour, amidst scenes of the highest luxury and most ruinous dissipation. The population of London has been by some exaggerated to a million of souls; but by the late enumeration it does not contain above eight hundred and eighty-five thousand five hundred and seventy-seven. Its length from Hyde-park Corner on the west to Poplar on the east, is about six miles; the breadth unequal, from three miles to one and less; the circumference is about sixteen miles. The houses are almost universally of brick. The cathedral of St. Paul is majestic to a degree of sublimity, but the interior is defective in decoration. Westminster abbey may claim the next rank to St. Paul's cathedral; being not only in itself a grand impressive edifice of the Gothic class, but as being the sanctuary of the illustrious dead of all ranks, periods, and professions, from the victorious monarch down to the humble pedagogue.* Adjacent are the two houses of parliament, and Westminster-hall; a vast room, two hundred and thirty feet long and seventy wide, with a curious cieling of Irish oak, and apartments on the side, in which are held the principal courts of justice.

The churches and chapels exceed two hundred in number, and a few are of beautiful architecture.

York is next to the capital in dignity, though not in extent or opulence; it is not only the chief of a large and fertile province, but may be regarded as the metropolis of the North of England. This venerable city is divided by the river Ouse, and the Gothic cathedral is of celebrated beauty, the western front being peculiarly rich, the chief tower very lofty, and the windows of the finest painted glass. York divides with Edinburgh the winter visits of the northern gentry. Its inhabitants, according to the enumeration in 1801, amount to sixteen thousand one hundred and forty-five.

Liverpool, in Lancashire, is now much near to London in wealth and population: being the seat of a vast commerce, which has been continually on the increase since the beginning of this century, when it was merely a village. In 1699, Liverpool was admitted to the honour of being constituted a parish. By the enumeration in 1801 it contained seventy-seven thousand six hundred and fifty-three inhabitants.

Bristol is still a large and flourishing city, though much of its commerce with the West Indies and America have passed to Liverpool. This metropolis of the west of England gradually rose to eminence in the Anglo-Saxon period. The hot-wells in the neighbourhood appear to have been known in 1480: but the water was chiefly used externally till about the year 1670, when a baker dreaming that his diabetes was relieved by drinking the water, he tried the experiment and recovered. Since that period its reputation has increased, and many commodious and elegant erections have contributed to recom-

* Our limits will not permit us to enter into a detailed account of the British metropolis: we shall therefore content ourselves with referring the inquisitive reader to Dr. Hugson's "History of London and its Environs."

mend these wells to invalids. In the adjacent rocks are found beautiful crystals, which, before the introduction of artificial gems, were greatly in fashion for female ornaments. The trade of Bristol is chiefly with Ireland, the West Indies, or North America. Inhabitants in 1801, sixty-three thousand six hundred and forty-five.

Bath, in the vicinity of Bristol, is esteemed the most elegant town in England. The hot-baths, from which it derives its name, were known in the Roman times; nor was their celebrity lost, even in the dark period of Anglo-Saxon history. But the town has been greatly enlarged and decorated in the last century. The waters are used both internally and externally, chiefly in gout, bilious, and paralytic cases. Situated in a vale, Bath is very hot in summer. The houses are constructed of white stone, which abounds in the neighbourhood. Its inhabitants in 1801 amounted to thirty-two thousand two hundred.

Manchester, in Lancashire, was in the Roman times a small station; but it continued in obscurity till the time of Elizabeth, when Camden mentions its manufacture of woollen-cloths. The inhabitants amount to eighty-four thousand and twenty.

Birmingham, in Warwickshire, was originally a village, belonging to a family of the same name, whose monuments remain in the old church. Leland mentions it as a town inhabited by smiths and cutlers, in the time of Henry VIII.; and by Grimors, now called bit makers. The extension and improvement of Birmingham originated in a great degree from Mr John Taylor, who introduced the manufacture of gilt buttons, and japanned and enamelled works. The population in 1791, amounted to seventy-three thousand six hundred and seventy.

Sheffield, in the most southern part of Yorkshire, is celebrated for its cutlery and hardware manufactures. In the year 1615, the population only amounted to two thousand one hundred and fifty-two; at present, it is equal to thirty-one thousand three hundred and fourteen.

Edifices.] In a brief enumeration of the principal edifices in England, the royal palaces demand of course the first attention. Windsor castle, situated on an eminence near the Thames, has an appearance truly grand, and worthy of the days of chivalry. The view extends as far as the cathedral of St. Paul's; and the whole scene strongly impresses the circumstances so vividly delineated in Gray's pathetic ode on Eton College. This palace contains many noble paintings, particularly the cartoons of Raphael. Hampton-Court is in a low situation, ornamented with aqueducts from the river Colne. This palace is also replete with interesting pictures. The royal gardens at Kew are truly worthy of a great and scientific prince; the ground, though level, is diversified with much art; and the collection of plants from all the regions of the known world, fills the admirer of nature with delight and surprise. They are so disposed, that every plant finds, as it were its native soil and climate; even those that grow on rocks and lava having artificial substitutes.

The royal palace at Greenwich has been long abandoned, but the observatory does credit to science. It is a plain edifice, well adapted to astronomical observations, and at present ably superintended by Dr. Maskelyne. Dr. Herschell's observatory, instead of containing his telescope, is suspended from it in the open air, at Slough, near Windsor, where he is continually extending the bounds of astronomical knowledge.

Among the houses of the nobility and gentry, or palaces, as they would be termed on the Continent, the first fame, perhaps, belong to Stowe, the seat of the Marquis of Buckingham; which, for its enchanting gardens, has been long celebrated. The opinion of artists at the present day, with respect to the comparative elegance of architectural nicety and rural decoration, is greatly at variance; one giving the preference to Stowe, while others extol the simplicity and superb grandeur of the architecture of Tilney House, on Epping Forest; but our limits will not permit an enumeration of these particulars. When Mr. Beckford's magnificent erections at Fonthill are completed, that fame will be far surpassed.

Among public buildings must not be omitted, the noble hospitals for seamen and soldiers, at Greenwich and Chelsea. Many of the county halls have no inconsiderable claim to elegant architecture.

Bridges.] The bridges are worthy the superiority of the English roads; and a surprising exertion in this department, is the recent construction of bridges in cast iron, an invention unknown to all other nations. The first example was that of Coalbrook-dale, in Shropshire, erected over the Severn in 1779. This

bridge rests on abutments of stone-work, the main rib consisting of two pieces, each seventy feet long, connected by a dove-tail joint fastened with screws. The road over the bridge is made of clay and iron slag, twenty-four feet wide and one deep; the span of the arch, a hundred feet six inches; height from the base line to the centre, forty feet; the weight of iron employed, three hundred and seventy-eight tons ten hundred weight. Another iron bridge has since been erected in the vicinity. A stupendous iron bridge has been recently thrown over the harbour at Sunderland: the height of which is one hundred feet, and the span of the arch two hundred and thirty-six; it is composed of detached pieces, which, if damaged in any of the parts, may be withdrawn and replaced by others. It is supported between two strong and elevated stone piers, and the arch is surmounted at either end by vast hoops, supporting the platform or passage of the bridge, which is thus rendered almost level. When viewed from beneath, the elegance, lightness, and surprising height, excite admiration, and the carriages appear as if passing among the clouds.

INLAND NAVIGATION.] This article is important to the best interests of the country, and demands particular attention. The earliest inland navigation that can be authenticated, is the Sankey canal, leading from the coal-pits at St. Helens, in Lancashire, to the river Mersey, and constructed in order to convey coals to Liverpool. The length of the canal is twelve miles, with a fall of ninety feet The act of parliament passed in 1755; the original intention was only to render the rivulet called Sankey Brook, navigable: but it was found more advantageous to form a canal along its course. The surveyor was Mr. John Eyes.

But the Duke of Bridgewater is justly venerated as the grand founder of inland navigation: his spirit and opulence were happily seconded by Mr. Brindley, than whom a greater natural genius in mechanics never existed. It was in 1758 that the first act was obtained for these great designs. The first canal extends from Worsley mill, about seven computed miles from Manchester, and reaches that town by a course of nine miles. In this short space almost every difficulty occurred that can arise in similar schemes; but mountains and rivers yielded to the genius of Brindley. There are subterraneous passages to the coal in the mountain, of near a mile in length, sometimes cut through the solid rock, and occasionally arched over with brick; with air-funnels to the top of the hill, some of them thirty-seven yards perpendicular. This beautiful canal is brought over the river Irwell, by an arch of thirty-nine feet in height, and under which barges pass without lowering their masts. The Duke of Bridgewater soon afterwards extended a canal of twenty-nine miles in length, from Longford-bridge, in Lancashire, to Hempstones, in Cheshire.

After this deserved tribute to the fathers of inland navigation in England, it will be eligible to review the other canals in a geographical manner, proceeding from the north to the south.

First in order is the Lancaster canal, extending from Kendal, in Westmoreland, by Lancaster, to West Houghton in Lancashire, a space of about seventy-four miles.

The canal from Leeds to Liverpool, directed in a northerly course by Skipton, winds through an extent of a hundred and seventeen miles; and from this canal a branch also extends to Manchester, begun in 1771.

From Halifax to Manchester is another considerable canal, commonly called that of Rochdale; length thirty-one miles and a half, begun in 1794.

Another canal extends from Manchester toward Wakefield; and another called the Peak Forest canal, stretches from the former, south-east, about fifteen miles.

Another joins the river Don, several miles above Doncaster, to the river Calder, near Wakefield in Yorkshire.

To pass several of smaller note, the Chesterfield canal extends from Chesterfield, in the county of Derby, to the Trent at Stockwith, a course of forty-four miles and three quarters, begun in 177[illegible].

In Lincolnshire, one canal extends from Lincoln to the Trent, and another from Horncastle to Sleaford. Grantham canal reaches from that town to the river Trent, a course of thirty miles.

The grand design of Brindley was to join, by inland navigation, the four great ports of the kingdom, Bristol, London, Liverpool, and Hull. Liverpool is accordingly connected with Hull by a canal from that long navigable river the Trent

and proceeding north to the Mersey. The canal which joins these two rivers is styled the Grand Trunk; and was begun in 1766, under the direction of that great engineer; but was not completed till 1777: the length is ninety-nine miles. It was attended with great difficulties, particularly in passing the river Dove, in Derbyshire, where there is an aqueduct of twenty-three arches, the tunnel through the hill of Hare-castle, in Staffordshire, is in length two thousand eight hundred and eighty yards, and more than seventy yards below the surface of the ground, and was executed with great labour and expence. But the utility corresponds with the grandeur of the design: salt from Cheshire, coals and pottery from Staffordshire, and manufactures from various places, are transported on this canal.

From the Grand Trunk five or six branches extend in various directions; among which must not be omitted that to the river Severn, near Newdley, which connects the port of Bristol with those of Liverpool and Hull; the length is forty-six miles; completed in 1772.

From the city of Chester one canal extends to the Mersey, and another to Namptwich; another proceeds south to Shrewsbury, uniting the Mersey and the Severn; with north-west and south-east branches of considerable length.

From Coventry, in the centre of the kingdom, canals extend to the Grand Trunk; to Ashby-de-la-Zouch, and to the Braunston, or Grand Junction canal.

What is called the Staffordshire canal, extends from the Grand Trunk to the river Severn; and is met by the Kington canal, which reaches to Kington, in Herefordshire, so as almost to join the river Trent and Wye. It may be here observed, that in this description the grand courses of navigation are attended to, rather than the minute names and divisions of the canals.

Several inland navigations pass by Birmingham. The Union canal completes a course of forty-three miles and three quarters, from Leicester to Northampton, whence the river Nen is navigable to the sea.

Another canal extends from Gloucester to Hereford: and the south of Wales presents several navigations of considerable length, particularly that from Brecon, in Brecknockshire, to Newport, in Monmouthshire.

The Severn is not only joined with the Trent and the Humber, by various courses of navigation, but is united with the Thames, by a canal extending by Stroud to Lechlade, a course of near forty miles.

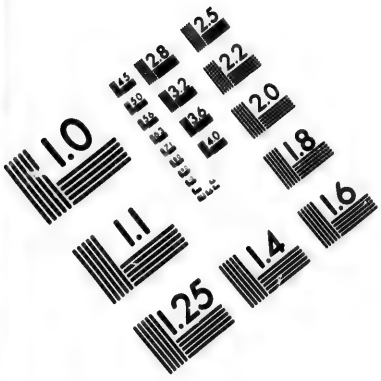
Other canals branch out from the Thames in various directions: that of Oxford extends to the Grand Trunk, or rather joins the Coventry canal, after a course of ninety-two miles.

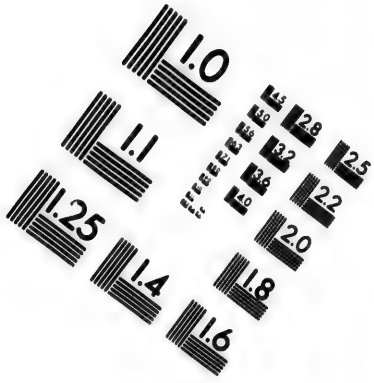
The Braunston, or Grand Junction canal, reaches from Brentford, on the Thames, and joins the Oxford canal at Braunston, in Northamptonshire, after a course of ninety miles. It is styled the Grand Junction, because it may be said to unite the numerous courses that pervade the central counties, with the capital of the kingdom.

On the south of the Thames, a canal proceeds from Reading to Bath; and another from Weybridge to Basingstoke; and a third from Weybridge to Godalmin.

A small canal or two have been executed in Devonshire. The Andover canal, in Hampshire, extends from Andover to Southampton water. Sussex presents two canals, that of Arundel, and that of Lewes.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] The manufactures and commerce of England, form so extensive a theme, that only a brief account of them can be here attempted. The earliest staple commodity of England was tin, a metal rarely found in other countries. The Phœnicians first introduced it into commerce, at least five or six hundred years before the Christian æra; and their extensive trade soon diffused it among the Oriental nations. The Romans, upon their conquest of these regions, did not neglect this source of wealth; but as Cornwall was not conquered by the Anglo-Saxons, till the reign of Athelstan, we know not whether the Cornu-Britons carried on any considerable traffic in this commodity, though it be probable that it was at least exchanged for the wines of France. Yet even in the reign of John, the product was so inconsiderable, that the mines were farmed to Jews for one hundred marks; but in that of Henry III., they began again to yield a large profit, which has gradually increased. Cornwall, like most countries that abound with minerals, presents an external aspect of desolation: a series of barren hills and bleak heaths pervades its whole length, and the violent winds from the sea check the vegetation of trees





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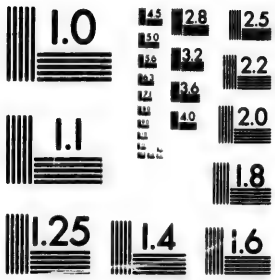

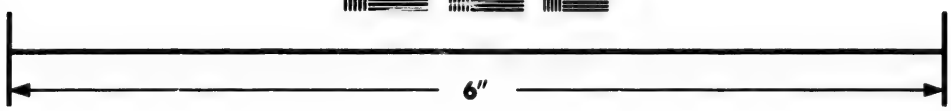

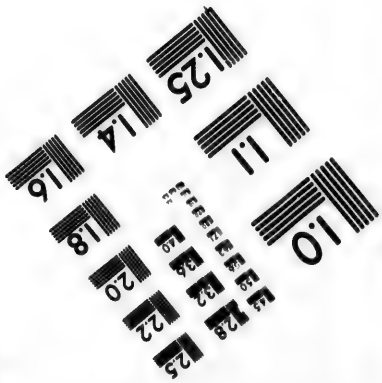

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and shrubs. The tin mines are numerous, and of various descriptions. This metal is either found in the mass in what are called *lodes* and *flools;* or in grains, or bunches, in the rocks; or detached in separate stones, called *shodes* or *strings;* or in a course of such stones called the *beuheyl* or *living string*; or in the pulverized shape of sand. After having been pounded in a mill, it is melted into blocks of three hundred and twenty pounds weight. In the ore it is styled black tin; and is sometimes, though very rarely, found in a metallic state*.

Wool had been regarded as a grand staple of England, as early as the twelfth century, but was chiefly exported in a crude state till Edward III. encouraged settlements of Flemish manufacturers. Wool soon became the standard of private property, and the prime article of commerce. Taxes and foreign subsidies were estimated by sacks of this commodity†. Great quantities of raw wool continued to be exported to the Netherlands and Hanse Towns; but in the reign of Elizabeth it began to be chiefly manufactured at home, and the exportation of woollen cloths was then valued at a million and a half annually. The exportation of raw wool was at length prohibited; and the woollen fabrics preserve great importance, though they no longer attract such particular regard, amidst the exuberance of English manufactures.

In recent times the manufactures of iron and copper, native minerals, have become great sources of national wealth; nor must the new and extensive exportation of elegant earthen-ware be forgotten. The cotton manufacture is diffused far and wide, forming a grand source of industry and prosperity. That of linen, except of sail cloth, is not much cultivated in England. The manufactures of glass and fine steel, clocks, watches, &c. are deservedly eminent and extensive.

The English manufactures have been recently estimated at the annual value of sixty-three millions six hundred thousand pounds, and supposed to employ one million five hundred and eighty-five thousand persons. Of these, the woollen manufacture is supposed to yield in round sums, fifteen millions, the leather ten millions, the iron, tin, and lead ten millions, the cotton nine millions. The other chief manufactures, which yield fro one to four millions may be thus arranged, ac cording to their consequence; steel, plating, & copper and brass, silk, potteries, linen and fla hemp, glass, paper.

The commerce of England is, at the prese period, enormous, and may be said to extend every region of the globe. The trade with th West Indies is one of the most important, an that with the East Indies alone, would hav astonished any of the celebrated trading cities o antiquity.

From the United States of North America, a chiefly imported tobacco, rice, indigo, timbe hemp, flax, iron, pitch, tar, and lumber: fro the West Indies, sugar, rum, cotton, coffe ginger, pepper, guiacum, sarsaparilla, mancinea mahogany, gums, &c. From Africa, gold du ivory, gums, &c. From the East Indies an China, tea, rice, spices, drugs, colours, sil cotton, salt-petre, shawls, and other products o the loom. From our remaining settlements i North America are imported furs, timber, po ash, iron; and from the various states of Europ numerous articles of utility and luxury.

The annual income of Great Britain was esti mated in 1799 by Mr. Pitt at a hundred and tw millions; and including the money, of which th estimate is far from certain, the whole capital o Great Britain may perhaps be calculated at on thousand two hundred millions.

In the year 1797, the amount of the export according to Custom-house accounts, was twenty eight millions nine hundred and seventeen thou sand pounds, and of the imports, twenty on millions thirteen thousand pounds, yielding, a is supposed, clear profits on foreign trade, to th amount of at least ten millions. The number o merchant vessels amounts probably to sixtee thousand; and it is calculated that one hundre and forty thousand men and boys are employed i the navigation.

Climate and Seasons.] The climate of Gre Britain is perhaps more variable than that of an other country on the globe, as the vapours of th Atlantic Ocean are opposed to the drying wind from the Eastern Continent. The western coast in particular, are subject to frequent rains: an

* Borlase's Cornwall.

† Campbell's Political Survey, vol. ii. p. 151, 152. A work opulent in materials, but of most tedious and uncou execution.

the Eastern part of Scotland is of a clearer and drier temperature than that of England. The humidity of the climate, indeed, clothes the delicious vales and meadows with a verdure unknown to any other region: but is injurious to the health of the inhabitants, by causing colds and catarrhs, the frequent sources of more deadly disorders.

In consequence of the mutability of the climate, the seasons themselves are of uncertain tenour, and the year might more properly be divided into eight months of winter, and four of summer, than into any theoretic arrangement, originating in the southern latitudes. What is called the Spring dawns in April, commonly, indeed, a mild month; but the eastern winds, prevalent in May, seem commissioned to ruin the efforts of reviving nature, and destroy the promise of the year. June, July, August, and September, are usually warm summer months; but a night of frost is not unknown, even in August, and sometimes a cold East wind will blow for three days together; nor of late years, are summers unknown of almost constant rain*. The winter may be said to commence with the beginning of October, at which time domestic fires become necessary; but there is seldom any severe frost till Christmas, and January is the most stern month in the year. Yet, as our summers often produce specimens of winter, so now and then gleams of warm sunshine illuminate the darker months. March is generally the most unsettled month of the year, interspersed with dry frost, cold rains, and strong winds, with storms of hail and sleet.

Face of the Country.] From the mouth of the Tweed to Bamborough, extends a sandy shore; and the most remarkable object is Lindesfarn, or Holy Island, divided from Northumberland by a level, which is dry at low water, but out of which the flowing tide oozes suddenly, to the terror and peril of the unwary traveller. From Bamborough Castle, to Flamborough Head, are mostly low cliffs, of lime-stone, and other materials; and at Sunderland, of a peculiar stone used in building, and which seems the work of marine insects. Scarborough stands on a vast rock, projecting into the waves; but Flamborough Head is a far more magnificent object, being formed of lime-stone, of a snowy whiteness and stupendous height, visible far off at sea.

Hence to the Humber are commonly clay cliffs; and near Spurnhead, amber is sometimes found. The extensive coast of Lincolnshire is flat, and, according to Mr. Pennant's opinion, has been gained from the sea; though, in some parts, the sea has in its turn invaded the land, and the remains of a forest are visible under the waves. The county of Lincoln, and part of six others, are the low countries of Britain; and the coast is distinguishable by churches, not by hills. The shores of Norfolk and Suffolk present sometimes loamy or clayey precipices, sometimes hillocks of sand, and sometimes low and flat spaces. Hunstanton-cliff rises to the height of about eighty feet, composed of chalk and friable stone, resting on a base of what is called iron-coloured pudding stone, projecting into the sea. The coast of Essex is generally low; but, to the south of the Thames, arise continued cliffs of chalk, with layers of flint, resembling masonry. The north Foreland is a lofty, chalky promontory; and the cliffs of Dover are known to every reader of Shakespeare.

It is to be regretted that Mr. Pennant did not extend his animated description to the southern and western coasts: cliffs of chalk and clay are interspersed with flat gravel, till the island of Portland presents its bold rocky front. The western shores abound with granite, slate rocks, and lime-stone.

Soil and agriculture.] The soil and agriculture of England are topics which have recently been illustrated in such a multiplicity of meritorious works, that the subject labours under the abundance of the materials. A few very general remarks must here suffice. The soil is greatly diversified, but in general fertile; and in no country is agriculture more thoroughly understood, or pursued in a grander style, except, perhaps, in Flanders and Lombardy. The intermixture of the green crops with those of grain, the use of Turnips, the irrigation of meadows, the regular substitution of crops appropriated to the state of the land, the art of draining conducted on scientific principles, may be mentioned among the recent advances of knowledge. Amidst such topics

* The summer of 1800 was remarkable for dryness and warmth, scarcely any rain falling from the 6th of June to the 20th of August, when a thunder-storm succeeded.

of just exultation, it is mortifying to reflect upon two circumstances, the deficiency of a proper supply of grain, and the vast extent of waste lands in this industrious country. The cultivated acres in England and Wales are computed at upwards of thirty-nine millions, while those uncultivated are seven million eight hundred and eighty-eight thousand seven hundred and seventy-seven. Of these it is supposed that not above half a million is wholly unimprovable, and perhaps a million is only fit for plantations, while of the remainder one quarter is fit for tillage, and three-fourths for meadow and upland pasture.

Horticulture, or the art of gardening, is also pursued in England with great assiduity and success. The large supply of the capital in vegetables and fruits, and the high prices given for early produce, occasion such a spirit of cultivation, that each acre thus employed is supposed to yield about one hundred and twenty pounds annually, the yearly consumption in the metropolis being computed at more than one million. Of ornamental gardens, laid out with a just attention to the beauties of nature, and free from the uncouth affectations of art, England is deservedly regarded as the parent country.

Rivers.] England is intersected by four important rivers; the Severn, the Thames, the Humber, and the Mersey. The Severn rises from the mountain Plinlimmon, and, after an easterly course to Shrewsbury, bends its progress almost south to Gloucester, whence it flows south-west into the Bristol Channel, a progress of about one hundred and fifty miles, navigable as far as Welch Pool. Its chief tributary streams are the northern and southern Avons, the Teme, and the Wye.

The Thames originates in Cotswold Hills, Gloucestershire; and maintains a south-easterly direction, to its egress into the German Ocean, after receiving the Cherwel, the Tame, the Kennett, another Wye, the Mole, and the Lee. The Medway flows into the estuary of the Thames, as the Wye into that of the Severn. The course is computed at one hundred and forty miles, navigable to Cricklade.

The Humber is a name almost confined to a large estuary, which receives many considerable rivers that fertilize the central parts of England. Of these the Trent is the most important, which rises at New Pool, in Staffordshire, and, proceeding north-east, enters the Humber, after a direct course of about one hundred miles, being navigable to Burton in Staffordshire. The other principal rivers that issue into the Humber are the Don, a navigable stream which runs by Doncaster; the Aire, navigable to Leeds; and the Calder, navigable to Halifax; the Warf, navigable to Tadcaster; and the Ouse, which runs by York, and forms another grand branch of the Humber, navigable to Rippon: nor must the Derwent be omitted, which is navigable to New Malton; nor, though last and least, the Hull. The Humber may be regarded as the stem of a venerable oak, which, as usual with that tree, spreads its chief branches in a horizontal direction.

Though the Mersey presents a grand estuary, its course is not of great extent. It arises in the West Riding of Yorkshire, and runs to the south-west; but the estuary bends towards the north. The direct course is not above fifty miles; and is navigable to Stockport: as the Irewell to near Manchester, and the Weever to near Northwich, and the mines of rock-salt.

In briefly describing the other navigable rivers of this kingdom, it may be proper to return to the Severn, and, proceeding south-west, pursue the outline of the coast. The Avon is navigable to Bath, the Parret to Illchester, the Tone to Taunton, the Taw to Barnstaple, and another branch to Biddeford: the Camil of Cornwall, to Wedbridge, while the Plym, Dart, and Ex, can also be pervaded to a considerable height. Another Avon is navigable to near Salisbury, the Itchyn to Winchester, the Arun to Arundel, the Ouse to Lewes: the Rother, which forms the haven of Rye, is yet navigable, though fallen in fame. The Stour admits boats even to Canterbury; but the Medway presents a navigable stream as far as Tunbridge. On the north of the Thames, the Lee is navigable to Bishop's Stortford and Hertford: the Crouch conveys boats fromthe sea to Hull Bridge in Essex; the Blackwater to Chelmsford, and another branch to Colchester. The Stour is navigable to Sudbury; the Orwell to Stow, the Deben to Woodbridge; the Yare and Waveney present access to Foulsham, Norwich, and Bungay. Next is the estuary called the Wash, which receives the Ouse, the Nen, the Welland, the Witham; all streams of considerable navigation.

On the north of the Humber, the Tees admits vessels to Stockton; the Tyne to Newcastle. On the west, the Eden is navigable to Carlisle; the Lun or Loyne to Lancaster and Hornby; the Dee to Chester; the Conway to within two miles of Llanrwst; the Tivey to Llanbedr. Milford Haven presents branches navigable to Haverfordwest, and to near Wiston: and lastly, the Wye may be pursued as far as Hay in Brecknockshire.

Mountains.] The mountains seldom appear single, but are either disposed in lines or ridges, called chains. When they can be arranged under the first form or denomination, as the Alps, for example, or the Pyrenees, they afford great clearness to geographical limits and descriptions. It is not, however, to be conceived, that a chain of mountains forms one series, as delineated in general maps, for the leading summits diverge on both sides into extensive ribs, gradually melting into the champaign country. And the clusters, if accurately surveyed, will generally be found to present central elevations, whence smaller branches irradiate. The mountains of Cheviot may be said to form a regular ridge, running from the south-west, where they join those of Galloway to the north-east. But there is a central ridge which pervades England from north to south, beginning at Geltsdale forest, fourteen miles S. E. of Carlisle, and passing on the west of Durham and Yorkshire, where it contains mines of coal and lead. The chief elevations, such as Kelton-fell, Stanmore, Widehill-fell, Wildboar-fell, Bow-fell, Home-fell, Bunhill, &c. &c. arise on the western limits of Yorkshire. Cumberland and Westmoreland present many detached mountains, Skiddaw, &c. which can hardly be reduced to any distinct arrangement; but those of Craven, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, as Whârnside, Ingleborough, and Pennigent; and Pendle, on the east of Lancaster, belong to the Central Chain which proceeds south, through Derbyshire, still abounding with minerals and natural curiosities; but here it seems to terminate, spreading a little into Cheshire. A central chain, of smaller elevation, may be traced, in a zigzag line, to near Salisbury, with two diverging and irregular branches to the east, one towards Norfolk, another into Kent, while a third runs south-west into Cornwall. To the first belong the hills of Gogmagog, Cambridgeshire, &c. to the second the hills of Hampshire, Surrey, and Kent. Another upland tract of considerable elevation, called the Chiltern Hills, extends from Tring in Hertfordshire, to Henley in Oxfordshire. Malvern hills, in Worcestershire, deviate from the central ridge, while those of Cotswold, in Gloucestershire, may be regarded as a continuation of it. The hills of Mendip, Polden, Sedgemoor, Blackdown, in Somersetshire; the Tors and Wilds of Dartmoor, in Devon; and the hills and upland downs of Cornwall, extend this chain to the Land's End: and after passing this last rocky province, it expires in the islands of Scilly.

Wales is a country abundant in mountains, especially the northern provinces; but their orology remains indeterminate, and it would require the actual survey of an experienced engineer to reduce them to chains or groupes. To begin with the north, Snowdon commands the first attention, a mountain of eminent height and fame. The top is called Y Widdsa, or the conspicuous, forming almost a point, and presenting a view of the county of Chester, the mountains of Yorkshire, part of Scotland and Ireland, and the Isles of Man and Anglesey.

The stone that composes it is petrosilex and argillaceous schistus, large coarse crystals are often found in the fissures, and very frequently cubic pyritæ, the usual attendants on Alpine tracts. From Snowdon, a line of mountains extends by the sea to Pliulimmon, a boundary of North Wales, whence issue the noble rivers Severn and Wye. Of these rivers, Urrou Seth, Caer Idris, and Moel Vadiau, are the most memorable. The hills on the east of North Wales are far from attaining such considerable elevation, and gradually decline to the hills of Shropshire, of which the Wrekin is one of the most noted.

A chain proceeds due south to near Cardiff in South Wales; it is of far inferior height, and a small branch diverges to the west, consisting of Cwm Cothy, Mynydd, Carreg, Brilley, and Cwm Kerrun Hills. On the east of South Wales are the hills of Herefordshire, the Black Mountain, Cusop Hill, Hargest, Stockley Hill, &c.

Forests.] Many of the forests were, even in the Anglo-Saxon times, esteemed royal demesnes; but the Norman monarchs were so much addicted to the chace, that upwards of sixty forests at one time appertained to the crown;

crown; of which the chief now remaining are the forests of Dean, in Gloucestershire; Sherwood, in Nottinghamshire; Windsor, in Berkshire; and the New Forest, in Hampshire. The royal forests constituting so large a part of the kingdom, subject to peculiar regulations, many grievances arose, till the Barons exacted from Henry III. the forest charter; in which several despotic laws were revoked, and more equity extended to the neighbouring proprietors and tenants.

Zoology.] Of animals, Mr. Pennant enumerates twenty genera, from the horse down to the seal and bat. The bird extends to forty-eight, the reptiles to four, and the fish to forty genera, besides the crustaceous and shell fish.

That noble and useful animal, the Horse, is found in England of many mingled breeds, while most other kingdoms produce only one kind. Our race-horses descend from Arabian stallions, and the genealogy faintly extends to our hunters. The great strength and size of the English draught-horses are derived from those of Germany, Flanders, and Holstein; and other breeds have been so intermingled, that native horses may be found adapted to every purpose of pomp, pleasure, or utility. Those of Yorkshire are particularly celebrated for their spirit and beauty; and the grooms of that county are equally noted for their skill in the management of this valuable animal.

The indigenous horned cattle are now only known to exist in Neidwood forest, in Staffordshire; and at Chillingham castle, in Northumberland. They are long-legged and wild like deer, of a pure white colour, with black muzzles, ears, and tails, and a stripe of the same hue along the back. The domesticated breeds of our cattle are almost as various as those of our horses; those of Wales and Cornwall are small, while the Lincolnshire kind derive their great size from those of Holstein. In the North of England we find kylies, so called from the district of Kyle, in Scotland; in the South we find the elegant breed of Guernsey, generally of a light brown colour and small size, but remarkable for the richness of their milk. Of late years Mr. Bakewell, and others, have brought the breeding of cattle and sheep to a regular sytem.

The number and value of sheep in England may be judged from the ancient staple commodity of wool. Of this most useful animal several breeds appear, generally denominated from their particular counties or districts; those of Herefordshire, Devonshire, and Cotswold downs are noted for fine fleeces, while the Lincolnshire and Warwickshire kind are remarkable for the quantity. The Teesdale breed of the county of Durham, though lately neglected, continue to deserve their fame. The wool is beautiful, but the length of their legs lessens their value in the eyes of the butcher. The mutton of Wales, on the contrary, is esteemed, while the wool is coarse, yet employed in many useful and salutary manufactures. The most laudable exertions have lately been made by the Board of Agriculture, and by individuals, for the improvement of the English fleece.

The goat, an inhabitant of the rocks, has even in Wales, for the most part, yielded to the more useful sheep; that county being, like Scotland, more adapted to the woollen manufacture. The breeds of swine are various and useful.

England also abounds in breeds of dogs, some of which were celebrated even in Roman times, nor have their modern descendants, the mastiff and bull-dog, degenerated from the spirit and courage of their ancestors.

Of our savage animals the most fierce and destructive is the wild cat, which is three or four times as large as the domestic, with a flat broad face, colour yellowish white, mixed with dee grey, in streaks running from a black list on the back; hips always black, tail alternate bars of black and white; only found in the most mountainous and woody parts. The wolf has been long extinct, but the fox abounds.

The chief of our birds of prey are, the golden eagle, sometimes found on Snowdon; the black eagle has appeared in Derbyshire; the peregrine falcon breeds in Wales; and many kinds of hawks in England. An enumeration of the other birds would be superfluous. The nightingale, one of the most celebrated, is not found in North Wales, nor any where in the north, except about Doncaster, where it abounds; nor does it travel so far west as Devonshire and Cornwall. Our poultry seem to originate from Asia; our peacocks are from India; our pheasants from Colchis; the guinea fowl are from Africa. Of smallest bird is the golden-crested wren, whi spot

ports on the highest pine trees; and our largest
he bustard, some of which weigh twenty-five
ounds, and are found in the open countries of
he south and east. The most useful of our
ater fowl is the mallard, or wild duck, which
chiefly caught in the fens of Lincolnshire; the
umbers sent to the capital almost exceed cre-
ibility.

The reptiles are frogs, toads, several kinds of
zards: of our serpents, the viper alone is ve-
mous; other kinds are, the snake, sometimes
ound four feet in leng'h; and the blind worm,
ldom exceeding eleven inches.

Of fish, the whale but seldom appears near
e English coasts; the porpoise, and others of
e same genus, are not uncommon. The basking
ark appears off the shores of Wales. Numerous
e our edible sea fish. Some of the most ce-
brated are the turbot, doree, soal, cod, plaice,
elt, and mullet. The consumption of her-
gs and mackarel extends to most parts of the
gdom; but pilchards are confined to the
rnish coasts. Our chief river fish are the
mon and the trout, which are brought from
e northern parts in prodigious numbers, ge-
ally packed in ice. It is said that not less
n thirty thousand salmon are brought from
e river, the Tweed, to London, in the course
a season. The lamprey is chiefly found in
e Severn, the charr in the lakes of West-
reland.

The lobster is found on most of the rocky
sts, particularly off Scarborough; and the
glish oysters maintain their Roman reputa-
n. The green, from Colchester in Essex, and
juicy white, from Milton in Kent, have the
f reputation.

MINERALOGY.] The tin mines in Cornwall
e been already mentioned; and they are not
venerable from their antiquity, but are, it
upposed, the richest of the kind in the world.
at kind of silver termed by mineralogists horn
is also found in that district; but the pro-
nd secrecy observed in working it forbids any
stigation of the amount. The Huel rock
st of what is called bell-metal ore; and of
fram.

Cornwall also produces copper at Redruth,
one, and the Land's End. The same metal
und in Yorkshire and Staffordshire; but no
re in such abundance as in the Parrys moun-
tain, in the north-west of Anglesea. Instead of descending in veins through various rocky strata, the usual form of metallic ores, it here forms a prodigious heap, and is worked in the manner of a quarry. The mountain is almost bare of shrubs or grass, and is covered with aluminous slate, under which, in grey chert, is the ore, being chiefly the yellow sulphuret, of very variable richness. This valuable mine was discovered about thirty-five years ago.

Lead is found in the Mendip hills, Somersetshire; which also produce calamine and manganese. The lead mines in Derbyshire are well known, not only for that metal, but for the beautiful veins of fluor which accompany it, and which is manufactured into several ornamental articles. In general, the northern central ridge of mountains abounds with lead ore. The lead mines of Alston, on the eastern verge of Cumberland, employ about one thousand one hundred men.

No metal is so widely diffused through the globe as iron; and England not only contains excellent mines, but excels all nations in the variety of fabrication. The most remarkable mines of iron are those of Coalbrook-dale, Shropshire, Dean-forest in Gloucestershire, with some in the north of England, particularly near Ulverston, in Lancashire.

Among the minor metals, zinc, in the form of lapis calaminaris, and blende, is found in Derbyshire, Denbighshire, Cornwall, and other regions. Nickel and arsenic sometimes appear in Cornwall; and recently, what is called menachanite. But one of the most important of this kind is plumbago, or black lead, which is found in the ridge of Borrodale, near Keswic, in Cumberland; the mine is only opened at certain intervals of time.

Gold has been discovered in various quarters of England, but the metal has never recompensed the labour and expence. The real gold mines of England are those of coal, found in the central, northern, and western parts, but particularly in the northern, around Newcastle. The coals of Whitehaven and Wigan are more pure; and the cannel and peacock coals of Lancashire are so beautiful, that they are suspected by some to have constituted the *gagates*, or jet, which the ancients ascribed to Britain. A singular species of coal is found in Bovey heath,

Devonshire, resembling wood impregnated with bituminous matter. Turf, or peat, is common, even in Hampshire, and other southern counties.

The mines of rock salt, in Cheshire, appear to have been known to the Romans. Those of Northwich are the most remarkable: at Nampt-wich and Middlewich are only salt springs: and others occur at Droitwich, in Worcestershire, and Weston, in Staffordshire. The immense mines on the south side of Northwich were discovered about the beginning of this century. The quarries, with their pillars and crystal roof, extending over many acres, present a beautiful spectacle; the stratum of salt lies under a bed of whitish clay, at the depth of about forty yards. The first stratum is about twenty yards thick, so solid as to be blasted with gunpowder; this salt resembles brown sugarcandy. Next is a bed of hard stone, under which is a second stratum of salt, about six yards thick; in some parts brown, in others as clear as crystal. The Witton pit is circular, one hundred and eight yards in diameter, the roof supported by twenty-five pillars, each containing two hundred and ninety-four solid yards of rock salt; the whole covering near two acres of land. The annual produce of rock salt at Northwich has been estimated at sixty-five thousand tons; of which about two-thirds used to be exported to Flanders and the Baltic.

Marbles, and free-stone, or calcareous sand-stone, of various colours and textures, also occur; the most celebrated of the latter are those of Portland, Purbeck, &c. Fine alabaster appears in Derbyshire; fullers-earth in Berkshire, and some other counties.

Mineral Waters.] The mineral waters of Bath have been celebrated since the Roman times. Next to that place may be mentioned the hot-wells of Bristol, those of Tunbridge in Kent, and of Buxton and Scarborough in the North. Those of Cheltenham in Gloucestershire have been esteemed beneficial in scorbutic cases; but to enumerate the springs of inferior note would be infinite, as chalybeat wells, at least, must occur in almost every county, and new waters are daily starting into celebrity.

Natural Curiosities.] Among the natural curiosities, those of Derbyshire have always been esteemed the most memorable. Hobbes and others have long since celebrated the wonders of the Peak, a mountain not equal in height those of Wales, or the more northern part England, but perforated with such vertic chasms, and such surprising caverns, as ha deservedly excited admiration.

Other remarkable caverns are found in t northern ridge of English mountains. In t vale of Kingsdale, on the western extremity Yorkshire, is Yordas Cave, which presents subterraneous cascade. But the most noted Wethercot Cave, not far from Ingleton. is surrounded with trees and shrubs, is in fo like a lozenge, divided by an arch of lim stone; passing under which you behold a la cascade, falling from a height of more th twenty yards; the length of this cave is abo sixty yards, the breadth thirty.

The lakes of Cumberland form another gr scene of attraction: but it would be idle to tempt to depict, in a few words, beauties wh have been described by so many authors, particularly by the glowing pencil of a Gr Suffice it to observe, that the three most ce brated lakes are those of Coniston, Windermo and Derwent. The beauties of the first h been compared to the delicate touches of Clau the noble scenes of the second, to those Poussin; while Derwent has much of the s lime mildness of Salvator Rosa: but most t vellers esteem Ulswater the most truly sublim

The mountainous regions of Wales may be supposed to present many natural curiosi and the Parrys mine in Anglesea is in itse surprising object. The cataracts in Cumber are rivalled by a remarkable fall of the Tees the west of the county of Durham, over w is a bridge suspended by chains, seldom pa but by the adventurous miners; nor must garth force, in Yorkshire, be passed in silen

The submarine relics of a forest, on the c of Lincolnshire, may be deservedly classed a the most remarkable natural curiosities. O N.W. side of the Mendip hills is a conside cavern, at the bottom of a deep ravine, nea little village of Berrington, or Burrington. are a number of human bones, gradually i porating with the lime-stone rock; there a continual dripping from the roof and which deposits a stalactitic sediment on the b Several nodules contain perfect human s At the farther end, where the height is

fifteen feet, there is a large conic stalactite, which nearly meets a pillar rising from the floor. This cave was only discovered about six years ago; and as the matter increases so fast, it is conjectured that it would soon have been closed up. Hence it is probable that these bones are of no remote antiquity, and may perhaps be the remains of some persons who had here taken shelter from the cruelty of Jeffries, after the insurrection of Monmouth.

ENGLISH ISLES.

In the southern, or English channel, first appears the Isle of Wight, of an oval form, about twenty miles in length, and twelve in breadth. This isle is fertile and beautiful, and decorated with many picturesque villas; the principal haven is that of Newport. The chief mineral products are pipe clay, and fine white sand, for the fabrication of pure glass; and at Alum Bay, on the north side of the Needles, are found considerable quantities of native alum. One of the most remarkable buildings is Carisbrook castle, where Charles I. was imprisoned. The lofty white rocks styled the Needles, seem to have been disjoined from the western extremity of the isle by the violence of the waves. There were formerly three; but about the year 1782, the tallest, which rose about one hundred and twenty feet above the low-water mark, was overthrown, and totally disappeared.

At the distance of about seventy miles from Wight, to the S. W. arises the little isle of Alderney, off the Cape la Hogue; which is afterwards followed by the more important isles of Guernsey and Jersey; Sark being a small isle interposed between the two latter. Guernsey, the largest of these isles, is twelve miles long, nine broad, and about thirty-six in circuit. It is a verdant isle, though the soil be hilly, and barren of wood. The only town is that of Port St. Pierre. Jersey is about twelve miles in length, and six in breadth, a well watered and fertile island, producing excellent butter and honey. The winters are milder, but more windy, than those of England. The northern side of the island is high, but the southern subsides into pleasant vales, covered with orchards. The remarkable places are the two towns of St. Helier and St. Aubin, both standing on a bay, opening to the south; and the castle of Mont Orgueil. The inhabitants of Jersey are computed at twenty thousand, of whom three thousand are capable of bearing arms. In January 1781, St. Helier was surprised by eight hundred French, under Rullicourt, who was killed, while Major Pierson fell on the side of the English. Alderney is a small isle, with a town, and about one thousand inhabitants in all. Sark has about three hundred inhabitants.

Returning to the English shore, we first descry Eddistone light-house, beat by all the fury of the western waves. This edifice has repeatedly been overthrown; but the present erection, by Mr. Smeaton, composed of vast masses of stone, grooved into the rock, and joined with iron, promises alike to defy accidental fire, and the violence of the ocean, though the waves sometimes wash over the very summit in one sheet of foam.

About thirty miles to the west of the Land's End appear the Isles of Scilly. This cluster is said to consist of one hundred and forty-five isles, covered with grass or moss, besides innumerable dreary rocks. The largest isle is that of St. Mary, which is about five miles in circuit, and has a castle and garrison: inhabitants about six hundred. That of St. Agnes is rather fertile: inhabitants about three hundred. The whole inhabitants of the Scilly isles are computed at about one thousand. The cattle and horses small; but sheep and rabbits thrive well. Considerable quantities of kelp are prepared amid these rocks.

On turning to the north, first appears the little isle of Lundy, situated in the Bristol channel, about three miles long, but not a mile broad, with about five hundred acres of good land, some rivulets, and a castle. It was formerly a noted retreat for pirates.

Some small isles lie off the Welch coast of Pembrokeshire and Caernarvon, such as Caldy, Skomar, Bardsey, and others: but the isle of Anglesea deserves more attention: it is about twenty-five miles in length, and eighteen in breadth. The chief towns are Newburgh, Beaumaris, and on the western extremity, fronting Ireland, Holyhead. This isle is so remarkably fertile, that the Welsh have emphatically styled it the mother of Wales; and of late has been also productive of rich copper found in the Parrys-mountain, in the N. E. part of the island, near Amlwch, of which an account has been given

given in treating of the English minerals. Beaumaris is a large town, with a castle built by Edward I. Newburgh is a corporation of smaller moment. Holyhead, originally a fishing town, has become of consequence, by the Irish packets which pass daily, the average time being twelve hours.

The last English isle worth mention is that of Man; it is about thirty miles in length, and fifteen in its greatest breadth. In the midst is a high mountain, called Snafel. The chief mineral productions are black marble, slate, lime stone, lead, copper, and iron. Man is also well stored with black cattle, and sheep; and the population has of late years greatly increased.

SCOTLAND.

EXTENT.] That part of Great Britain called Scotland is about two hundred and sixty miles in length, by about one hundred and sixty as its greatest breadth; it extends from the fifty-fifth degree of latitude, to more than fifty-eight one-half. The superficial contents have been computed at twenty-seven thousand seven hundred and ninety-three square miles, a little exceeding that of England, and considerably more than half that of Ireland. The population being estimated at one million six hundred thousand, there will, of course, be only fifty-seven inhabitants for every square mile, a proportion of about one-third of that of Ireland.

DIVISIONS.] The territory of Scotland is unequally divided into thirty-three counties, which, according to their situations, we shall arrange under three divisions: the first, or the northern, including Inverness-shire, and the country north of the chain of lakes and forts; the second, or the midland division, including the territory north of the Firths of Forth and Clyde, as far as the borders of Inverness-shire; and the third, or southern division, comprehending those counties that lie between the Firths of Forth and Clyde and the English frontier; we shall also add to each county the amount of its population, according to the general enumeration of the island in the year 1801.

Northern Division.	Orkney	46,844
	Caithness	22,609
	Sutherland	23,117
	Ross	52,291
	Cromarty	3,052
	Inverness	74,292
Midland Division.	Argyle	71,859
	Bute	11,791
	Nairn	8,253
	Murray, or Elgin	26,705
	Banff	35,807
	Aberdeen	123,082
	Mearns, or Kincardine	26,349
	Angus, or Forfar	99,127
	Perth	126,366
	Fife	93,743
	Kinross	6,725
	Clackmannan	10,858
	Stirling	50,825
	Dumbarton	20,710
Southern Division.	West-Lothian, or Linlithgow	17,844
	Mid-Lothian, or Edinburgh	122,054
	East-Lothian, or Haddington	29,986
	Berwick	30,621
	Renfrew	78,056
	Ayr	84,306
	Wigton	22,916
	Lanark	146,698
	Peebles	8,735
	Selkirk	5,070
	Roxburgh	33,683
	Dumfries	54,597
	Kirkudbright	29,211

ANTIQUITIES.] The monuments of antiquity belonging to the more early epochs, may be considered in the following order. Of the first epoch, no monuments can exist, except those of the tumular kind; and it is impossible to ascertain the period of their formation. The remains of the Roman period in North Britain chiefly appear in the celebrated wall, built in the reign of Antoninus Pius, between the Firths of Forth and Clyde, in the ruins of which many curious inscriptions have been found. Another striking object of this epoch, was a small edifice on the stream of Carron, vulgarly called Arthur's Oven, which seems rightly to have been regarded by some antiquaries, as a small temple dedicated to the god Terminus.

The most northerly Roman camp yet discovered is that near the source of the river Ythan Aberdeenshire; the periphery of which is about two English miles. A smaller station has also been observed at Old Meldrum, a few miles to the S. E.

Roma

Roman roads have been traced a considerable way in the east of Scotland, as far as the county of Angus, affording some evidence of the existence of the province Vespasiana; but the chief remains are within the wall. The smaller remains of Roman antiquity found in Scotland, as coins, utensils, &c. are numerous.

With the fourth epoch may be said to commence the Pikish monuments of antiquity. The tombs it would be difficult to discriminate from those of the first epoch; but as the Caledonian kings, when converted to Christianity, held their chief residence at Inverness, the singular hill in its vicinity, presenting the form of a boat reversed, may perhaps be a monument of regal sculpture. The places of judgment among the Gothic nations, or what are now styled Druidic temples, are numerous; and there is a remarkable one in the isle of Lewis. Some of these monuments are of small circuit, and such are sometimes found at no great distance from each other; as they were not only erected as temples to Odin, Thor, Freyga, and other Gothic Deities; but every chief, or lord of a manor, having jurisdiction over many servants and slaves, such small courts became places of necessary awe.

The houses seem to have been entirely of wood or turf; but in some spots singular excavations are found rudely lined with stone: these are called *Weems*, and it is likely that they were always adjacent to the wooden residence of some chief, and were intended as depositories of stores, &c. the roof being too low for comfortable places of refuge. The stations and camps of the natives are distinguished by their round form, while those of the Romans belong to the square.

Under the next epoch it would be difficult to discover any genuine remains of the Dalriads. The houses, and even churches, were constructed of wattle-work: and the funeral monuments were cairns, or heaps of stones.

To the sixth epoch may probably belong a chapel or two, still remaining in Scotland; but it is probable that these sacred edifices in stone were soon followed by the erection of those rude, round piles, without any cement, called Pikt houses; yet they may more properly belong to

The seventh epoch, when the Danes may have in the honour of the erection, for such edifices have been traced in Scandinavia. They seem to have consisted of a vast hall, open to the sky in the centre, while the cavities in the wall present incommodious recesses for beds, &c. These buildings are remarkable, as displaying the first elements of the Gothic castle: and the castle of Conigsburg, in Yorkshire, forms an easy transition. The engraved obelisks found at Forres, and in other parts of Scotland, have been ascribed to the Danish ravagers, who had not time for such erections. They are, probably, monuments of signal events, raised by the king, or chiefs; and as some are found in Scandinavia, as recent as the fifteenth century, it is probable that many of the Scottish obelisks are far more modern than is generally imagined.

To enumerate the churches and castles erected since the reign of Malcolm III. would be infinite. Some of the most splendid churches derive their foundation from David I. in the twelfth century.

Religion.] Since the revolution, 1688, the Ecclesiastical government of Scotland is of the Presbyterian form. The number of parishes in Scotland is nine hundred and forty-one; contiguous parishes unite in what is called a Presbytery, of which denomination there are sixty-nine. The provincial synods, amounting to fifteen, are composed of several adjacent Presbyteries; but the grand Ecclesiastical court is the general assembly, which meets every year, in the spring; the king appointing a commissioner to represent his person, while the members nominate their moderator, or president. To this Ecclesiastical council laymen are also admitted, under the name of Ruling Elders, and constitute about one-third of this venerable body. This court discusses and judges all clerical affairs, and admits of no appeal, except to the parliament of Great Britain. In general, the Scottish clergy deserve the highest praise, as men of enlightened minds, and moderate conduct; and a singular proof of the diffusion of talents among them has recently appeared, in the statistical account of Scotland, published by Sir John Sinclair, in twenty-one volumes; for there are few parishes of which the account is not ably delineated by the clergyman himself.

As whatever establishment is effected in a free country, opposition will always arise, the establishment of the Presbyterian system was, in the space of one generation, followed by the secession

cession, which took place in 1733. The seceders being the most rigid in their sentiments, and animated by persecution, soon formed a numerous party.

About the year 1747, they were themselves divided into two denominations, called the Burghers, and the Anti-Burghers, because the division arose concerning the legality of the oaths taken by the burgesses of some of the royal boroughs; the former allowing that the oath is proper, while the latter object; the former are the more numerous, the number of their ministers being computed at about one hundred, and at a medium each has a congregation of about one thousand.

Many respectable families in Scotland embrace the episcopal form of the Church of England. The other descriptions of religious professions are numerous. There are but few Roman Catholics, even in the remote Highlands: the scheme of education being excellent, and generally supported with liberality.

Government.] The government of Scotland, since the union, has been blended with that of England. The chief distinction between the original constitution of the two countries was, that Scotland had no House of Commons, the parliament, consisting of all descriptions, assembled in one hall. The most splendid remaining feature of government in Scotland is the General Assembly. Next to which may be classed the High Courts of Justice, especially that styled the Session, consisting of a president, and fourteen senators. The Lords of Session, as they are styled in Scotland, upon their promotion to office, assume a title, generally from the name of an estate, by which they are known and addressed, as if peers by creation, while they are only constituted lords by superior interest, or talents. This court is the last resort in several causes, and the only appeal is to the parliament of Great Britain.

It is to be regretted that the causes are not determined by jury as in England. The justiciary court consists of five judges, who are likewise Lords of Session: but, with a president, styled the Lord Justice Clerk, as he is only understood to represent the formerly great office of Justice General. This is the supreme court in criminal causes, which are determined by the majority of a jury, and not by the unanimity, as in England. There is also a Court of Exchequer, consisting of a Lord Chief Baron, and four Barons; and a High Court of Admiralty, in which there is only one judge. The keepers of the great and privy seals, and the lord register or keeper of the records, may also be mentioned under this head.

Laws.] The law of Scotland differs essentially from that of England, being founded, in a great measure, upon the civil law. It partly consists of statute law; but many of the ancient statutes never having been enforced, the chief rule of this sort arises from the decisions of the session, which are carefully preserved and published, and afford precedents, generally deemed unexceptionable. Of common law there is hardly a trace, while the civil and canon laws may be said to form the two pillars of Scottish judicature. The modes of procedure have, however, the advantage of being free from any of those legal fictions which disgrace the laws of some other countries. The inferior courts are those of the sheriffs, magistrates, and justices of the peace.

Population.] The population of Scotland in 1775, was computed at one million two hundred and sixty-five thousand; according to the documents furnished by Sir J. Sinclair's statistical account, the numbers in 1798 were, one million five hundred and twenty-six thousand four hundred and ninety-two; and by the government enumeration in 1801, the inhabitants appeared to amount to one million five hundred and ninety-nine thousand and sixty-eight.

Manners and Customs.] The manners and customs of the Scots begin to be much assimilated with those of the English. In their religious ceremonies, attending baptism and marriages, there are variations arising from the Presbyterian form which does not admit of godfathers or godmothers, but renders the parents alone answerable for the education of the child. The clergyman does not attend at funerals, nor is there any religious service, but generally great decency. Among the lower classes the funerals are generally far more numerously attended than in England; nor is black an indispensible color of dress on such occasions.

In the luxuries of the table the superior classes rival the English; several national dishes formerly served up at the best tables, and only

sting from the French cooking, in the reign of Mary, being now vulgar or neglected; such as the haggis, or *hachis*; cock a-leekie, or a capon boiled down with leeks; crapped heads, or haddocks stewed; the heads being stuffed with a kind of forced-meat balls, &c. &c. The diet of the lower classes passes in a gradual transition from the north of England. The chief food is *sowrich*, or thick pottage, formed with oatmeal and water, and eaten with milk, ale, or butter; in a hard lumpy form it is called *brose*. With this the labourer is generally contented twice or thrice in the day, with a little bit of meat for Sunday; nor does he repine at the bacon of the English poor, there being a theological antipathy to swine, which also extends to eels, on account of their serpent-like form.

The sobriety of the lower classes is in general exemplary; and the Scottish manufacturer or labourer, instead of wasting his weekly gains at the alehouse, is ambitious to appear with his family in decent clothes on Sundays, and other holidays. This may be regarded as a striking characteristic of the Scottish peasantry, who prefer the lasting decencies of life to momentary gratifications. To this praise may be added, that the intelligence, arising from the diffusion of education, which is such, that even the miners in the south possess a circulating library.

The dress of the superior classes is the same with that of the English. The gentlemen in the Highlands, especially in the time of war, use the peculiar dress of that country. Among the other classes, the Scotish bonnet is now rarely perceived, except in the Highlands; it was the usual covering for the head all over Europe, till towards the end of the sixteenth century, when the hat, formerly only worn in riding or hunting, came into general use.

The amusements of the rich are on a parallel with those of the English; but those of the peasantry have several diversities, which the reader may, perhaps, best learn from the poems of Burns. That of *curling* consists in rolling large stones, with iron handles, upon the ice, towards a fixed mark, a favorite and healthy diversion in the winter. The English quoits are supplied by *curling stanes*, round flat stones, which are tossed in the same manner.

Language.] The Scotish language falls under two divisions, that of the Lowlands consisting of the ancient Scandinavian dialect, blended with the Anglo-Saxon; and that of the Highlands, which is Irish or Erse.

Education.] The mode of education pursued in Scotland is highly laudable, and to judge from its effects is, perhaps, the best practical system pursued in any country in Europe. The plan which is followed in the cities is nearly similar to that of England, either by private teachers, or at large public schools, of which that of Edinburgh is the most eminent, and may be traced from the sixteenth century. But the superior advantage of the Scotish education consists in every country parish possessing a schoolmaster, as uniformly as a clergyman; at least the rule is general, and the exceptions rare. The schoolmaster has a small salary, or rather pittance, which enables him to educate the children at a rate easy and convenient, even to indigent parents. In the Highlands the poor children will attend to the flocks in the summer, and the school in the winter.

Universities.] The universities of Scotland, or rather colleges, (for an English university includes many colleges and foundations,) amount to no less than four, three on the eastern coast, St. Andrew's, Aberdeen, and Edinburgh; and one on the western, that of Glasgow.

Cities and Towns.] Edinburgh, the capital, is comparatively of modern name and note, the earliest hint that can be applied to it, occurring in the *Chronicon Pictorum*, about the year 955, where mention is made of a town called Eden, as resigned by the English to the Scots, then ruled by Indulf. Holyrood House was the foundation of the first David.

The population of Edinburgh, including the port of Leith, was, in 1678, computed at thirty-five thousand five hundred; in 1755, at seventy thousand four hundred and thirty; and in 1791, at eighty-four thousand eight hundred and eighty-six.

The houses in the old town of Edinburgh are sometimes of remarkable height, not less than thirteen or fourteen floors, a singularity ascribed to the wish of the ancient inhabitants, of being under the protection of the castle. This part of the city stands on the ridge of a hill, gradually descending from the lofty precipice on which the castle is situated, to a bottom, in which stands the palace of Holyrood House. Adjacent to

to this edifice, is a park of considerable extent, replete with mountainous scenery; for the basaltic heights of Arthur's seat, and Salisbury crags, are within its precincts. The new town of Edinburgh is deservedly celebrated for regularity and elegance, the houses being all of free-stone, and some of them ornamented with pillars and pilasters.

Inland Navigation.] The most remarkable inland navigation in Scotland, is the excellent and extensive canal from the Forth to the Clyde, commenced in 1768, from a survey by Smeaton four years before. "The dimensions of this canal, though greatly contracted from the original design, are much superior to any work of the same nature in South Britain. The English canals are generally from three to five feet deep, and from twenty to forty feet wide, and the lock gates from ten to twelve feet; but they answer the purpose of inland carriage from one town to another, for which alone they were designed. The depth of the canal between the Forth and Clyde is seven feet; its breadth at the surface fifty-six feet: the locks are seventy-five feet long, and their gates twenty feet wide. It is raised from the Carron by twenty locks, in a tract of ten miles, to the amazing height of one hundred and fifty-five feet above the medium full sea mark. At the twentieth lock begins the canal of partition on the summit, between the east and west seas; which canal of partition continues eighteen miles, on a level, terminating at Hamilton Hill, a mile N. W. of the Clyde, at Glasgow. In some places the canal is carried through mossy ground, and in others through solid rock. In the fourth mile of the canal there are ten locks, and a fine aqueduct bridge, which crosses the great road leading from Edinburgh to Glasgow. At Kirkintullock, the canal is carried over the water of Logie, on an aqueduct bridge, the arch of which is ninety feet broad. There are in the whole eighteen draw-bridges, and fifteen aqueduct bridges, of considerable size, besides small ones and tunnels." The supplying the canal with water, was of itself a very great work. One reservoir is above twenty-four feet deep, and covers a surface of fifty acres, near Kilsyth. Another, about seven miles north of Glasgow, consists of seventy acres, and is banked up at a sluice, twenty-two feet.

The distance between the Firths of Clyde and Forth, by the nearest passage, that of the Pentland Firth, is six hundred miles, by this canal scarcely one hundred. On the 28th of July 1790, the canal was completely open from sea to sea, when a hogshead of the water of Forth was poured into the Clyde, as a symbol of their junction. The length of the canal is precisely thirty-five miles, and no work of the kind can be more ably finished.

The general commerce of Scotland, though on a smaller scale, and with smaller capitals, is in most respects similar to that of England, and shares in the national prosperity. That of the capital, through Leith its port, has been estimated at half a million yearly. The chief exports are linen, grain, iron, glass, lead, woollen stuffs, soap, &c. &c. The imports are wine, brandy: and from the West Indies and America rum, sugar, rice, indigo. Glasgow exports cottons of all kinds, muslins, lawny, gauzes, &c. glass, stockings, earthenware, cordage, &c. candles, soap, iron, leather, &c. &c. The chief imports are tobacco, sugar, rum, and cotton from the West Indies; Irish beef, butter, &c. linen; wines from Portugal, and other countries. The fisheries of Scotland, if carried to a proper extent, would furnish a very considerable store of merchandize.

The chief manufactures of Scotland are linen of various kinds, to the amount, it is said, of about seven hundred and fifty thousand pounds annually. Of woollens, the Scotish carpets seems to form the chief branch. The iron manufactures, particularly that at Carron, deserve also to be enumerated among the chief national advantages.

Climate and Seasons.] The climate of Scotland is such as might be expected in a latitude so remote, and a country so mountainous. In the eastern parts, there is not so much humidity as in England, as the mountains on the west arrest the vapours from the Atlantic. On the other hand, the western countries are deluged with rain, an insuperable obstacle to the progress of agriculture. Even the winter is not distinguishable by the abundance of snow, but by the intensity of the frost; but in summer the heat of the sun is reflected with great power in the narrow vales between the mountains. These observations chiefly apply to the north and west

In the east and south the climate differs but little from that of Yorkshire; and corn sometimes ripens in the vales of Moray, as early as in Lothian.

Face of the Country.] The face of the country is in general mountainous, to the extent, perhaps, of two-thirds; whence the population is of necessity slender, in comparison with the admeasurement. But the name of Highlands is more strictly confined to Argyleshire, the west of Perthshire, and of Inverness; and the entire counties of Ross, Sutherland, and Caithness. In proceeding from the south-east, the entrance into the Highlands near Dunkeld, is very impressive, there being a considerable tract of plain, just before what may be termed the gates of the mountains. Even the eastern parts have little of uniform flatness, but are sweetly diversified with hill and dale. The rivers in general are remarkably pure and transparent, and their course rapid.

Rivers.] The three chief rivers of Scotland, are the Forth, the Clyde, and the Tay. Next in consequence and in fame, is the Tweed, a beautiful and pastoral stream, which, receiving the Tevoit from the south, near Kelso, falls into the sea at Berwick. The Scotish Tyne is an inconsiderable river, which runs by Haddington.

Lakes.] Among the lakes of Scotland, the chief in extent and beauty is that of Lomond, studded with romantic islands, and adorned with scenes of the greatest diversity. The isles are supposed to form part of the Grampian chain, which here terminates on the west. The depth of this lake in the south, is not above twenty fathoms; but the northern creek, near the bottom of Ben Lomond, is from sixty to eighty fathoms.

On the east of Lomond is an assemblage of famous lakes, the Ketterin, or Cathin, the Con Chroin, the Ard, the Achray or Achvary, the Vacher, the Lubnaig; exhibiting singular and picturesque scenes, called by the Highlanders the *Trossachs*, a word signifying rough, or uneven grounds.

Loch Leven, in Fifeshire, attracts observation from its historical fame. There are lakes in the south of Perthshire, and to the east Loch Ern, Loch Tay, and those of Rannoch, Lydoch, and Voight. That of Tay, in particular, is a grand and beautiful expanse of water, of such length, as rather to resemble a noble river.

Loch Ness rivals Loch Tay in extent and reputation. The depth is from sixty to one hundred and thirty-five fathoms, the fish excellent trout. Its great depth is the cause why it never freezes. It is remarkable that the bed of this lake and in general of the watery chain which extends to Loch Linney, is filled with pudding-stone, hills of which occur near Dunolla and Dunstaffnage, on the western shores of Argyle.

In the western division of Scotland Loch Awe, in Argyleshire, is the most considerable lake, it is about thirty miles in length, and from one to two in breadth; and is studded with many small, woody isles, one of which bears the ruins of a monastery, and another those of an ancient fortress, the residence of the Campbells of Lochawe, afterwards Dukes of Argyle.

But the chief distinctive feature of Scotland consists in its numerous mountains, which intersect the country in various directions; so that to attempt a particular description of them would be foreign to our plan.

Forests.] The forests of Scotland are very rare, in the proper acceptation of the term; and the Sylva Caledonia has long since vanished. The whole county of Selkirk was formerly denominated Ettric forest. There was also a considerable forest, that of Mar, in the west of Aberdeenshire, where now remains the forest of Abernethy, extending to Cairngorm. In the county of Sutherland was the forest of Sletadale, on the north of Dunrobin, the seat of the earls of Sutherland; and in the north of the same county, are marked Parff-forest, between Ashir and Dunan; to the south of which were Reay forest, or that of Dirrymore; with those of Dirrymore, and Dirrymena, on the north and south of Loch Shin. No other forest occurs till we reach the county of Argyle, which contains Boachiltive forest on the north.

Zoology.] The small horses of Galloway seem to have been a primitive breed, and, in diminutive size, are exceeded by those of Shetland. The cattle in Galloway are often without horns, a defect which is supposed to be recompensed by the superior quantity and quality of the milk. The kylies, as already mentioned, are a middle-sized breed from the province of Kyle,

and other districts of Ayrshire and Galloway. On the east are found large cattle of various breeds. The sheep are smaller and shorter than those of England; those of Shetland are remarkable for the fineness of the wool, which is, however, interspersed with coarser piles. Goats are not so numerous in the Highlands and Isles as might be expected.

Scotland abounds with fish of all kinds, and contributes great supplies to the English market, particularly in lobsters and salmon. Pearls are found in the rivers Teith and Ythan, in a large kind of mya or muscle. Many beautiful zoophites, on the northern shores, have been found

Mineralogy.] The small quantity of gold found in Scotland has been procured from the Lead hills, which are mostly composed of coarse slate. The silver found in Scotland has hitherto been of little account: the chief mine was that at Alva, which has since only afforded cobalt. Copper has been found at Colvend, in Galloway; at Curry, in Lothian; at Oldwick, in Caithness; and Kissern, in Ross-shire. But the chief minerals of Scotland are lead, iron, and coal. The chief mineral is coal, which has been worked for a succession of ages. Pope Pius II. in his description of Europe, written about 1450, mentions, that he beheld with wonder, black stones given as alms to the poor of Scotland.

Mineral Waters.] The mineral waters of Scotland are numerous, but none of equal fame with those of England. The chief are Moffat wells in the south, and those of Peterhead in the north.

Natural Curiosities.] Scotland, like other mountainous countries, abounds with singular scenes, and natural curiosities. The beautiful falls of the Clyde, near Lanark, have excited much attention.

SCOTISH ISLES.

The islands that belong to Scotland are numerous and important, and fall naturally into three grand divisions: the Hebudes, or Western Islands; the Orkneys; and the islands of Shetland.

On passing the conic rock, called Ailsa, towards the north, two beautiful islands adorn the Firth of Clyde, those of Arran and Bute. The first is about twenty-three miles in length, by nine in breadth, and has seven thousand inhabitants. The chief place is the village of Ranza; and Brodie castle is memorable in history. The exports are black cattle and barley. It is a mountainous region: and Goatfell is near three thousand feet in height. The southern parts of the island present low and cultivated grounds.

Bute is about twelve miles long, by four broad; inhabitants about four thousand; the chief town is Rothsay, and in the vicinity is Mount Stuart, the residence of the Marquis of Bute.

To the west of Cantire, begin the Hebudes or Western Islands, properly so called. The first is Ilay, about the same length as Arran, but nearly eighteen miles in breadth. Ilay produces many black cattle, which are exported and sometimes pass as far as England. But the sheep are rare; small horses are much used, as the country is not very mountainous. Inhabitants about seven thousand. Lead mines were here discovered in the sand stone, 1763; the lead is, as usual, mingled with silver.

Jura is divided from the last by a narrow sound: it is about twenty miles long, but the breadth seldom more than five. It is one of the most rugged of the Hebudes, which, in general, are mountainous regions. The paps of Jura, a line of conic hills, present a singular appearance; they are on the western side of the island, and almost bare of vegetation. The best crops are potatoes and barley; and the isle contains abundance of peat. The cattle are small, but the sheep excellent. The noted gulph or whirlpool of Brecan, or Corryvrekan, is on the northern extremity of Jura.

To the west of Jura are the isles of Oransay and Colonsa; and the strait between them being dry at low water, they may be considered as one island, about ten miles in length. The soil is light and arable.

The next isle of any consequence is that of Mull, one of the largest of the Hebudes, and surrounded with smaller islands. It is about twenty-eight miles long, by a medial breadth of about eighteen. Its population is about seven thousand.

Staffa, about six miles to the north of Hy

or Icolm-kill, has beautiful basaltic columns, and one of the most surprising objects of nature, the vast basaltic cavern, called Au-ua-vine, or the harmonious grotto, either from a melodious sound, produced by the percussion of the waves at the furthest extremity, or from the exact order in which the columns are disposed. Height of the entrance fifty-six feet, breadth thirty-five, thickness of the exterior vault twenty. The depth, or length of the cavern is no less than one hundred and forty feet.

Skey is the largest of the Hebudes, being about forty-five miles long, and twenty-two broad. Inhabitants about five thousand two hundred; chief exports black cattle and small horses: the land, as usual in the Hebudes, rough and hilly. The houses are chiefly turf, covered with grass. The face of the country wild, heathy, and deluged with continual rains. In Canna is Compas Hill, which strongly affects the needle.

Leuis, the principal island of the western chain, is about fifty miles long, by twenty broad. The face of the country consists of a heathy elevated ridge full of morasses from the south-west to the north-east; but near the shores are several verdant vales capable of cultivation. The Harris, or south end of this isle, is still more mountainous, and presents what is called a forest, because some deer are there found. James VI. attempted to introduce industry into the Hebudes by planting a Dutch colony at Stornaway, in Leuis; but it was soon extirpated by the inhabitants. Stornaway is, however, now a considerable and flourishing town, with an excellent harbour. The seasons in Leuis are oppressed with rain, as usual in the western Highlands and isles; but there is a considerable fishery.

South of Leuis is North Vist, about twenty-two miles long, and seventeen broad. The face of the country corresponds in general with that of Leuis. Westerly winds, with rain or fog, usurp two-thirds of the year.

The Orkneys form a numerous group around the Main Land, which is about twenty-five miles long, by thirteen broad. Kirkwall, the chief town of the Orkneys, contains about three hundred houses; and has a stately cathedral dedicated to St. Magnus. The chief exports of Kirkwall are beef, pork, butter, tallow, hides, calf skins, rabbit skins, salted fish, oil, feathers, linen yarn, and coarse linen cloth, kelp, and in fruitful years corn. The chief imports are wood, flax, coal, sugar, spirits, wines, tobacco and snuff, flour, and biscuit, soap, leather, hardwares, broad cloth, printed linens and cottons. In most parts of the Main Land the soil is good, though shallow, with a calcareous bottom. The horses are small, but spirited; and the cows, though also small, yield excellent milk. The Norse language has yielded to the English, and the manners of the people are singularly civilized for so remote a region. The inhabited islands of Orkney are computed at twenty-six, and the people at twenty-three thousand and fifty-three; the base is chiefly sand stone, as appears from Mr. Jameson's recent Mineralogy of the Scotish isles.

The islands of Shetland present another group similar to those of Orkney; with a main land or chief island in its centre. The main land is much intersected by the sea: and is about fifty-seven miles in length, by about ten or twelve miles of medial breadth. The other isles are generally small, yet twenty-six are said to be inhabited. "On viewing these islands in general, a wonderful scene of rugged, bleak, and barren rocks presents itself to our view. No tree or shrub is to be seen, to relieve the eye in wandering over these dreary scenes. Sometimes, however, a few scanty portions of cultivated ground catch the eye of the traveller, exciting emotions of pleasure, and forming a striking contrast to the barren heath-covered mountains which skirt them. The western part presents many scenes as wild and sterile as can well be conceived; grey rocks rising from the midst of marshes or pools, and shores bounded by awful sea-beat precipices, do not fail to raise in the mind ideas of desolation and danger. The coasts are in general rugged and precipitous, presenting in many places scenes truly grand and magnificent; vast rocks of various heights, dreadfully rugged and broken, opposing their rude fronts to all the fury of a tempestuous ocean; which in some places has formed great detached pillars, in others has excavated grand natural arches and caverns that mock all human magnificence; and strike the beholder with that awe and wonder which must affect every one on viewing these amazing wrecks of nature*." The climate of the Shetland isles is variable, and disturbed

* Jameson's Min. p. 2, 3. 8vo.

disturbed with rains and thick fogs. The frosts are seldom severe, and snow rarely continues long on the ground. The inhabitants are indeed sufficiently wretched without additional evils; and a benevolent government ought to pay a particular attention to those distant prisoners. The corruscations of the Aurora Borealis illuminate the long gloom of winter, and delight the inhabitants, who call them *merry dancers*. The arable land is mostly near the coast, and produces a coarse kind of oats and bigg. Potatoes have lately formed an addition of singular advantage. The chief food of the inhabitants consists of fish, and various kinds of sea fowl, which cover the rocks: the captors of the last shew singular skill and intrepidity, and often meet with a violent fate amidst the stupendous precipices.

The chief exports of Shetland are fish of various kinds, chiefly herrings, cod, ling, and torsk, or tusk. The inhabitants of the Shetland islands in 1798 were computed at twenty thousand one hundred eighty-six, which is more than the country can well support. In this distant region there are neither roads nor bridges, which may be pronounced the first steps in any country towards the progress of industry. The same deficiency occurs in the Orkneys, and even in the northern extremity of Scotland; where however a road has been recently opened between Ullapool and Dornoch *.

IRELAND.

Extent.] This large and fertile island is about three hundred miles long, and one hundred and sixty at the greatest breadth. The contents in square miles are about twenty-seven thousand four hundred and fifty-seven; and the population about three millions.

Religion.] The legal religion of Ireland is that of the church of England; but it is computed that more than two-thirds of the people are Catholics; and of the remainder the Presbyterians are supposed to constitute one-half.

There are four archbishoprics, in themselves an evidence of the great number of churches formerly existing; and eighteen bishoprics.

Under the archbishop of Armagh are the bishops of Meath, Kilmore, and Ardagh, Dromore, Clogher, Raphoe, Downe and Connor, Derry.—Under the archbishop of Dublin, Kildare, Ferns and Laughlin, Ossory.—Under the archbishop of Cashel, Waterford and Lismore, Limeric, Killaloe, Cork and Ross, Cloyne.—Under the archbishop of Tuam, Elphin, Cloyne, Killala and Achonry †.

The Catholics have also a hierarchy nearly similar, but the metropolitans and bishops are considered by the Protestants as merely titular. The Presbyterians being here Dissenters, their form of ecclesiastical government necessarily approaches that of the Independents.

Government.] The government of Ireland was constructed upon the plan of that of England, being vested in the House of Commons, and another of Peers, while the King was represented by a Lord Lieutenant or Viceroy. But no act of importance was considered as valid, till it received the sanction of the King and Council of Great Britain. At present Ireland being united to England, the form of government is of course identically the same. There are some minute variations between the statute and common laws of Ireland and those of England.

Civil Divisions.] Ireland is primarily divided into four provinces, viz. Ulster to the north, Connaught to the west, Leinster to the east, and Munster to the south. The subdivisions are counties, of which the following is a list:

Ulster	Donnegal	Leinster	Louth
	Londonderry		Meath
	Antrim		Longford
	Tyrone		Westmeath
	Fermanagh		Dublin
	Monaghan		King's-county
	Armagh		Kildare
	Down		Queen's-county
	Cavan		Wicklow
Connaught	Leitrim		Carlow
	Sligo		Kilkenny
	Mayo		Wexford
	Galway	Munster	Clare
	Roscommon		Tipperary
			Waterford
			Limeric
			Cork
			Kerry

* Pinkerton.

† Gough's Camden, iii. 487. The primacy is worth eighty pounds a year, Derry seven thousand pounds; the other bishoprics from four thousand to two thousand pounds. Young, ii. 189.

ARMY.] Besides large contributions to the British army, Ireland in 1780 raised upwards of forty thousand volunteers, and has recently equipped a considerable militia and yeomanry. If we suppose every eighth person capable of arms, Ireland might raise a force of more than three hundred thousand men. Of mariners Ireland contributes an inadequate proportion, and inferior in skill to the British.

REVENUES.] The public revenues of Ireland were computed by an intelligent traveller* at about one million sterling, or six shillings and eight-pence a head, when those of England stood at one pound nine shillings.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE, &c.] The political importance and relations of Ireland are great, but intimately blended with those of England; while her western position imparts singular advantages in the commerce with America and the West Indies.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] The manners of the superior classes of people in Ireland now nearly approach to the English standard, except that excess in wine, unfashionable in England, continues to prevail too much in the sister island. The Irish gentry are also seldom addicted to literature or the arts; but amuse themselves with hunting and other robust exercises. Hence an overflow of health and spirits; and the observation of an able writer, that Ireland produces the stoutest men, and the finest women in Europe, must not be confined to the inferior classes. The common people of Ireland still retain too many features of national manners. A funeral is joined by all the men and women of the vicinity, and is accompanied with dreadful howls, and other barbarous ceremonies. Their diet consists chiefly of potatoes and buttermilk; and the rural cottage is a wretched hovel of mud. The favourite liquor is usquebaugh, or the water of life; but more properly the water of death, being an ardent and pernicious distillation from corn.

The English language daily gains ground in Ireland, and might, if proper attention had been bestowed on the national education, have become, ere now, the general idiom of the country. The ancient Irish is a dialect of the Celtic intermingled with many Gothic words, imported by the Belgic colonies, by the Scandinavians, and by the English.

EDUCATION.] In no quarter of the British dominions, has education been conducted upon a more solid and rational plan than in Scotland; and no where has it been so much neglected as in Ireland. It is to be hoped that one consequence, and not the least important, of the union, will be the introduction of parochial education into Ireland, a sure mean of preventing the ebullitions of ignorant discontent.

UNIVERSITIES.] With four archbishoprics Ireland only possesses one university, that of Dublin. This institution was first projected by archbishop Leech, about the year 1311; but death having interrupted his design, it was revived and executed by Bicknor his successor, and enjoyed moderate prosperity for about forty years, when the revenues failed. In the reign of Elizabeth the university was refounded by voluntary contributions, under the auspices of Sydney the Lord Deputy. It consists of a Chancellor, Vice-chancellor, Provost, Vice-provost, twenty-two Fellows, and thirteen Professors of various sciences. The number of students is commonly about four hundred, including seventy on the foundation. The building consists of two quadrangles, and it contains a library of some account, and a printing office.

At Kilkenny there is an endowed school, or what is called a college; but its institutes seem little adapted to the quiet of an academical life.

The Dublin Society for the improvement of Agriculture and Manufactures was instituted by the efforts of the patriotic Dr. Samuel Madden in 1731, being the earliest of the kind now existing in Europe.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Dublin, the capital of Ireland, continued little known till the tenth century, when it was mentioned in the Saxon Chronicle; and in the beginning of the next century, we have coins of Canute struck at Dublin. The situation is delightful, in a bottom, between ranges of hills on the south and north. It is pervaded by the river Liffy, and by some rivulets. The inhabitants have been estimated at one hundred and fifty thousand; this capital being justly accounted the second in the British dominions. The circumference of Dublin may be about ten miles, being about two miles and a quarter in length, and as much in breadth. The harbour is incommodious, being impeded with two banks of sand, called the north and south

* Young's Tour in Ireland.

south bulls, which prevent ships of large burden from passing the bar; but some improvements have been made, and others might be carried into execution. A mole has been constructed four miles in length: and the quays are spacious and beautiful. There are six bridges, the chief of which is that called Essex. The castle was founded about the year 1200, and continues, though in great part rebuilt, to be the sanctuary of the public records, as it formerly was the residence of the Viceroy. The parliament house is a superb building, erected at considerable expence. The church of St. Patrick is the cathedral, a venerable building, which was begun in the end of the twelfth century; but the steeple, the highest in the city, was not erected till the year 1370. The Royal Exchange was completed in 1779. Dublin has an ample supply of native provisions; but coals are imported from Scotland and Cumberland.

Roads.] Though the turnpike roads in Ireland be rather neglected, yet the cross roads are admirable; and Mr. Young has explained at length the principles upon which they are constructed.

Inland Navigation.] The advantages derived by England from inland navigation soon attracted the attention of Ireland; and, not many years after the example set by the Duke of Bridgewater, a grand canal was begun from the city of Dublin to the river Shannon, and was actually carried on to the bog of Allen, at the expence of seventy-seven thousand pounds. But the engineer's want of ability occasioned great errors in the original plan and survey; and the work was interrupted in 1770. Nor, unhappily, have proper means been adopted to execute the plan, which remains imperfect, after an expenditure of half a million; and an able writer informs us, that even the design was absurd, as the country through which the canal passes is one of the least productive for the Dublin market.

A canal is completed from the town of Newry to the sea, which was, however, intended to have passed that town towards the collieries of Drumglass and Dungannon. This attempt, however, to supply Dublin with Irish coals, has hitherto been only successful in part, though the beds of coals are said to be very abundant.

Manufactures and Commerce.] Though we find, as has been already mentioned, that Ireland was distinguished at an early period for her manufacture of woollen stuffs, yet the spirit of industry made little progress, and the chief Irish manufactures are of recent institution. But the linen manufacture was not unknown in Ireland in more early times, as appears from the acts of parliament in the reigns of Henry VIII. and Elizabeth. The annual produce of the linen manufacture is computed at about two millions sterling.

But a grand portion of the commerce of Ireland arises from her abundant stores of black cattle, the moisture of the climate rendering the pasturage remarkably luxuriant.

Climate.] Ireland lying nearly in the same parallel with England, the difference of climate cannot be supposed to be very important. The mean temperature of the north is about 48°; of the middle 50°; of the south 52° of Farenheit.

Face of the Country.] Ireland forms a striking contrast to Scotland, being mostly level, fertile, and abundant in pasturage. The chain of hills, for they can hardly aspire to the name of mountains, are few, and unimportant.

Soil and Agriculture.] The soil and agriculture of Ireland are topics which have been ably illustrated by an intelligent writer. He observes, that the quantity of the cultivated land exceeds, in proportion, that of England. The most striking feature is the rocky nature of the soil, stones generally appearing on the surface, yet without any injury to the fertility. The stones, are for the most part, calcareous, and appear at no great depth, even in the most flat and fertile parts, as Limerick, Tipperary, and Meath. The climate being more moist than that of England; the verdure never appears parched with heat. Tillage is little understood even in the best corn counties; turnips and clover being almost unknown: the wheat sown upon fallow, and followed by several crops of spring corn. The farmers are oppressed by the shocking system of *middle men*, who rent farms from the landlords, and let them to the real occupiers; who, as well as the proprietors, suffer greatly by this strange practice. Lime-stone gravel is a manure peculiar to Ireland; having on uncultivated land, the same wonderful effect as lime, and on all soils it is beneficial.

Rivers.] Among the chief rivers of Ireland

must first be mentioned the Shannon, which rises from the lake of Allen, and passing through two other large lakes, Lough Ree, and Lough Derg, afterwards extends before Limerick, into a vast estuary or firth, about sixty miles in length, and from three to ten in breadth. This noble river is, almost through its whole course, both wide and deep, as to afford easy navigation. Boate informs us, that the celebrated Earl of Strafford designed to remove a rock, six miles above Limerick, which forming a cataract, impedes the intercourse between the upper and lower parts. The whole course of the Shannon is about one hundred and seventy miles.

The lakes of Ireland are numerous, and some of them extensive. The term *Lough*, corresponding with the Scotish *Loch*, is sometimes applied to an estuary, or to an inlet of the sea, such as the Swilly, the Foyle, that of Strangford, Down, &c. The chief lake of fresh water is that of Earn, which exceeds thirty British miles in length, and twelve in its greatest breadth; it is divided by a narrow outlet from the southern part into the northern, of about four miles in length.

Next in magnitude is Neagh, about twenty-two miles in length, and twelve in breadth. Both these lakes are studded with small islands; and the latter is said to possess a petrifying quality.

The lake of Corrib, in the county of Galway, is about twenty miles in length, and from two to five wide. Those of Ree and Derg are less considerable in size; and there is a smaller lake also named Derg, in the N.W. which was remarkable in superstitious times for a little island, containing what was called the purgatory of St. Patrick.

Among the lakes of the second magnitude must be first named the beautiful and interesting lough of Killarney in the S. W. abounding with romantic views, and fringed with the arbutus, found where else a native of the British dominions. This is almost the only lake in the south of Ireland; and the observations may be extended to the east. On the N. W. are the lakes of Mask, Frierty, Melve, Macnean, and Gill. That of Allen, as already mentioned, is a chief source of the Shannon, into which the Gara and Key also pour their waters. Further to the west are two considerable lakes, the Conn and the Mask; nor must those of Corrasin be forgotten.

MOUNTAINS.] The mountainous chains in Ireland are neither numerous nor important; but an upland ridge divides the country from the N.E. to the S.W. giving birth to several of the rivers. The Irish hills generally form short lines, or detached groups. One group of considerable height appears on the west and south of Lough Lane, or what is called the lake of Killarney: of these Mangerton is two thousand five hundred feet above the sea. A small line of hills extends on the north-west of Bantry Bay, and passes to the east, under the name of the Shehy mountains. To the north of this is the line of Sliblogher and Nagles, followed by the Galtee mountains; and towards the east, are those of Knockendown, which bend southward towards the bay of Dungarvan. A small chain also appears to the south of Tralee, which, with a group to the N. E. may be said to complete the enumeration of the mountains of Munster.

In Leinster is the mountain of Leinster, the line of Slieb-loom on the S.W. and a considerable group to the south of Dublin, styled the Kippure mountains, or those of Wicklow. The extent of this group is about thirty English miles in length, by about twelve in breadth,

In Ulster is a small group, called the mountains of Mourne, in the S.E. corner of the province: one of them, Donard, is said to be about the height of Mangerton. The hills of Slievecroob (in the Irish language *sliebh*, signifies a mountain), form the centre of the county of Downe; and several hills are sprinkled over the eastern half of Antrim. On the north-west of Loughneagh are those of Slievegallan and Carntogher. Sleve Snaght is a considerable mountain N.W. of Loughfoyl, whence other lines and groups extend down to Loughern.

The eastern part of Connaught presents numerous marshes; but few mountains, except those of Baughta on the south. The extreme western peninsula, is one of the most mountainous regions in Ireland. Among other names may be mentioned, Mount Nephin, in the county of Mayo, a solitary hill of two thousand six hundred and forty feet, and one of the most considerable in the island. That of Croagh Patrick, on the S. E. of Clewbay, a cone of two thousand six hundred and sixty-six feet; the

Fernamoor

Fernamoor mountains to the west of Loughmask; and the Twelve Pins, a line of so many small peaks in Ballinahinch; with others to the south of Loughcorrib.

Bogs.] The bogs form a remarkable feature of the country. Boate divides them into several genera and species, forming an elaborate scale of sterility. The dry heaths are generally confined to the mountains. The bogs he subdivides into four descriptions: 1. The grassy, in which the water being concealed by herbage, they become extremely perilous to travellers: some of these are dry in the summer. 2. The pools of water and mire. 3. What he terms hassocky bogs, or shallow lakes studded with tufts of rushes, which are chiefly found in the province of Leinster, especially in King's and Queen's counties. 4. The peat moors. Ornaments of gold and other relics of antiquity, have, from time to time, been discovered in the bogs at great depths; and there are other indications that they are of comparatively recent formation. It is hoped that the hand of industry will, in time, remove many of these blemishes; and one of the greatest improvements of modern agriculture is that of reclaiming peat moors, by means of calcareous manure.

The Irish bogs differ from the English morasses in being rarely level, but rising into hills; and there is a bog in Donnegal that is a perfect scenery of hill and dale. The plants are heath, with some bog myrtle, and a little sedgy grass.

Mineralogy.] The mineralogy of Ireland has been recently ennobled by the discovery of considerable masses of native gold, in the county of Wicklow, to the south of Dublin. These were found in a brook, running west to east, to the river of Avonmore, where it is joined by the river Aghran; and on a declivity of the mountain called Croughan Kinshelly, about seven English miles west of Arklow, and six southwest of the noted copper mines of Cronbane. It is said that a jeweller, who lately died in Dublin, often declared, that gold from that spot had passed through his hands to the value of thirty thousand pounds, the secret being retained for many years, and some pieces weighing to the amount of seventy or eighty guineas. It is now worked for government, and it is said that a very massy vein has been recently discovered, which, it is hoped, will greatly benefit the country; for mines have, in all ages, ancient and modern, enriched and improved the countries where they were found, and the exception, if such, of Spanish America is to be assigned to causes of a different nature.

The silver found in the Irish mines deserves more attention. Boate mentions a mine of this metal, intermingled with lead, which was wrought in the county of Antrim, and yielded a pound of pure silver from thirty pounds of lead. Another, less productive of silver, was found near the harbour of Sligo, in Connaught; and a third in the county of Tipperary, twelve miles from Limerick. The ores of this last were of two kinds, most generally of a reddish colour, hard, and glittering; the other, which was the richest in silver, resembled a blue marl. The works were destroyed in the Irish insurrections under Charles I.

Copper has been recently found in the county of Wicklow, and at Muccross, in Kerry.

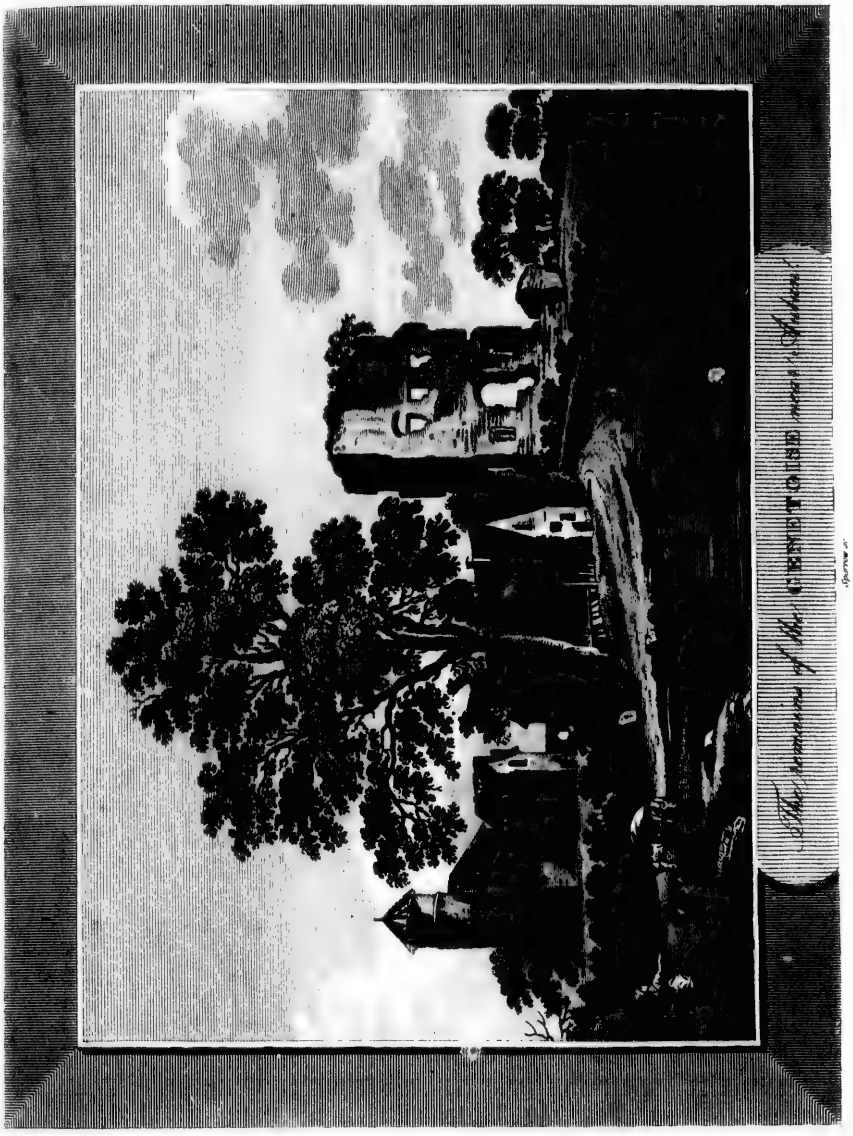
One of the chief mineral productions of Ireland is iron, the mines of which were little known till the time of Elizabeth.

The beds of coal to be seen in various regions of Ireland have not yet been explored to their proper extent. That of Kilkenny, found at Castlecomer, is deservedly celebrated among mineralogists as the purest which has yet been traced in any quarter of the globe.

One of the most beautiful marbles of Ireland is found near Kilkenny, and others have been discovered in various parts of the island. Slate, of various kinds, is also abundant.

Natural Curiosities.] The lake of Killarney is an expanse of water about ten miles in length, and from one to seven in breadth: it is divided into three parts, called the upper, lower and Muckruss lake; and is surrounded by an amphitheatre of mountains, clothed with trees whose verdure is contrasted with intervening rocks. Cascades, and other features of rural beauty, are not wanting.

What is called the Giant's Causeway must be distinguished among the most remarkable of the curiosities of Ireland. When we recollect that a similar production, the celebrated island of Staffa, remained unnoticed till within these three years; we shall be the less inclined to wonder



that the Giant's Causeway is an object of recent observation. The first account is that given by Sir R. Buckley, in a letter to Doctor Lister, 1693. This surprising collection of basaltic pillars is about eight miles N. E. from Coleraine. The adjacent coast is verdant, but precipitous; and from it the Causeway projects into the sea, to an unknown extent. The part explored is about six hundred feet in length; the breadth from two hundred and forty to one hundred and twenty; the height from sixteen to thirty-six feet above the level of the strand. It consists of many thousand pillars, mostly in a vertical position; some of them high, others broken, and, for a considerable space, of an equal height, so as to form a pavement. They are closely compacted together; though the form be various, trigonal, tetragonal, pentagonal, hexagonal, and heptagonal; the most numerous are the pentagonal. The pillars are rarely composed of one entire piece, but mostly consist of short or long joints, either plain or alternately concave and convex. The pillars are from fifteen to twenty-four inches, or more, in diameter. Towards the N. E. is what is called the organ, in the side of a hill, consisting of fifty pillars; that in the middle is forty feet high, the other gradually diminishing. Similar pillars are also found a mile and a half inland, four miles to the west of the Giant's Causeway, and at the capes of Benbore and Fairhead*.

* The basalt of the Giant's Causeway is of a very compact texture, and the angles of the pillars have preserved their sharpness, though exposed to the sea for perhaps two or three thousand years. The same shore also presents horizontal and bending pillars, like those of Staffa; the attendant minerals are zoolite in the irregular basalt, steatite, and bits of agate, red ochre, and iron ore.

† By the conquests made by France since the commencement of the revolution its inhabitants may be estimated at about eighty millions.

‡ The following table exhibits a view of the divisions of France under the Louis's, and the modern departments:

Ancient Provinces.	Departments.	Chief Towns.
Flandre Françoise.	Nord.	Douai.
Artois.	Pas de-Calais.	Arras.
Picardie.	Somme.	Amiens.
Normandie.	Seine Inférieure.	Rouen.
	Calvados.	Caen.
	Manche.	Coutances.
	Orne.	Alençon.
	Eure.	Evreux.
Isle de France.	Seine.	Paris.
	Seine and Oise.	Versailles.
	Oise.	Beauvais.
	Aisne.	Laon.
Champagne.	Seine and Marne.	Melun.
	Marne.	Châlons-sur-Marne.
	Ardennes.	Mézières.
	Aube.	Troyes.
	Haute Marne.	Chaumont.

FRANCE.

EXTENT.] The extent of France, before the recent acquisitions, was computed at one hundred and forty-eight thousand eight hundred and forty square miles; and supposing the then population to be twenty-six millions, would render one hundred and seventy-four inhabitants to each mile square. The boundaries were, on the west, the Atlantic Ocean; on the south, the Mediterranean and Pyrenees; on the east, Savoy, Swisserland, and Germany; on the north, the Austrian Netherlands, the German Sea, and English Channel. It extends from about the forty-second to near the fifty-first degree of north latitude; from about the seventh degree of longitude west from Paris, to about the fifth on the east; being in length, north to south, about six hundred British miles, and in breadth, west to east, about five hundred and sixty †.

DIVISIONS.] Previous to the revolution, when France was under the ruling power of the Capetian dynasty, that country was divided into provinces; but by the recent alterations which have taken place in France it is now divided into departments ‡.

Ancient Provinces.	Departments.	Chief Towns.
Lorraine.	Meuse.	Bar-sur-Ornain.
	Moselle.	Metz.
	Meurthe.	Nancy.
	Vosges.	Epinal.
Alsace.	Haut-Rhin.	Colmar.
	Bas-Rhin.	Strasbourg.
Bretagne.	Isle and Vilaine.	Rennes.
	Côtes-du-Nord.	St. Brieux.
	Finisterre.	Quimper.
	Morbihan.	Vannes.
	Loire Inferieure.	Nantes.
Maine and Perche.	Sarthe.	Le Mans.
	Mayenne.	Laval.
Anjou.	Mayenne and Loire.	Angers.
Touraine.	Indre and Loire.	Tours.
Orleanois.	Loiret.	Orleans.
	Eure and Loire.	Chartres.
	Loire and Cher.	Blois.
Berri.	Indre.	Châteauroux.
	Cher.	Bourges.
Nivernois.	Nièvre.	Nevers.
Bourgogne.	Yonne.	Auxerre.
	Côte d'Or.	Dijon.
	Saône and Loire.	Macon.
	Ain.	Bourg.
Franche-Compté.	Haute-Saône.	Vesoul.
	Doubs.	Besançon.
	Jura.	Lons-le-Saunier.
Poictou.	Vendée.	Fontenay-le-Peuple.
	Deux-Sèvres.	Niort.
	Vienne.	Poitiers.
Marche.	Haute-Vienne, comprising part of Limosin.	Limoge.
	Creuze.	Guéret.

ANTIQUITIES.

ANTIQUITIES.] Several monuments exist in France which are exceedingly ancient. The Greek colony at Marseilles seems to have imparted some degree of civilization to the country, and the rude Gallic coins are evidently an imitation of the Grecian model *.

The Roman antiquities in France are numerous, and some of them in excellent preservation. Those at Nismes are particularly celebrated, consisting chiefly of an amphitheatre, and the temple called La Maison Carrè.

The monuments of the Carlovingian race are very numerous, and Roman mosaics have illustrated the fame of Charlemagne. Of the later periods the monuments are so numerous, that it would be vain to attempt to enumerate them. One of the most singular is the suit of tapestry, which was preserved in the cathedral church of Bayeux, in Normandy, representing the beginning and termination of the grand contest between William and Harold, which led to the conquest of England by the Normans It is said to have been the work of Matilda, wife of William: and bears every mark of that remote antiquity.

RELIGION.] The religion of France is the Roman Catholic; but the Gallican church, since its re-establishment, has been considerably mo-

Ancient Provinces.	*Departments.*	*Chief Towns.*
Limosin,	Corrèze, comprising part of Upper-Vienne.	Tulle.
Bourbonnois.	Allier.	Moulins.
Saintonge, comprising Aunis.	Charente-Inférieure.	Saintes.
Angoumois, comprising part of Saintonge.	Charente.	Angoulome.
Auvergne.	Puy de-dôme.	Clermont.
	Cantal.	St. Flour.
Lyonnois.	Rhône.	Lyon.
Forêt & Beaujolois.	Loire.	Montbrison.
	Isère.	Grenoble.
Dauphiné.	Hautes-Alpes.	Gap.
	Drôme.	Valence.
Guyenne, comprehending Gascogne.	Dordogne.	Perigueux.
	Gironde.	Bordeaux.
	Lot and Garonne.	Agen.
	Lot.	Cahors.
	Aveyron.	Rhodes.
	Gers.	Auch.
	Landes.	Mont-de-Marsan.
	Hautes Pyrénées.	Tarbe.
Bearn.	Basses-Pyrénées.	Pau
Comté-de-Foix.	Arriege.	Tarascon.
Roussillon.	Pyrénées-Orientales.	Perpignan.
Languedoc.	Haute-Garonne.	Toulouse.
	Aude.	Carcassonne.
	Tarn.	Castres.
	Garde.	Nimes.
	Lozere.	Mende.
	Ardéche.	Privas.
	Haute-Loire.	Le Puy.
	Héraut.	Montpellier.
Provence.	Bouches-du-Rhone.	Aix.
	Basses Alpes.	Digne.
	Var.	Toulon.
Corsica.	Golo.	Bastia.
	Liamone.	Ajaccio.

The above are the modern departments of old France; the recent conquests have also been moulded to a similar form, under the name of re-united departments; these are the following:

Ancient Names.	*Re-united Departments.*	*Chief Towns.*
Territory of Avignon, county of Venaissin.	Vaucluse, with the Bouches du Rhone.	Avignon.
District of Apt.	Mont Blanc.	Chambéry.
Savoy.	The Maritime Alps.	Nice.
County of Nice.	Mont Terrible.	Porentruy.
Bishopric of Basle.		
Austrian Hainault.	Jemmapes.	Mons.
Western part of Austrian Flanders,	Lys.	Bruges.

Ancient Names.	*Re-united Departments.*	*Chief Towns.*
Eastern part of Flanders.	Escaut.	Gand.
Eastern part of Brabant.	Deux Nethes.	Anvers.
Southern part of Brabant.	Dyle.	Bruxelles.
Part of the country of Liege, and of Guelderland.	Meuse Inférieure.	Maestricht.
Part of the countries of Liege, and of Limbourg, with the principalities of Stavelo & Malmedi.	Ourthe.	Liége.
County of Namur.	Sambre and Meuse.	Namur.
Duchy of Luxembourg.	Forêts.	Luxemburgh.
Part of the Archbishopric of Trèves.	Rhine and Moselle.	Coblentz.
Part of the Archbishopric of Trèves, and of the Duchy of Deux Ponts.	Sarre.	Trèves.
Part of the ancient Archbishopric of Mayence, and of the Duchy of Deux Ponts.	Mont Tonnerre.	Mayence.
Part of the Archbishopric of Cologne, of the Duchy of Juliers, of Prussian Guelderland, of Cleves, Meurs, &c	Roer.	Aix-la-Chapelle.
Of the Territory of Geneva, of the Districts of Gex, Larouge, Thonon, &c.	Leman.	Genève.

To these vast acquisitions must also be added, the recent annexation of the whole of Piedmont, the isle of Elba, &c. &c. and the kingdom of Holland, which last was annexed to the French empire on the 9th of July, 1810.

* In Picardy, and other parts possessed by the Belgæ, there are circles, and other monuments of the kind which we call Druidic. Near the town of Carnac, on the coast of Vannes, in Bretagne, there is a grand monument of this kind, far exceeding Stonehenge, if the account be not exaggerated, which says, that there about four thousand stones, many as high as eighteen or twenty feet, disposed in the form of a quincunx of eleven rows.

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	Chief Town.
	Gand.
	Anvers.
	Bruxelles.
	Maestricht.
	Liége.
	Namur.
	Luxemburgh.
	Coblentz.
	Trèves.
	Mayence.
	Aix-la-Chapelle.
	Genève.

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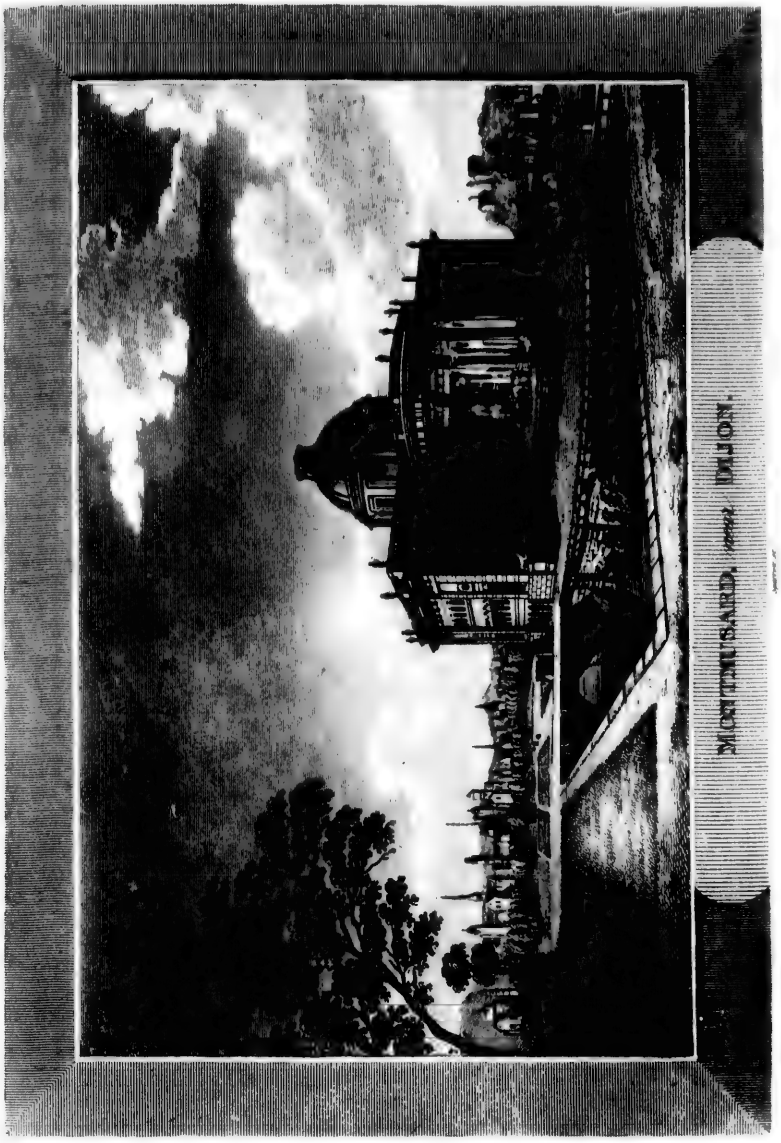

fied, and rendered wholly independent on Roman influence. The general division of France into archbishoprics and bishoprics remains much the same as before the revolution; but the revenues and power attached to these ecclesiastical offices are now only sufficient to render them respectable, but not formidable.

GOVERNMENT.] The present government of France we are not able to describe. At present, however, it seems to approximate to a military form.

POPULATION.] The population of France was formerly computed at twenty-six millions, but the recent acquisitions would swell it to the formidable extent of near eighty millions. At all vents, France is a country teeming with population, and quickly resumes her vigour after stupendous losses, as Europe has repeatedly experienced.

COLONIES.] The French colonies are at present unimportant, notwithstanding the addition of the Spanish part of St. Domingo. The best of them have been convulsed and ruined for a eason by intestine commotions

ARMY.] The political convulsions which have agitated this unhappy country, the enthusiasm, and yet more the despotism, of freedom, have occasionally, within these few years, swelled the French armies to the amazing computation of upwards of a million. But it may safely be doubted whether the real amount at any time exceeded six hundred thousand effective men, the French having swelled their own numbers to intimidate their enemies.

Of the revenues and the political importance and relations of France we are unable to speak with precision: it will therefore be better to refer our observations on those particulars till the close of the present war, when information may be had on the subject.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] The French have long been considered as full of vivacity, gaiety, politeness, a singular disposition towards social enjoyments, and that happy art which enables the adept to dispose of his occupations and pleasures in an agreeable succession, free from listlessness or fatigue.

The ancient and rooted enmity between France and England nourished many prejudices against the French character, which have since very properly disappeared in the reports of more candid authors. Yet, with travellers accustomed to the elegance of English life, many of the French manners and customs cannot be reconciled to ideas of physical purity; and the looseness of morals, in regard to the sex, has become proverbial.

LANGUAGE.] The French language is the most universally diffused of any in Europe, perhaps in the world. In variety, clearness, and precision, and idioms adapted to life, business, and pleasure, it yields to no modern speech; but it wants force and dignity, and yet more, sublimity. The critics and academicians of the seventeenth century enacted such severe laws of purity, that, like gold reduced to the utmost fineness, it has become soft and almost incapable of deep impressions. The French language is a well known corruption of the Roman, mingled with Celtic and Gothic words and idioms. Even in the tenth century it continued to be called Romance; a name which afterwards passed to the poems and tales of chivalry, as being composed in this dialect. The epoch of classical purity of the French language commences with the reign of Louis XIV. but the recent revolution has introduced such exuberance of new words and phrases, that a neological dictionary is required to explain them.

LITERATURE.] The literature of France has, in modern times, excited great respect and admiration. In the bold exertions of inventive genius, and even in profound productions of philosophy, France may be said to vie with Italy or England; and in the pleasing and beautiful paths of invention, and in books of elegant learning and exact science, she remains almost unrivalled.

EDUCATION.] The state of education in all the Catholic countries was very defective till the Jesuits acquired great estimation by their attention to this important department; to which, if their exertions had been solely directed they would have proved a most useful body of men. National education has justly attracted the attention of the new rulers, and their success appears to have been commensurate to their laudable intentions.

UNIVERSITIES.] France formerly boasted of twenty-one universities; in the north Douay, Caën, Paris, Rheims, Nanci, Strasbourg; in the middle provinces Nantes, Angers, Poictiers,

Orleans, Bourges, Dijon, Besançon; and in the south Bourdeaux, Pau, Perpignan, Toulouse, Montpellier, Aix, Orange, Valence. Of these the Sorbonne of Paris was the most celebrated: but it shewed an irremediable tendency to prolong the reign of scholastic theology. The academies and literary societies were computed at thirty-nine. Those of Paris, in particular, have been long known to the learned world, by elegant and profound volumes of dissertations on the sciences, and on the Belles Lettres. Nor have public institutions of this kind been foreign to the consideration of the new government.

Cities and Towns.] Paris, the capital, rises on both sides the river Seine, in a pleasant and healthy situation, with delightful environs. It is divided into three parts; the town, *ville* on the north, the city in the middle, and that part called the university on the south. The inhabitants probably amount to between six and seven hundred thousand. The houses are chiefly built with free stone. The banks of the Seine present noble quays; and the public buildings are not only elegant in themselves, but are placed in open and commanding situations. The Louvre is arranged among the best specimens of modern architecture; and the church of St. Genevieve, now the Pantheon, is deservedly admired; nor must the Thuilleries, the Palais Royal; and Hospital of Invalids be forgotten. Paris, no doubt, exceeds London in magnificence, but yields greatly in cleanliness and convenience; and the streets, generally without accommodation for foot passengers, loudly bespeak the inattention of the government to the middle and lower classes of men. The recent revolution has little impaired the beauty of Paris; on the contrary, the rapine of several provinces has enlarged and adorned the public collections; and, by enriching numerous individuals, has enabled them to increase their favourite city with new and beautiful streets.

Edifices.] Several of the most noble edifices of France are in Paris, and its vicinity. To those already mentioned must be added, the palace of Versailles, rather remarkable, however, for the profusion of expence, than for the skill of the architect; the parts being small and unharmonious, and the general effect rather idle pomp than true grandeur. The bridge of Neuilly, a league from Paris, is esteemed the most beautiful in Europe, consisting of five wide arches of equal size. The ancient cathedrals and castles are so numerous that it would be idle to attempt to enumerate them: and the French nobility were not contented, like those of Spain, with large houses in the cities, but had grand chateaux scattered over the kingdom, to which, however, they seldom retired, except when compelled by formal banishment from the court.

Inland Navigation.] The inland navigation of France has been promoted by several capital exertions. The canal of Briare, otherwise styled that of Burgundy, was begun by Henry IV. and completed by Louis XIII. opening a communication between the Loire and the Seine, or in other words, between Paris and the western provinces. Passing by Montargis it joins the canal of Orleans, and falls into the Seine near Fontainbleau. This navigation of forty-two locks, is of great utility in inland commerce.

The canal of Picardy extends from the Somme to the Oise, beginning at St. Quintin, and forming a convenient intercourse to the provinces in the N.E.

But the chief work of this description is the celebrated canal of Languedoc, commenced and completed in the reign of Louis XIV., by Riquet, the engineer, under the auspices of that able minister Colbert. Fifteen years of labour were employed, from 1666 to 1681, and the mechanical ignorance of the period was surprised at a tunnel near Bezieres, of only seven hundred and twenty feet, lined with free-stone. This noble canal begins in the bay of Languedoc; and at St. Ferrol is a reservoir of five hundred and ninety-five acres of water: it enters the Garonne about a quarter of a mile below the city of Toulouse. The breadth, including the towing paths, is one hundred and forty-four feet; the depth six feet; the length sixty-four French leagues, or about one hundred and eighty miles. The expence was more than half a million sterling.

The other canals in France are very numerous; but, though of supreme utility, are too minute to enter into this general view of the kingdom.

Climate and Seasons.] The climate of this extensive country is, in general, far more clear and serene than that of England; but the northern provinces are exposed to heavy rains which

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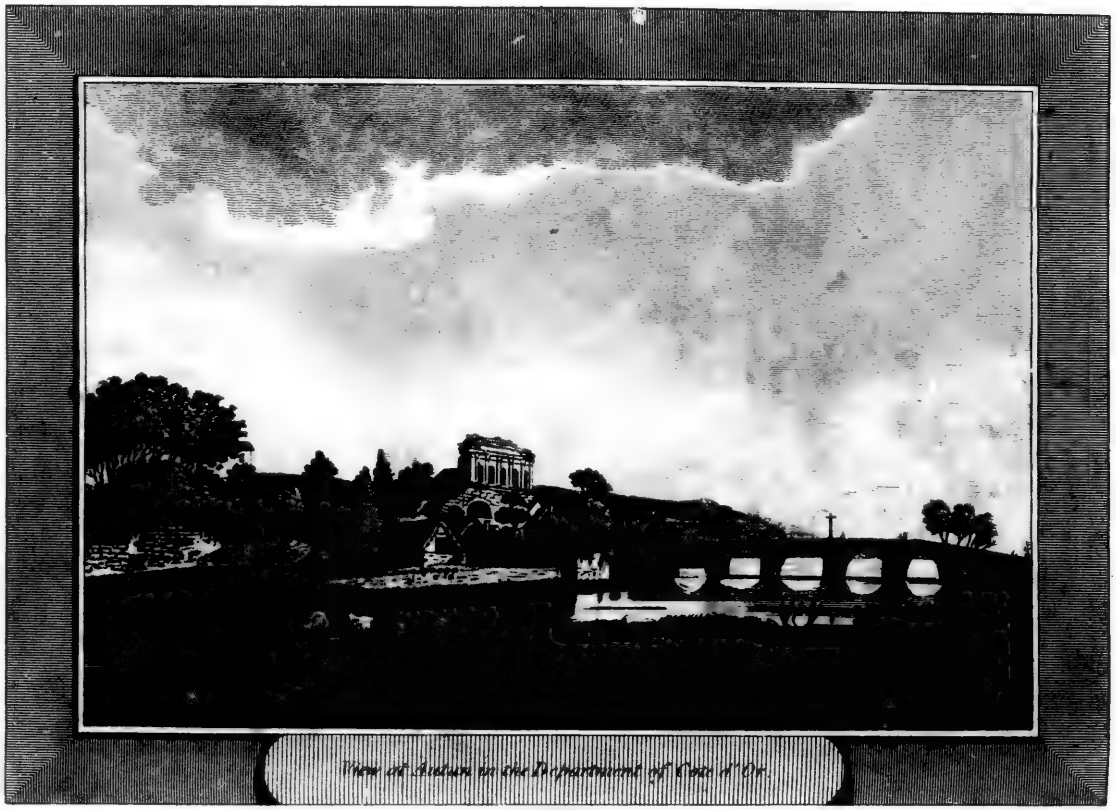


View of Autun in the Department of Cote d'Or.

F. Richards Sculp.

which however produce beautiful verdure and rich pastures. France may be divided into three climates, the northern, the central, and the southern. The first yields no wines; the second no maize; the third produce wines, maize, and olives. These divisions proceed in an oblique line from the S. W. to the N. E. so as to demonstrate "that the eastern part of the kingdom is two and a half degrees of latitude hotter than the western, or if not hotter more favourable to vegetation." One great advantage of the climate of France arises from its being adapted to the culture of the vine, which flourishes in spots that would otherwise be waste.

Face of the Country.] The face of the country is generally plain; and the only mountains are found in the south, in Auvergne and Languedoc, Dauphiné and Provence. Britany corresponds greatly with Cornwall, and abounds in extensive heaths. In Lorrain are the mountains of Vosges, far inferior to the southern elevations. For beauty the Limosin is perhaps superior to any other province of France: yet much of the country is finely diversified with hill and dale, and the rivers, particularly the Seine, are often grand and picturesque.

Soil and Agriculture.] The N. E. part from Flanders to Orleans is a rich loam. Further to the W. the land is poor and stony; Britany being generally gravel, or gravelly sand, with low ridges of granite. The chalk runs through the centre of the kingdom, from Germany by Champagne to Saintonge; and on the E. of the mountainous tract is a large extent of gravel, but even the mountainous region of the south is generally fertile, though the large province formerly called Gascony present many *landes*, or level heaths.

In some of the provinces, the plans of agriculture correspond with the natural fertility of the soil; and others display a most laudable industry. A striking instance of the latter is the artificial fertility conferred on some of the barren mountains of the Cevennes. As the waters which run down the sides carry considerable quantities of earth into the ravines, walls of loose stones are erected which permit the waters to pass when they are clear; but when turbid their load of earth is gradually deposited against the wall, and affords a space of fertile soil. Successive ramparts are thus erected to the very top of the mountain; and the water, having no longer a violent fall, only serves to nourish the crops, which are moreover protected by planting fruit trees at certain intervals, so as to lend security and consistence to the new acquisition. By another process calcareous mountains, which generally rise in shelves, are rendered productive by cutting away the rock behind the shelf, which supplies materials for a low wall around the edge. The interval is afterwards filled with earth, and the barren mountain is crowned with luxuriant terraces.

Rivers.] The principal rivers of France are, the Seine, the Loire, the Rhone, and the Garonne. The first is one of the most beautiful streams of France, rising near Saint Seine, in the modern department of Côte D'or, a portion of ancient Burgundy; it pursues its course to the N. W. till it enter the English Channel at Havre de Grace, after a course of about two hundred and fifty English miles.

The Loire derives its source from Mont Gerbier in the N. of ancient Languedoc; and after a northern course turns to the west, entering the ocean a considerable way beyond Nantes, after a course of about five hundred miles.

The Rhone springs from the Glacier of Fulca, near the mountain of Grimsel in Swisserland; and after passing the beautiful vales of Vallais, and the lake of Geneva, bends its course towards the south, and enters the Mediterranean. The course about four hundred miles.

The Garonne rises in the vale of Arau in the Pyrenees. The course of this river is generally N. W. It extends to about two hundred and fifty miles. After its junction with the Dordogne, it assumes the name of the Gironde.

Mountains.] Those of Britanny are granitic and primitive, but of small elevation. They divide into branches towards Brest and Alençon. The Vosges, in the department of that name, in the S. of ancient Lorrain, are supposed to be connected with the mountains of Swisserland.

Mont Jura, a vanguard of the Alps, forms a boundary between France and Swisserland. If Mont Blanc be admitted among the French mountains, the other Alps cannot rival its supreme elevation. The ancient province of Dauphiné displays several Alpine branches, which also extend through great part of Provence.

The grand chain of the Cevennes passes from

N. to S. and sends out branches towards the E. and W. In the modern departments of the upper Loire and Cantal, are appearances which, in the opinion of eminent naturalists, indicate ancient volcanoes. The northern part of this branch is styled the Puy de Dome, while the southern is called that of Cantal. The Monts d'Or form the centre, and are the highest mountains in France. The chief elevation is that of the Puy de Sansi, which rises about six thousand three hundred feet above the level of the sea, while the Puy de Dome is about five thousand, and the Plomb du Cantal, the highest of that part, is about six thousand two hundred feet.

The Pyrenees form a vast chain, and may be considered with equal justice as belonging either to France or to Spain; but as the most productive and interesting parts are on the side of France, and her literati have exerted themselves in the description, it seems at least proper to introduce the delineation here. To the surprise of naturalists, the Pyrenees have been found to present calcareous appearances, and even shells and skeletons of animals, near or upon their highest summits, which are in the centre of the chain. Mont Perdu is considered as the highest elevation of the Pyrenees, ascending above the sea one thousand seven hundred and fifty-one French toises, or about eleven thousand feet English. Other noted heights are Marboré, the Pic de Midi, the Niege Veille, &c. The Pyrenean chain appears at a distance like a shaggy ridge, presenting the segment of a circle fronting France, and descending at each extremity till it disappear in the ocean and Mediterranean. Thus at St. Jean de Luz only high hills appear, and in like manner on the east, beyond the summit Canigou, the elevations gradually diminish. The highest summits are crowned with perpetual snow. To the S. and W. the Pyrenees present nothing but dreadful sterility, but on the N. and E. the descent is more gradual, and affords frequent woods and pastures. Besides the dreadful fall of rocks, undermined by the waters, they are exposed to Lavanges, or the impetuous descent of vast masses of snow, called Avalanches in Swisserland, and have their glaciers and other terrific features of the Alps.

Forests.] The forests of France are numerous and extensive; and as wood is the general fuel, attention to their growth becom dispensable. Two of the most remarkabl those of Orleans and Ardennes, the forme extent and the numerous troops of banditti used to infest its precincts: the latter for ar fame and events of chivalry. The fore Ardennes extended from Rheims to Tou and on the N. E. to Sedan in the present de ment of the Ardennes. To these names m be added the forest of Fontainbleau, and others.

Mineralogy.] Gold mines anciently ex in the S. of France, and some of the riv still roll down particles of that metal. Th cient Gallic coins are however of a base mingled with silver, being the metal style the ancients electrum. France can, how boast of the silver mines at St. Marie-aux-M in Alsace, and at Giromagny in the depart of the Upper Rhine, near the mountain Vosges, also a part of ancient Alsace. same district contains mines of copper, a not unfrequent in the departments of the and those of the Loire, the Lozere, and Ardeche. The duchy of Deux Ponts, a luable acquisition of France on the west o Rhine, is celebrated for mines of quicks The mountains which contain this metal brace a district of ten or twelve league length, S. to N. from Wolfstein to Cruz and seven or eight leagues in breadth, be a reddish brown or grey sand-stone. I territory, among numerous mines of quick are those of Stahlberg, and Donnersberg, have been explored for many centuries. that most important and universal of met found in abundance, particularly in some northern departments.

The coal mines of France were at the time estimated at four hundred, con wrought; and two hundred more capa being wrought. Of these coal mines occur in the provinces which formerly be to Flanders, and in the departments o logne, and La Manche. Coal is also m frequent in the centre and south of Nearly allied to coal is jet, an article form great consumption, chiefly in Spain, w was made into rosaries, crosses, butt black dresses, &c. France was from ti memorial in possession of this branch,

centered in three villages in the department the Aude, in the S. W. of ancient Languedoc. Besides excellent freestone, the environs of is contain abundance of gypsum. Alum is nd in considerable quantities at Aveyron. The enees in particular supply beautiful marbles.

MINERAL WATERS.] The chief mineral wa- are those of Barrége, Bagnere, Vichi, and mbieres. The warm baths of Barrége, in ticular, at the foot of the Pyrenees, have n long celebrated. The baths of Bagneres in the same neighbourhood.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] Among the natural riosities of France, the most worthy of no- is in the plain of La Crau, which lies in Pro- ce, not far from the mouth of the Rhone. is is the most singular stony desert that is to found in France, or perhaps in Europe. diameter is about five leagues, and the con- is from twenty to twenty-five square leagues, about one hundred and fifty thousand English es. It is entirely composed of shingle, or nd gravel, some of the stones as large as d of a man, and the shingle of the sea shore not more barren of soil. Beneath is a small ture of loam with fragments of stone.

NETHERLANDS.

EXTENT.] Those provinces of the Nether- ds which were formerly subject to the house Austria, have been recently annexed to the nch dominions. Their length, computed m the eastern limit of Luxembourg to Ostend, bout one hundred and eighty British miles; about one hundred and twenty in breadth, m the northern boundary of Austrian Bra- t to the most southern limit of Hainault. extent is computed at seven thousand five ndred and twenty square miles, with a popu- on of one million nine hundred thousand.

RELIGION, &c.] The religion of the Nether- ds is the Roman Catholic; and, till the nch revolution, the inhabitants were noted bigotry, a great part of the wealth being in hands of ecclesiastics. The metropolitan see the archbishopric of Mechlin, or Malines. bishoprics were those of Bruges, Antwerp, nt, &c. in number nine or ten. The go- ment and laws had some features of free- ; but the decline of commerce having les- sened the consequence of the cities and bur- gesses, this liberty became the monopoly of the nobles and clergy, who often opposed the will of the sovereign, when exerted in the most be- neficial manner for the good of the community. The *Joyeuse Entrée* was the Magna Charta of the Netherlands, a constitutional bond of national privileges.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] The manners and customs of the Netherlands partake of those of their neighbours, the Dutch and French, the phlegm of the one being tempered by the vi- vacity of the other. The lower classes were fond of religious pageantry, and much addicted to the superstitious observances of the Catholic system. The Flemish language partakes of the German and of the Dutch.

EDUCATION.] Education was neglected as in most Catholic countries, where the Jesuits in vain attempted to bring it to a level with that of the Protestant states. The universities, which in no country are of equal importance with the schools, were, however, numerous, considering the extent of the country. Exclusive of Tour- nay, which has been long subject to the French, there were others at Douay, and St. Omer, which was much frequented by the English Catholics; and one of still greater celebrity at Louvain,

CITIES AND TOWNS.] The three chief cities in what were called the Austrian Netherlands, are Brussels, Ghent, and Antwerp. The capital city of Brussels contains about eighty thousand inhabitants, and is beautified by a noble square, one side of which is occupied with a vast guild- hall; and by numerous churches and fountains. It is situated on the small river Sen, or Senne, which runs into the Dyle and the Scheldt. It was known as early as the tenth century, and in the fourteenth was surrounded with walls. The im- perial palace, the wonted residence of the go- vernor of the Netherlands, displays considerable taste and magnificence.

Ghent contains about sixty thousand souls, and the circumference of the walls is computed at fifteen miles, as it is built on a number of little islands formed by four rivers and many canals, and includes gardens, and even fields. Some of the streets are large and well paved, but only a few churches now deserve attention.

The inhabitants of Antwerp are computed at fifty

fifty thousand, the sad remains of great population and prosperity. This city being placed upon the noble estuary of the Scheldt*, and formerly the chief mart of Flemish commerce, possesses a strong citadel, erected by the sanguinary duke of Alva. The harbour is excellent, and the supposed impediments found to be fabulous. The streets, houses, and churches, are worthy of the ancient fame of the city. The exchange is said to have afforded the pattern for that of London.

Sea-Ports.] The sea-coast of Flanders, the maritime province, consists chiefly of sandy hills and downs, and has few inlets, as most of the rivers flow into the Scheldt. There are, however, two ports which deserve particular notice. The Sluys†, called by the French L'Eclus, derives its name from the sluices, by which the circumjacent country may be laid under water. Guicciardini says, that the haven of Sluys was capable of containing five hundred ships. The port and population now yield greatly to those of Ostend. Many English families were settled here before Ostend fell a prey to the French.

Edifices.] In general it may be observed that, even at the present day, every traveller is impressed with surprize, not only at the number, but the great extent of the Flemish cities, towns, and even villages; in which respect the Netherlands exceed every country in Europe, only excepting the United Provinces. The chief edifices are the cathedrals, churches, and monasteries.

Inland Navigation.] Idle would be the attempt even to enumerate the canals which intersect these provinces in all directions. Some of them date even from the tenth century, and the canal from Brussels to the Scheldt is of the sixteenth. Other important canals extend from Ghent, Antwerp, Ostend, and other cities and towns, especially in the western districts; but, under the Austrian dominations, these important means of intercourse were shamefully neglected.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The manufactures and commerce of the Netherlands, for a long period superior to any in the west of Europe, have suffered a radical and total decline, owing partly to the other powers entering into competition, and partly to the establishment of freedom in the United Provinces, whence Amsterdam arose upon the ruins of Antwerp. What little commerce remains is chiefly inland to Germany, the external employing very few native vessels. The East India Company established at Ostend was suppressed by the jealousy of England and other powers; and the chief commerce was afterwards carried on by the English established in that city.

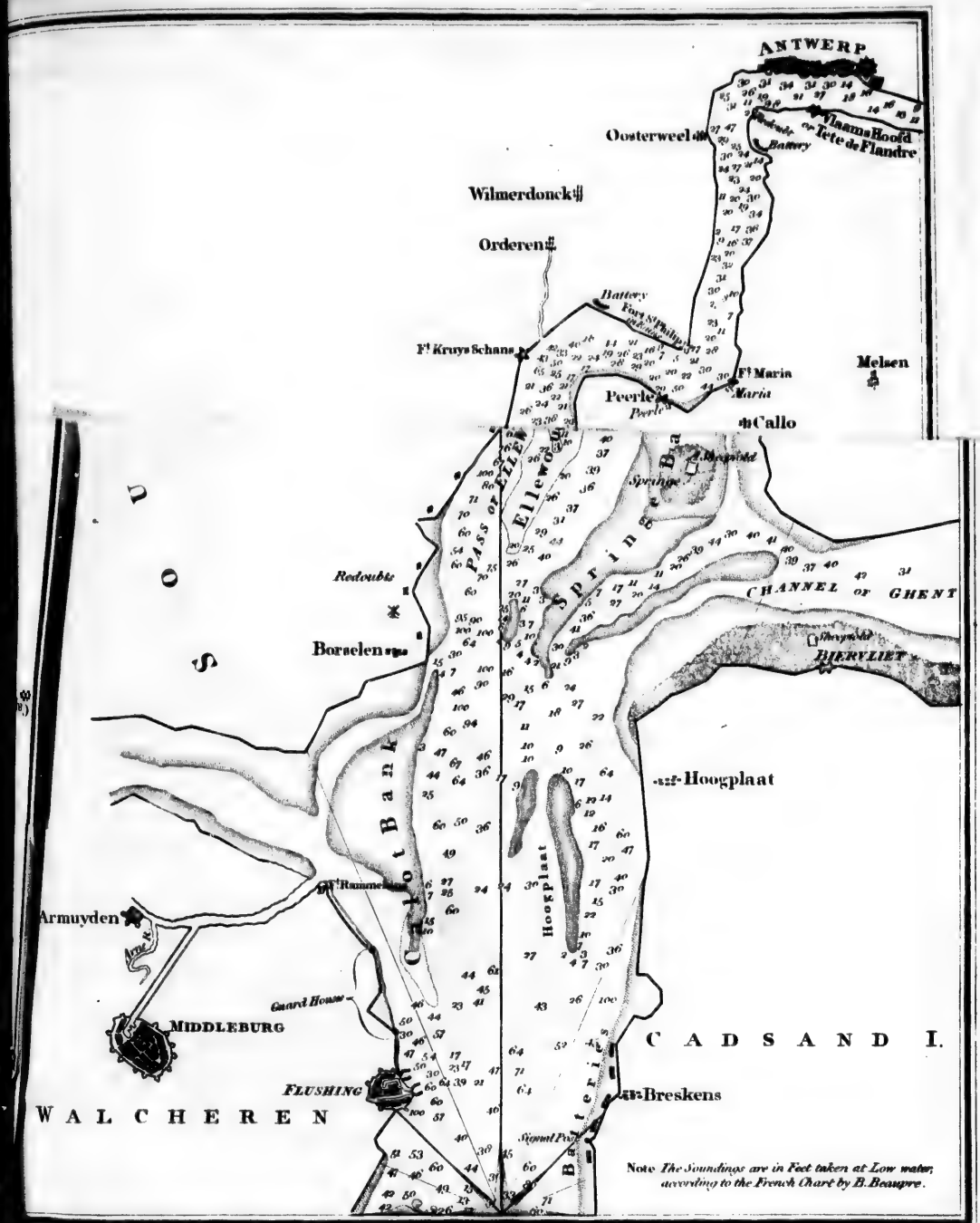
Climate and Seasons, &c.] The climate of the Netherlands considerably resembles that of the south of England, and is more remarkable for moisture than for warmth; yet the duchy of Luxembourg produces some wine, which probably has the austerity of the Rhenish, with its spirit. The face of the country is in general level, and the semblance of hills can scarcely be discovered, except towards the east, where a few elevations relieve the eye from the general flatness of the other regions. The soil is in general rich sandy loam, sometimes interspersed with fields of clay, but more often with large spaces of sand. Such has been, even in distant ages, the state of agriculture, that the Netherlands were long esteemed the very garden of Europe, a praise which they still share with Lombardy and England.

Rivers.] The Netherlands are watered by many rivers and canals, that it will be sufficient to mention only a few of the chief streams. The Rhine, the Meuse, or Maas. The chief river is the Scheldt, which receives two other streams, the Lys, and the Scalpe, the latter near Mortagne, the former near Ghent. All these rivers arise in the county of Artois, from no considerable elevation; and the whole course of the Scheldt, cannot be comparatively estimated above one hundred and twenty miles‡. The Dyle rises not far to the N.W. of Namur, and

* In the year 1809, one of the most formidable bodies of land and sea forces that ever sailed from the shores of England, went on an expedition to the Scheldt, with a view to destroy the French fleet at Antwerp. They destroyed the Naval Arsenal at Flushing, but could not effect the grand object of the expedition. In the island of Walcheren the British troops suffered so severely from disease, that it is said not more than one-third ever returned to England.

† Sluys belonged to the United Provinces, but is here mentioned, considering the Netherlands to the Rhine as appendage of France.

‡ The Scheldt properly rises about eight miles N. of St. Quintin, in the modern department of the Aisne.



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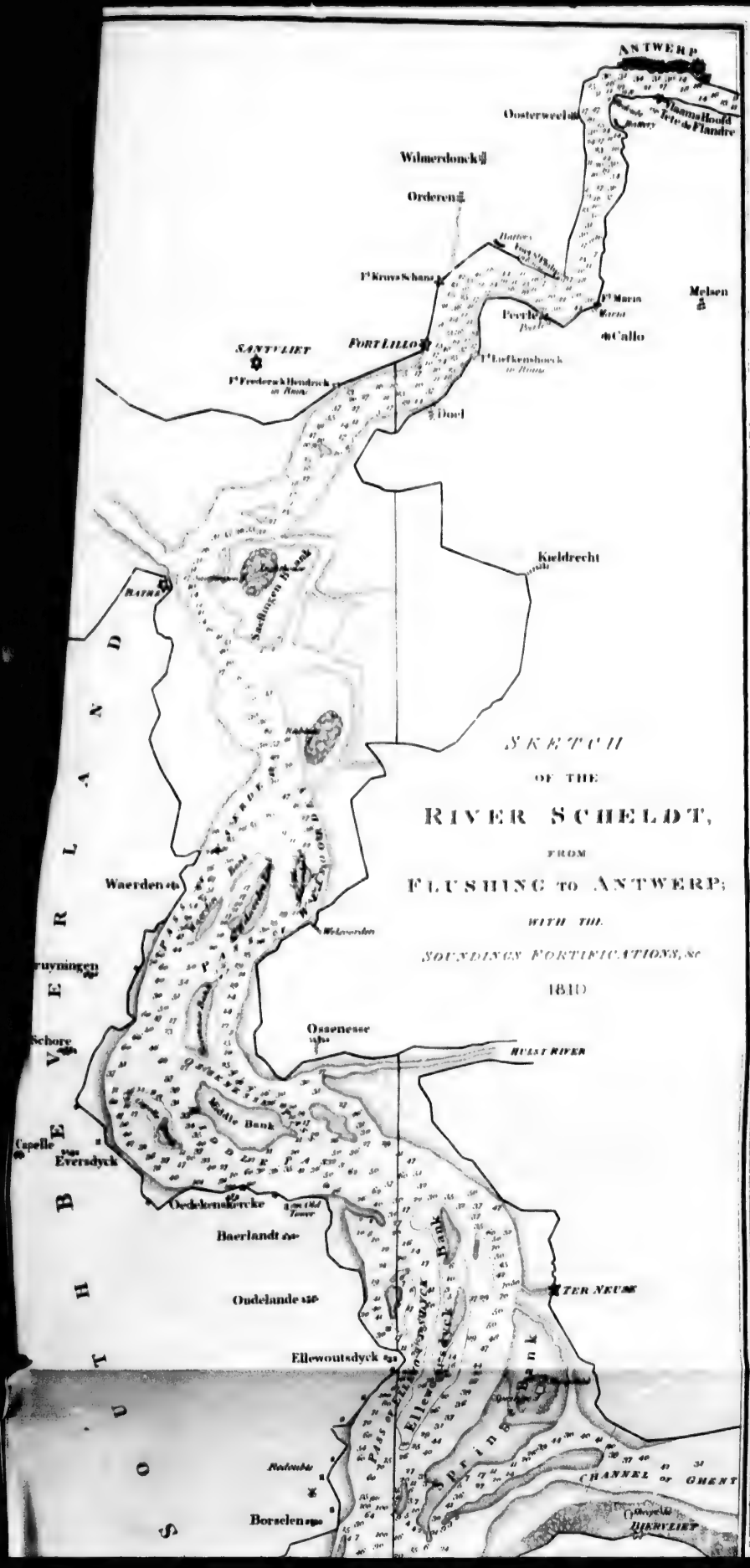
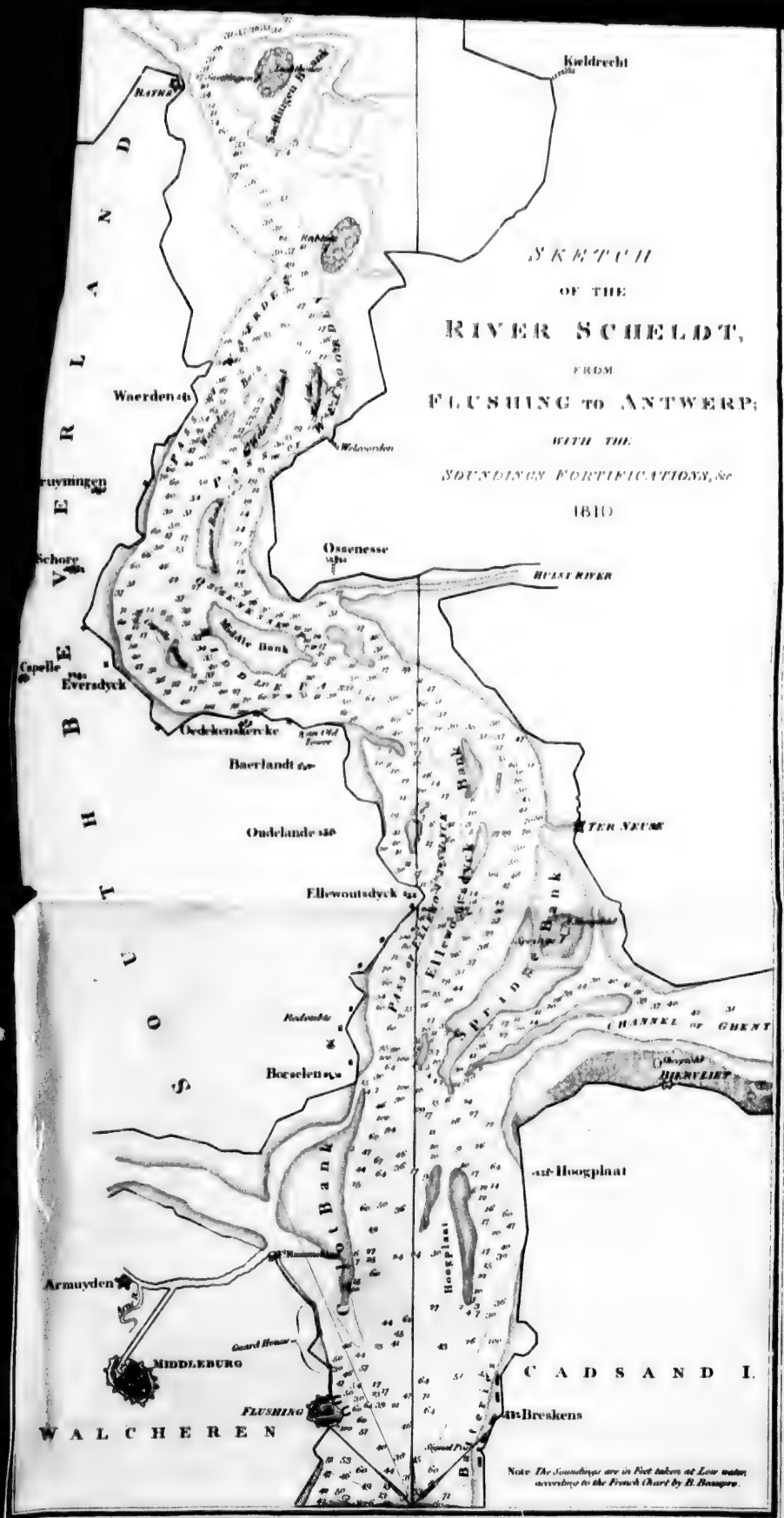
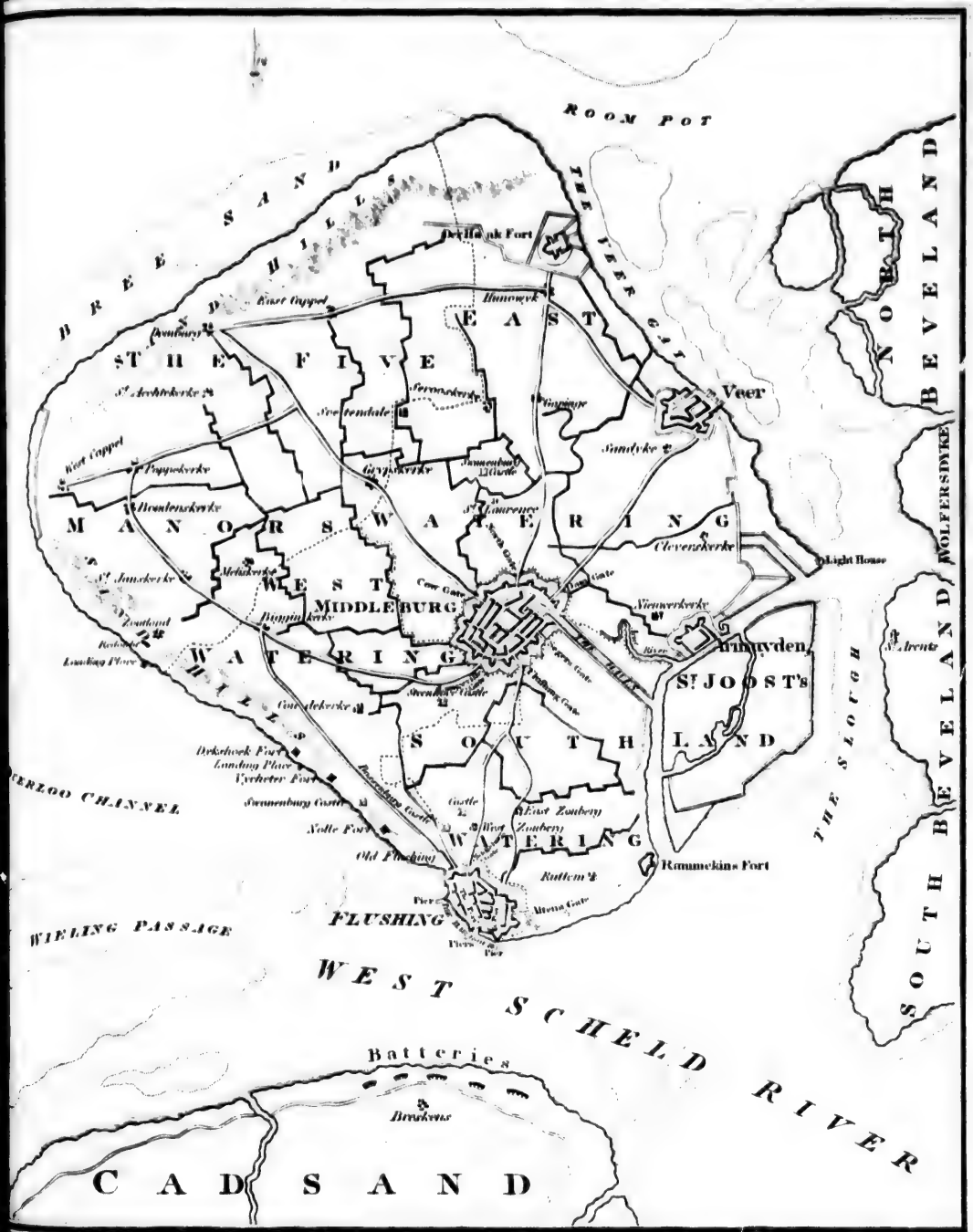

ANTWERP
Oosterweel
Wilmerdonck
Orderen
Melsen
SANTVLIET
FORT LILLO
Doel
Kieldrecht
SKETCH
OF THE
RIVER SCHELDT,
FROM
FLUSHING TO ANTWERP;
WITH THE
SOUNDINGS FORTIFICATIONS, &c
1810
Waerden
Ossenesse
HULST RIVER
Middle Bank
Capelle
Eversdyck
Oedekenskercke
Baerlandt
Oudelande
Ellewoutsdyck
Borselen
Hedenisse
CHANNEL OF GHENT
HERVLIET
ZEELAND
SOUTH BEVELAND


SKETCH
OF THE
RIVER SCHELDT,
FROM
FLUSHING TO ANTWERP;
WITH THE
SOUNDINGS FORTIFICATIONS, &c
1810
Kieldrecht
Waerden
Ossenesse
Schorr
Capelle
Eversdyck
Oedekenskercke
Baerlandt
Oudelande
Ellewoutsdyck
Borselen
Armuyden
MIDDLEBURG
FLUSHING
WALCHEREN
CADSAND I.
Breskens
Hoogplaat
BIERVLIET
CHANNEL of GHENT
HUIST RIVER
Middle Bank
Note The Soundings are in Feet taken at Low water according to the French Chart by B. Bauguer.
London, Published as the Act directs March 24 1810. by J. Swinbert, N.os Holborn Hill.

MAP OF THE ISLAND OF WALCHEREN WITH THE FORTIFICATIONS &c.



London Published by J. Bradford N°117, Holborn Hill Dec.r 1.1810

joins the Scheldt, above Niel, after receiving from the E. the Dermer, the Nette, or Nethe, from the N. and the Senne from the S.

Mountains, &c.] Though there be little ridges of hills in the counties of Namur and Luxembourg, the traveller must proceed to the distant banks of the Rhine before he meets with any elevation that can deserve the name even of a small mountain. There are, however, several woods even in the centre of Flanders; and in Brabent is the forest of Soignc. Further to the E. and S. are immense forests, which almost pervade Hainault and Luxembourg, from Valenciennes to Treves, forming striking remains of the ancient forest of Ardennes.

Mineralogy.] Coal is found in several districts, and the ingenuity of the French has been exerted in an improvement of the operations. In the county of Namur are also found lead and copper; and Hainault affords iron and slate. From its iron works Luxembourg derives its chief wealth; and the forest of Ardennes is still renowned for the metal of war. Marble and alabaster are also found in the eastern districts.

RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

Extent.] The Russian empire is, perhaps, the most extensive that ever existed; the length being about nine thousand two hundred English miles, and the breadth two thousand four hundred.

Boundaries.] By the final partition of Poland, European Russia extends from the river Dniester to the Uralian mountains, that grand chain which naturally divides Europe from Asia, a length of about one thousand six hundred miles; and in breadth above one thousand English miles. The extent is computed at about one million two hundred thousand square miles.

Provinces.] The principal sub-divisions of European Russia are into military governments; which, though they are often changing, and are seldom mentioned by any except native geographers, it has not been thought right entirely to omit. To the north is the extensive government of Archangel, stretching from the borders of Sweden to the confines of Asia. South of this along the Asiatic frontier are the governments of Vologda, Perm, Viatka Kazan, Simbirsk, Saratow, and the territory of the Don Kòzàcks, each succeeding the other in a regular progress to the sea of Azof. The government of Ecaterinoslav, with the kingdom of Taurida, is the southernmost province, and contains Little Tartary, with the recent conquests from the Turks. On the west extend the acquisitions by the division of Poland. The governments of Riga, Revel, Petersburgh, and Viborg, are situated along the Gulfs of Riga and Finland; and the government of Olonetz on the Swedish frontier completes the circuit. The midland provinces are the following: Novogorod, Tver, Kostroma, and Yaroslav, for the most part to the north and east of the Volga; Polotsk, Pskov, Smolensk, Mosqua, Vladimir, Nizney Novgorod, Moghilev, Calouga, Toula, Riazan, Tambov, Penza, Simbirsk, Orel, Sieverskov, Tchernigov, Koursk, Kiev, Charkov, Voronetz, principally to the west of the Volga.

Antiquities.] Of ancient monuments, Russia cannot be supposed to afford great variety. Sometimes the tombs of their Pagan ancestors are discovered, containing weapons and ornaments. The catacombs at Kiow were perhaps formed in the Pagan period, though they be now replete with marks of Christianity. They are labyrinths of considerable extent, dug as would appear, through a mass of hardened clay, but they do not seem to contain the bodies of the monarchs.

Religion.] The religion of Russia is that of the Greek church, of which, since the fall of the Byzantine empire, this state may be considered as the chief source and power. The patriarch of the Russian church had usurped extraordinary powers, to the great injury of the Imperial prerogative; but the spirit of Peter I. broke these ignominious bonds, and the Patriarchs have since become complaisant instruments of the court. The clergy are very numerous, and have several privileges, particularly exemption from taxes. They have been computed at sixty-seven thousand, secular and regular. The Greek religion permits the marriage of the secular clergy. The cathedrals and parish churches in the empire are computed at eighteen thousand three hundred and fifty; the monasteries at four hundred and eighty; nunneries seventy-four; monks supposed to be seven thousand three hundred; nuns three thousand. The monasteries have not been such favourite

resorts since Peter I. and Catherine II. opened the sources of industry. The bishoprics amount to about thirty.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Russia appears to have been always despotic, there being no legislative power distinct from that of the sovereign. What is called the senate is only the supreme court of judicature. The whole frame of the government may be pronounced to be military; and nobility itself is only virtually estimated by rank in the army.

LAWS.] Immediately on the fall of the Roman empire, we find the Gothic tribes sedulously collecting and publishing their peculiar codes of laws, but it would be difficult to discover any Sclavonic code till the sixteenth century, when they emanated, not from the national council, but from the arbitrary will of the monarch. The first Russian code dates from the reign of Ivan IV. and the late empress had the merit of drawing up a new code with her own hands.

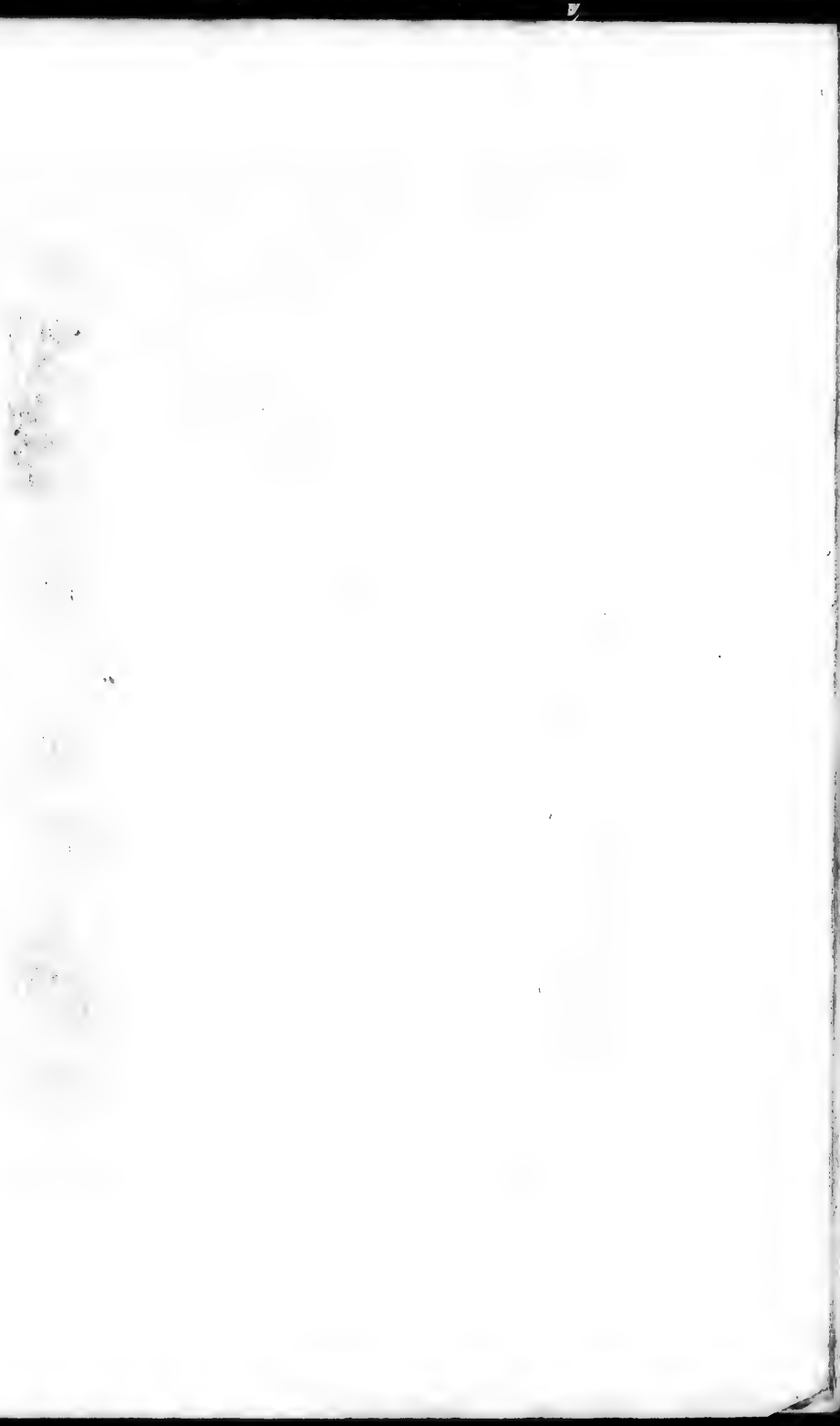
POPULATION.] The population of Russia is so diffuse, and spread over so wide an extent of territory, that very opposite opinions have been entertained concerning it. By most writers it was only estimated at about twenty-five millions; and it was at the same time supposed that the recent acquisitions in Poland might add five millions to the amount: but in 1783, more exact estimates were prepared; and, by the most moderate estimate, the population of the Russian empire at present appears to be thirty-six millions, one hundred and fifty-two thousand.

Of this population Mr. Tooke assigns only about three millions and a half to Siberia, or Asiatic Russia, which contains the five governments of Perm, Vfa, Kolhyvan, Tobolsk, and Irkutsk; but Perm is itself situated on the European side of the Uralian mountains, so that we might, perhaps, allow even thirty-three millions for the population of European Russia.

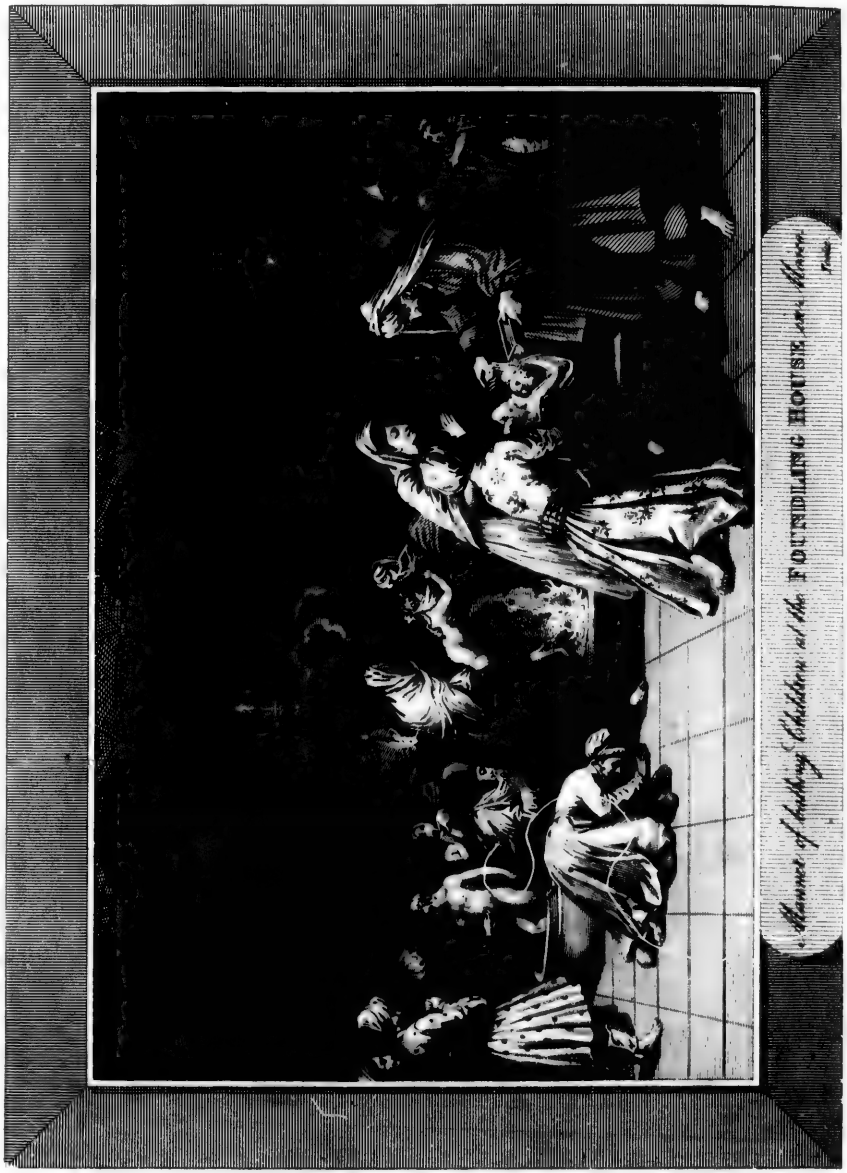
NAVY.] The Russian navy consists of several detached fleets, employed in the remote seas on which the empire borders at different extremities. The chief fleet is of course that of the Baltic, which consists of about thirty-six ships of the line. That in the Euxine, or Black Sea, at the harbours of Sevastapol and Kherson, was computed at twelve ships of the line, but not of a high rate, as the Euxine affords no great depth of water; but there are many frigates, gallies, chebecks, and gun-boats. The fleet of gallies in the Baltic is estimated at one hundred and ten.

REVENUES.] The revenues of Russia are supposed to amount to about fifty millions of rubles; which, valuing the ruble at four shillings, will be equal to ten millions of pounds sterling. The national debt is supposed to amount to little or nothing.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] As the Russian empire comprises so many distinct races of men, the manners of course must be various. The Russian is extremely patient of hunger and thirst; and his cure for all diseases is the warm bath, or rather vapour bath, in which the heat is above one hundred degrees, of Fahrenheit's thermometer. Dr. Guthrie has shewn that the Russians retain many manners and customs derived from their Pagan ancestors, and has given some curious specimens of their songs and music, which seem to be very pleasing. He has also compared their dances with those of the Greeks; and finds in one of them a considerable resemblance of the wanton Ionic, while another resembles the Pyrrhic. He observes that the country girls dress in the *scraphan*, resembling the ancient *stola*, and bind up their hair with the *lenta*, a ribbon like the ancient *vitta*. They tinge their cheeks with the juice of the *echium Italicum*. When a marriage is proposed, the lover, accompanied by a friend, goes to the house of the bride, and says to her mother, "shew us your merchandize, we have got money," an expression which is thought to refer to the ancient custom of buying a wife. The Russians show great attention to their nurses, and are so hospitable that they offer to every stranger the *Khleb da sol*, or bread and salt, the symbol of food, lodging, and protection. At a repast some salt fish, or ham, and a glass of brandy, are presented in the first place; and, after dinner cakes made with honey are usually served; the common drink is kvass, an acid, thin, malt liquor. the houses are ornamented with stoves, and among the rich, by flues conducted into every room which is at the same time guarded with double windows. In several instances the Russians form a curious junction of European, and Asiatic manners; many of their ceremonies partake of Asiatic splendour: the great are fond of dwarfs; and some opulent ladies maintain female tellers of tales, whose occupation is to lull their mistress asle



The Ancient WINTER PALACE at St. Petersburgh.


Manner of holding Children at the FOUNDLING HOUSE at Moscow

sleep, by stories resembling those of the Arabian Nights.

Language.] The Russian language is extremely difficult to pronounce, and not less difficult to acquire, as it abounds with extraordinary sounds, and anomalies of every kind. The characters amount to no less than thirty-six; and the common sounds are sometimes expressed in the Greek characters, sometimes in characters quite unlike those of any other language. Among other singularities there is one letter to express the *sch*, *sch*, the latter a sound hardly pronounceable by any human mouth.

Universities.] The university of Petersburg, founded by the late Empress Catharine II. is a noble instance of magnificence, and it is hoped will escape the fate of the colleges founded at Moscow, by Peter the Great, which do not seem to have met with the deserved success.

Cities and Towns.] In considering the chief cities and towns of Russia, Moscow, the ancient capital, attracts the first attention. This city is of very considerable extent in population, though injured by a pestilence in 1771. Prior to this mortality the houses in Moscow were computed at twelve thousand, five hundred and thirty-eight, and the population at not less than two hundred thousand. Moscow is built in the Asiatic manner, in which cities cover a vast space of ground. Petersburg, the imperial residence, is said to contain one hundred and seventy thousand inhabitants; and is the well known, but surprising erection of the last century. It stands in a marshy situation on the river Neva, the houses being chiefly of wood, though there be some of brick, ornamented with white stucco. The stone buildings are few; and Petersburgh is more distinguished by its fame, than by its appearance or opulence. The noblest public works are the quays, built of perpetual granite.

Inland Navigation.] Among other laudable improvements, Peter the Great formed the design of establishing an intercourse by water between Petersburg and Persia, by the Caspian Sea, the Volga, the Mesta, and the lake of Novgorod, &c. but this scheme failed by the ignorance of the engineers. During the long reign of the late empress many canals were accomplished, or at least received such improvements that the chief honour must be ascribed to her administration. The celebrated canal of Vishnei Voloshok was in some shape completed by Peter, so as to form a communication between Astracan and Petersburg, the course being chiefly afforded by rivers, and it was only necessary to unite the Twertza running towards the Caspian, with the Shlina, which communicates with the Baltic. The navigation is performed according to the season of the year, in from a fortnight to a month, and it is supposed that near four thousand vessels pass annually.

The canal of Ladoga, so called not because it enters that lake, but as winding along its margin, extends from the river Volkof to the Neva, a space of sixty-seven miles and a half, and communicates with the former canal. By these two important canals constant intercourse is maintained between the northern and southern extremities of the empire. Another canal leads from Moscow to the river Don, forming a communication with the Euxine; and the canal of Cronstadt forms a fourth.

Manufactures and Commerce.] By these means the inland trade of Russia has obtained considerable prosperity; and the value of her exports and imports have been long upon the increase. Several manufactures are conducted with considerable spirit. That of isinglass, which is a preparation of the sounds, or air bladder of the sturgeon, flourishes on the Volga, the chief seat also of that of kaviar, consisting of the salted roes of large fish. The manufactories of oil and soap are also considerable; and Petersburg exports great quantities of candles, besides tallow, which abounds in an empire so well replenished with pasturage; nor must the breweries and distilleries be forgotten. Salt-petre is an imperial traffic, and some sugar is refined at Petersburg. There are several manufactures of paper, and of tobacco, which grows abundantly in the southern provinces. Linen is manufactured in abundance; the best comes from the government of Archangel. Cotton is little wrought, but the silk manufactories are numerous: coarse cloths, carpets, and hats, are also made in Russia, and leather has long been a staple commodity.

Russia produces vast quantities of flax, which is, however, generally exported unbleached; nor are there wanting fabrics of earthen ware and porcelain. Iron founderies abound; and in the northern government of Olonetz is a grand foundery of cannon.

The commerce of Russia was known in the middle ages by the connection between the Hanse towns, in the north of Germany and Novgorod, established about 1276. So wide is now this empire, that it maintains a commerce of the most remote descriptions, on the Baltic and the White Sea, the Euxine, and the Caspian, with Persia, and with China. Russia is supposed to export by the Baltic grain annually to the value of one hundred and seventy thousand pounds, and hemp and flax, raw and manufactured, to the amount of a million and a half sterling.

The commerce of the Euxine or Black Sea, is of inferior moment, its chief exports being furs, salt beef, butter, cordage, sail cloth, kaviar, corn, with iron, linen, and some cotton stuffs. Imports, wine, fruit, coffee, silks, rice, and several Turkish commodities.

The Russian harbours in this sea are Astracan, the chief seat of the Caspian commerce, Gurief, and Kisliar. From Astracan are exported many European manufactures; and the chief imports are raw silk, rice, dried fruits, spices, saffron, sulphur, and naptha. The Hindoo merchants occasionally bring gold, and precious stones. The annual trade is computed at one million of rubles, or two hundred thousand pounds. That of the Euxine is not above one third of this value.

Russia likewise maintains some commerce by land with Prussia. That with Persia is of little moment: the chief imports are silk. There is a considerable trade by land with the Kirguses, who send horses, cattle, and sheep, in return for woollen-cloths, iron, and European articles. That with China, is nearly on a par; each country transmitting to the amount of about two millions of rubles, (four hundred thousand pounds.) Russia exchanges her precious Siberian furs for tea, silk, and porcelain.

The internal commerce of Russia is very considerable; and Siberia is said to afford in gold, silver, iron, copper, salt, gems, &c. to the amount of twelve millions of rubles, (two millions, four hundred thousand pounds,) that between the southern and northern provinces is also of great extent and value. The coin current in the empire is supposed to amount to about thirty millions stirling, the paper money to about twenty millions of pounds. The Siberian gold and silver supply an important addition to the national currency.

Climate and Seasons.] The climate of Russia in Europe, presents almost every variety from the latitude of Lapland, to that of Italy. But winter maintains the chief sway at Petersburg, the capital, and the Neva is annually frozen from November to March or April. The climate around the Frozen Ocean, and the last European isle upon the N. that of Novaya Zemlia, or the New Land, is of noted severity, the northern side being encompassed with mountains of ice, and the sun not visible from the middle of October till February; while it never sets during June and July. Taurida presents, on the contrary, all the luxuriance of the southern year, while the middle regions are blessed with the mild seasons of Germany and England.

Face of the Country.] In so wide an empire, the face of the country must also be extremely various; but the chief feature of European Russia consists in plains of a prodigious extent, rivalling in that respect the vast deserts of Asia and Africa. In the south are some extensive *steppes*, or dry and elevated plains, such as that above the sea of Azof, in length about four hundred English miles. The numerous and majestic rivers also constitute a distinguishing feature of this empire.

Soil and Agriculture.] The soil is of course also extremely diverse, from the chilling marshes which border the White and Frozen Seas, to the rich and fertile plains on the Volga. The most fertile is that between the Don and the Volga, from Voronetz to Simbirsk, consisting of a black mould, strongly impregnated with salt-petre; that is, a soil formed from successive layers of vegetable remains. In Livonia and Esthonia, the medial returns of harvest are eight or ten fold; and the latter is generally the produce of the rich plains near the Don, where the fields are never manured, but on the contrary are apt to swell the corn into too much luxuriance. Pasturage is so abundant that the meadows are little regarded, and the artificial production of grasses is scarcely known. Some of the meadows are watered, and produce large crops of hay, the dry pastures yield a short but nutricious produce, and in a few of the *steppes* the grass will attain the height of a man, and is seldom mown. Agriculture is hardly known in the northern parts of the government of Olonetz, and Archangel; but in the central parts of the empire has been pursued from time immemorial.

Rivers.

Rivers.] The majestic Volga forms, through a long space, the boundary between Asia and Europe, belonging properly to the latter continent, in which it arises, and from which it derives its supplies, till at Tzaritzin, about two hundred and fifty miles from its mouth, it turns S. E. into Asia. This sovereign of European rivers derives its sources from several lakes in the mountains of Valday, and government of Tver, between Petersburg and Moscow; and bends its chief course to the S. E.; near its junction with the Kama, an important river, fed by many streams from the Uralian chain, it turns towards the S. W. till it arrives at Tzaritzin. Its comparative course may be computed at one thousand seven hundred miles. This noble river, having no cataracts, and few shoals, is navigable even to Tver. The tributary rivers of the Volga are chiefly from the east, the Kama, which rivals the Volga at their junction, rising in the government of Viatka, and running N. W. afterwards due E. and then S. On the west the chief stream which runs into the Volga is the Oka, which rises in the government of Orel. Next to the Volga, on the west, is the Don, or Tanais, which rises from a lake in the government of Tulan, and falls into the sea of Azof, after a course of about eight hundred miles. The Neiper rises in the government of Smolensk, about one hundred and fifty miles to the south of the source of the Volga, and about one hundred to the S. E. of that of the Duna, or Duina, which flows into the Baltic, by Riga: and after a course of about one thousand miles through rich and fertile provinces, falls into the Euxine. The Bog, or Hypanis, a far inferior stream, falls into the Liman, or estuary of the Neiper. The Niester, derives its source from the north side of the Carpathian mountains, and falls into the Euxine at Akerman, after a course of about six hundred miles.

Lakes.] The chief lakes of European Russia are situated in the N. W. division of the empire. There is a considerable lake in Russian Lapland, that of Imandra; to the south of which the government of Olonetz presents many extensive pieces of water, particularly the large lake of Onega, which is about one hundred and fifty miles in length, by a medial breadth of about thirty. The islands and shores of the Onega are chiefly calcareous, and contain some valuable marbles. To the west is the Ladoga, about one hundred and thirty miles in length, by seventy in breadth, being one of the largest lakes in Europe. As it has many shoals, and is liable to sudden and violent tempests, Peter the Great opened a canal along its shore, from the Volk to the Neva. The fishery of this lake seems of little consequence; but the northern shores produce the beautiful Finnish marble, which is much used at Petersburg. On the S. W. we find the lake of Peypus, about sixty miles in length by thirty in breadth: the northern part of this lake is styled that of Ishud, the south that of Pzcove. From the Peypus, issues the river Narova, or Narva. To the east is the lake Ilmen, on which stands the ancient city of Novgorod. The Beilo, or White lake, is so called from its bottom of white clay.

Mountains.] It has already been mentioned that European Russia is rather a plain country, though some parts of it be greatly elevated, such as that which sends forth the three rivers of Duna, Volga, and Nieper. This region which is passed in travelling from Petersburg to Moscow, is by some called the mountains of Valday, from the town and lake of Valday, situated on the ridge; but by the natives it is styled *Vhisokay Plostchade* or elevated ground. In this quarter the ground is strewn with masses of granite, but the hills are chiefly marl, sand, and clay; and what are called the mountains of Valday seem to be a high table land, surmounted with large sand hills, and interspersed with masses of red and grey granite: near Valday is the highest part of the ridge, which seems to be in a N. E. and S. W. direction. Mr. Tooke computes the highest point of the Valday at only two hundred fathoms above the level of Petersburg, about one thousand two hundred feet above the sea: the height is inconsiderable, and gives a striking impression of the gentle and plain level, through which such extensive rivers must pursue their course. The woods on the Valday are chiefly pine, fir, birch, linden, aspen, and alder; the soil in the vale is fertile, mostly clay and marl.

The most important chains of mountains in European Russia are those of Olonetz in the furthest N. and those of Ural, which separate Europe from Asia. The chain of Olonetz runs in a direction almost due N. for the space of fifteen degrees, or nine hundred geographical miles. In the centre, between the mountains of Olonetz

and those of Ural, there seems to be a considerable chain extending from the E. of Mezen to the Canin Nos, a bold promontory which rushes into the Frozen Ocean. The immense Uralian chain extends from about the fiftieth to near the sixty-seventh degree of N. latitude, or about one thousand geographical miles in length, and has by the Russians been called *Semenoi Poias*, or the girdle of the world, an extravagant appellation, when we consider that the chain of the Andes extends near five thousand miles. Pauda, one of the highest mountains of the Uralian chain, is reported by Gmelin to be about four thousand five hundred and twelve feet above the level of the sea.

Forests.] European Russia is so abundant in forests that it would be vain to attempt to enumerate them. There are prodigious forests between Petersburg and Moscow, and others between Vladimir and Arzomas. Further to the S. there seems to have been a forest of still greater extent.

Mineralogy.] The chief mines belonging to Russia are in the Asiatic part of the empire, but a few are situated in the European, in the mountains of Olonetz; and there was formerly a gold mine in that region, near the river Vyg. About 1730 the rich mines began to be discovered in the Asiatic part of the empire. In 1739 gold was first observed in the chain of Olonetz, as already mentioned; and the mines of Voytzer near the Vyg were opened, but with little success.

Mineral Waters.] The most celebrated is near Sarepta, on the Volga, discovered in 1775. The springs are here numerous and copious, and strongly impregnated with iron. In the district of Perekop, and on the isle of Taman, belonging to the government of Taurida, there are springs of Naptha.

RUSSIAN ISLES.

The small isle of Cronstadt, in the gulph of Finland, is only remarkable for an excellent haven, strongly fortified, the chief station of the Russian fleet. In the Baltic, Russia also possesses the island of Oesel and Dago, which are of a considerable size, but full of rocks, the marble of the first island, is however beautiful. Both isles are chiefly peopled by Esthonians.

There are several isles near the shore of Russian Lapland, and in the White Sea, but generally barren and uninhabited rocks. Novaya Zemlia, or the New Land, is also uninhabited, and is said to consist of five isles, but the channels between them are always filled with ice. Seals, walruses, arctic foxes, white bears, and a few rein deer, are occasionally hunted by the people of Mezen. To the south of Novaya Zemlia is the sea of Cara (Karskoe) in which the tide flows about two feet nine inches.

The remote and dreary islands of Spitzbergen have been taken possession of by the Russians. The main land of Spitzbergen extends about three hundred miles from the south Cape, lat. seventy-six degrees, thirty minutes, to Verlegan Hook, lat. eighty degrees, seven minutes. In an adjacent small isle are said to be basaltic columns, from eighteen to twenty inches in diameter, and mostly hexagonal. The mountains are of granite and grit; the highest not exceeding four thousand feet; for mountains in general decline in height towards the poles. About the first of November the sun sets, and appears no more till the beginning of February; and after the beginning of May it never sets till August. The only shrubby plant is the Lapland willow, which rises to the height of two inches. Here are found polar bears, foxes, and rein deer, with walruses and seals. There are a few kind of water fowl; but the whale is the lord of these shallow seas. The Russians from Archangel maintain a kind of colony.

AUSTRIAN DOMINIONS.

The dominions subject to the house of Austria embraced, till its late wars with France, many ancient kingdoms and states, which, for the sake of perspicuity, are here brought under one point of view; it having been urged as a reproach to modern geography, that by the obstinate retention of antiquated divisions, and the confused minuteness of separate descriptions, it has not made an uniform progress with modern history and politics, which it ought to illustrate. Hence to use the present instance, many are led to imagine that the power of the house of Austria is chiefly founded on its bearing the imperial title, whereas, if reduced to the regal style of Hungary, its hereditary domains entitle it to

rank among the chief European powers, boasting a population of not less than twenty millions; but by the recent conquests of France, it has been greatly circumscribed.

RELIGION.] The preponderant religion of the Austrian dominions is the Roman Catholic, but attended with a considerable degree of toleration. Protestants of various sects are found in Bohemia and Moravia; nor are Lutherans unknown at Vienna, though they chiefly abound in Transylvania: nay, in Hungary it is believed that the Protestants are equal in number to the Catholics. Vienna did not become a metropolitan see till the year 1722: the archbishop is a prince of the holy Roman Empire.

GOVERNMENT.] The form of government is an hereditary monarchy, and approaching to absolute power. For though Hungary retain its ancient states, or rather an aristocratical senate, yet the dominions being so various and extensive, and the military force wholly in the hands of the sovereign, no distinct kingdom or state can withstand his will. Even Austria has its states, consisting of four orders, clergy, peers, knights, burgesses; the assembly of Lower Austria being held at Vienna, and that of the Upper at Linz. But those local constitutions can little avail against the will of a powerful monarch, supported by a numerous army.

LAWS.] The laws vary according to the different provinces, almost every state having its peculiar code. The Hungarians in particular have vigorously defended their laws, though in many instances, illaudable, the peasantry being in a state of villanage till 1785. In 1786 Joseph II. after suppressing villanage in Bohemia and Moravia, extended the like freedom to Hungary; and this decree remains uncancelled, though many of the laws of that well-meaning but injudicious monarch expired with their author. Yet the boasted freedom of Hungary is rather that of a powerful aristocracy, than of the people at large. In general the laws may be regarded as mild and salutary; and the Austrians in particular are a well-regulated and contented people, while the Hungarians are often dissatisfied, and retain much of their ancient animosity against the Germans.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] Various are the manners and customs of the numerous kingdoms and provinces subject to the house of Austria. Vienna, the capital, presents as it were an assemblage of nations, in their various dresses. In Austria Proper, the people are much at their ease: and the farmers, and even peasantry, little inferior to those of England. Travellers have remarked the abundance of provisions at Vienna, and the consequent daily luxury of food, accompanied with great variety of wines. The Austrian manners are cold, but civil; the women elegant, but devoid of mental accomplishments. The youth of rank are commonly ignorant, and of course haughty, being entire strangers to the cultivation of mind, and condescension of manners, to be found among the superior ranks of some other countries, a circumstance more striking to the English traveller in particular from the violence of the contrast. An Austrian nobleman or gentleman is never seen to read, and hence polite literature is almost unknown and uncultivated. In consequence of this ignorance, the language remains unpolished; and the Austrian speech is one of the meanest dialects of the German, so that polite people are constrained to use French. The lower orders, are, however, little addicted to crimes or vices, and punishments rare: robberies are seldom committed, and murder little known. When capital punishment becomes unavoidable, it is administered with great solemnity, and accompanied with public prayers, an example worthy of universal imitation.

The next people in estimation, and the first in numbers, are the Hungarians. Their manners are now considerably tinctured by those of the ruling Germans, but they remain a spirited people, and affect to despise their masters. Their dress is well known to be peculiar, and is copied by our hussars *. This dress, consisting of a tight vest, mantle, and furred cap, is graceful; and the whiskers add a military ferocity to the appearance. The Morlacs, and other inland tribes of Dalmatia, are honest and sincere barbarians; and the dress of the Vaivods somewhat resembles the Hungarian. Dalmatia being divided between the Greek and Catholic religions, they have grafted many superstitions upon both.

LANGUAGE.] The languages spoken in these aggregated dominions are numerous and discrepant.

* In the Hungarian, *Huszar* implies the twentieth, because twenty peasants are obliged to furnish one horseman to the cavalry. Busch. iii. 56.

They

They belong chiefly to the three grand divisions, Gothic or German of the ruling nation, the Slavonic of the Poles, part of the Hungarians, the Dalmatians, &c. and also the ancient speech used in Bohemia and Moravia: and lastly the Hungarian Proper, which has been considered as a branch of the Finnic.

UNIVERSITIES.] The universities, like those in other Catholic countries, little promote the progress of solid knowledge. The sciences taught with the greatest care are precisely those which are of the smallest utility. The University of Vienna has, since the year 1752, been somewhat improved. It was founded in 1237, and that of Prague in 1347; that of Inspruck only dates from 1677, and that of Gratz from 1585. Hungary chiefly boasts of Buda, though the Jesuits instituted academies at Raab and Caschau. A late traveller informs us that the university of Buda, by the Germans called Offen, possess an income of about twenty thousand pounds sterling, only four thousand of which are applied to pay the salaries of the professors. "Besides the usual chairs which exist in every university, there are those of Natural History, Botany, and Economy. The collection of instruments for Natural Philosophy, and the models of machines, are good; and the museum of Natural History, which contains the collection of the late professor Piller, besides that of the university, may be ranked among the fine collections of Europe." There is a Calvinist college or university at Debretzin: and the bishop of Erlau has recently established a splendid university at that city.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Manufactures do not seem to be cultivated to a great extent in any part of the Austrian dominions. Vienna perhaps equals any other of the cities in manufactures, which are chiefly of silk, gold and silver lace, cloths, stuffs, stockings, linen, mirrors, porcelain; with silver plate, and several articles in brass. Bohemia is celebrated for beautiful glass and paper. But the commerce of the Austrian dominions chiefly depends upon their native opulence; Austria Proper and the southern provinces producing abundance of horses and cattle, corn, flax, saffron, and various wines, with several metals, particularly quicksilver from the mines of Idria. Bohemia and Moravia are also rich in oxen and sheep, corn, flax, and hemp; in which they are rivalled by the dismembered provinces of Poland. The wide and marshy plains of Hungary often present excellent pasturage for numerous herds of cattle; and the more favoured parts of that country produce corn, rice, the rich wines of Tokay, and tobacco of an excellent flavour, with great and celebrated mines of various metals and minerals. The Austrian territories in general are so abundant in the various necessaries and luxuries of life, to be found either in the north or south of Europe, that the imports seem to be few and inconsiderable.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.] The climate of Austria Proper is commonly mild and salubrious, though sometimes exposed to violent winds, and the southern provinces in general enjoy delightful temperature, if the mountainous parts be excepted. The more northern regions of Bohemia and Moravia, with the late acquisitions in Poland, can likewise boast the maturity of the grape, and of gentle and favourable weather. The numerous lakes, and morasses of Hungary, and the prodigious plains, are supposed to render the air damp and unwholesome, the cold of the night rivalling the heat of the day; but the blasts from the Carpathian mountains seems in some measure to remedy these evils, the inhabitants being rather remarkable for health and vigour.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The appearance of the various regions subject to Austria is rather mountainous than level, presenting a striking contrast in this respect to Russia and Prussia. Bohemia and Moravia are almost encircled by various mountains, which on the east join the vast Carpathian chain that winds along the north and east of Hungary and Transylvania, divided from each other by another elevated ridge: the dismembered provinces of Poland, though in the south they partake of the Carpathian heights, yet afford the widest plains to be found within the limits of the Austrian power.

This ample extent of country is also diversified by many noble rivers, particularly the majestic Danube, and its tributary stream the Tiefs, which flows through the centre of Hungary; and scarcely is there a district which is not duly irrigated. The general face of the Austrian dominions may therefore be pronounced to be highly variegated and interesting; and the vegetable products of both the north and south of Europe unite to please the eye of the traveller.

Soil and Agriculture.] The soil is upon the whole extremely fertile and productive, in spite of the neglect of industry, which has permitted many parts of Hungary, and of the Polish provinces to pass into wide forests and marshes. Were skill and labour to assume the axe and spade, those very parts might display the greatest exuberance of fertility. The state of agriculture in Moravia is superior to the rest, being improved by Flemish farmers.

Lakes.] The lakes in the Austrian dominions are numerous, and some of them of considerable size. Bohemia presents a few small pieces of water towards its southern boundary: but on entering Austria Proper, the lake of Traun, the Ebernsee, and others, are of greater extent. Carinthia contains a large central lake not far from Clagenfurt; and Carniola another, the Cirknitz See.

Mountains.] Upper Austria, or the western part of this province, contains many considerable mountains, the highest of which is in the maps called Priel, but the proper name is Gressenberg. Towards the N. Austria is divided from Bohemia by a ridge of considerable elevation which passes to the N. E. of Bavaria. On the N. W. Bohemia is parted from Saxony by a chain of metallic mountains, called the Ertzeberg, a word that implies hills containing mines. On the W. of the river Eger, near its junction with the Elbe, stands the mountainous groupe of Milessou, supposed to be the highest in the province. On the N. E. the Sudetic chain which branches from the Carpathian, divides Bohemia and Moravia from Silesia and the Prussian dominions.

The Carpathian mountains, that grand and extensive chain which bounds Hungary on the N. and E. have been celebrated from all antiquity. By the Germans they are stiled the mountains of Krapak, probably the original name, which was softened by the Roman enunciation: the Hungarians, a modern people, call them Tatra. This enormous ridge extends in a semicircular form from the mountain of Javornik S. of Silesia towards the N. W. But at the mountain of Trojaska, the most northern summit, it bends to the S. E. to the confines of the Buckovina, where it sends forth two branches, one to the E. another to the W. of Transylvania, which is also divided from Walachia by a branch running S. W. and N. E. The whole circuit may be about five hundred miles. The highest summits of these mountains, according to Dr. Townson, do not exceed eight or nine thousand feet, and they are for the most part composed of granite and primitive limestone.

Forests.] To enumerate the forests in the Austrian dominions would be a task at once laborious and fruitless. Suffice it to observe, that numerous and extensive forests arise in every direction, particularly along the Carpathian mountains, and in the provinces acquired from Poland. Even Bohemia was formerly remarkable for a forest of great extent, a remain of the Hercynia Sylva of antiquity, which extended from the Rhine to Sarmatia, from Cologne to Poland. The Gabreta Sylva was on the S. W. of the same country, where a chain of hills now divides it from Bavaria.

Zoology.] The domestic animals in the Austrian dominions are commonly excellent, particularly the cattle. Many of the native horses run wild, and are sold in great numbers at the fairs, before they have suffered any subjection. The breed of cattle is mostly of a singular colour, a slaty blue; and the Hungarian sheep resemble the Walachian in their long erect spiral horns, and pendant hairy fleece. In the western parts of the Austrian sovereignty the animals do not seem to be distinguished from those of other parts of Germany. The large breed of wild cattle, called Urus or Bison, is said to be found in the Carpathian forests, as well as in those of Lithuania and Caucasus. Among the wild quadrupeds may also be named the bear, the boar, the wolf, the chamois, the marmot, and the beaver. The Danube boasts of some fishes seldom found in other rivers, among which is a small and delicate sort of salmon.

Mineralogy.] There is scarcely a province in the Austrian dominions which cannot boast of advantages in the mineral kingdom; and as it were by a destiny attached to the house of Austria, even the acquisitions in Poland contain one of the most remarkable mines in Europe, the saline excavations of Wielitska. The mines of Bohemia have been celebrated from ancient times. Silver is found at Kuttenberg, and at Joachinsthal, on the western frontier, towards Saxony, probably a continuation of the veins of that country, and gold has been discovered at Keonstock. One of the most singular products of this province is tin,

which is found at Zinwald (that is the tin forest), and other western districts of Bohemia: where is also found, at Dreyhacken, a mine of very pure copper. Lead occurs at Bleystadt, in the same quarter. The garnets of Bohemia are among the most beautiful of the kind. They are chiefly found in clay, mingled with mica, at Meronitz, in the mountain of Stiefelberg, whence they are carried to Bilen. The women wash the clay in which the garnets are found; after which they are sifted and arranged according to size; and sold by the pound weight from about three to ten shillings. Many workmen are occupied in cutting and piercing them, for necklaces, and other ornaments: they are polished in facets, with emery on a piece of freestone, and pierced with a small diamond. This branch of commerce is of great antiquity at Carsbad, and at Walkirk in Suabia, where twenty-eight mills are occupied in this article only. The iron of Stiria supplies the finest steel; there are considerable lead mines near Pegau, on the river Mohr, yielding about five thousand tons yearly. Stiria also affords coal at different places; not to mention minerals of mere beauty or curiosity, among which may be named the singular blue granite, which is found near Krieglach, in Stiria.

The quicksilver mines of Idria are celebrated in natural history, poetry, and romance. They were discovered in the year 1499; and the hill of Vogelberg has annually yielded more than three hundred thousand pounds weight of mercury. The common ore is cinnabar; but sometimes pure quicksilver runs through the crevices.

About forty miles to the S. of the Carpathian hills are the gold mines of Cremnitz: and twenty English miles further to the S. the silver mines of Schemnitz: cities which have arisen solely from these labours, and thence called mining towns. Schemnitz is esteemed the principal.

The salt mines acquired from Poland are situat Wielitska, eight miles to the S. of Cracow, being excavated at the northern extremity of a branch of the Carpathian mountains.

PRUSSIA.

This kingdom, which only commenced with the eighteenth century, by gradual accessions became so extensive, as deservedly to rank among the first powers of Europe. The dominions of Prussia were small and scattered, till the acquisition of Silesia, and afterwards of a third part of Poland, gave a wide and stable basis to the new monarchy. But this powerful monarchy was completely overturned by the French emperor Napoleon, in the year 1806, but its final destiny does not appear to be yet determined.

Religion.] The ruling religion of Prussia is the Protestant, under its two chief divisions of Lutheran and Calvinistic. But after the recent acquisitions in Poland, it would seem that the greater number of the inhabitants must be Roman Catholic. The universal toleration which has been wisely embraced by the Prussian monarchs, has had its usual effect of abating theological enmity, and the different sects seem to live in perfect concord. Of the present form of government, the state of the army, and its revenues, nothing can be said till its destination shall be determined by the emperor of the French.

Manners and Customs.] Travellers have remarked, that, in comparison with the Saxons, who are a lively and contented people, the Prussians appear dull and gloomy; a character which they impute partly to the military government, and partly to the general anxiety which must have been excited by the repeated dangers to which their country was exposed, when contending with the powers of Russia and Austria. As to the Poles, they seem full of life and action, but their features and general appearance are rather Asiatic than European. "Men of all ranks generally wear whiskers, and shave their heads, leaving only a circle of hair upon the crown. The dress of the higher orders, both men and women, is uncommonly elegant. That of the gentlemen is a waistcoat with sleeves, over which they wear an upper robe of a different colour, which reaches down below the knee, and is fastened round the waist with a sash or girdle; the sleeves of this upper garment are, in warm weather, tied behind the shoulders; a sabre is a necessary part of their dress, as a mark of nobility. In summer the robe, &c. is of silk, in winter of cloth, velvet, or stuff, edged with fur. They wear fur caps or bonnets, and buskins of yellow leather, the heels of which are plated with iron or steel. The dress of the ladies is a simple polonaise or long robe, edged with fur."

Language.] The ruling language of Prussia is the German, which it is probable may in time supplant the Polish, in those parts which are subject to Prussia and Austria.

Universities.]

UNIVERSITIES.] There are, however, several universities, such as that of Frankfort on the Oder, founded by Joachim, elector of Brandenburg, in the year 1516. Koningsberg in Prussia, was founded in 1544. Of the Polish Universities, Posna or Posen became subject to Prussia.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Among the chief cities of Prussia must first be mentioned Berlin, situated on the banks of the river Sprey, and regularly fortified. It was founded in the twelfth century, by a colony from the Netherlands, and contains one hundred and forty-two thousand inhabitants, being about four miles and a half long and three wide; but within this inclosure are many gardens, and sometimes even fields; the number of houses is six thousand nine hundred and fifty. The city is more remarkable for the elegance of the buildings than for its wealth or industry, many beautiful houses being let in stories to mechanics. Next to Berlin may be mentioned Konigsberg, of which the population is computed at about fifty-two thousand. This city was founded in the thirteenth century, and is well fortified. It maintains a considerable trade by the river Pregel, which flows into the gulph of Dantzick.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] If we except the linens of Silesia, the manufactures of the Prussian dominions are of small importance. Yet they afford, for home consumption, glass, iron, brass, paper, and woollen cloth; and Frederick II. introduced a small manufacture of silk.

If we except the ancient staple of grain, so abundant in the level plains of Poland, the commerce of Prussia is comparatively of but little consequence. Amber is by nature constituted a monopoly of the country, but fashion has rendered this branch of commerce insignificant. Yet among the considerable exports may be named excellent timber of all kinds, skins, leather, flax, and hemp; nor must the linens of Silesia be passed in silence, many of which are sent into Holland, and sold under the name of Dutch manufacture. In return, Prussia receives wine, and other products of more southern and favoured countries.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.] The climate of the Prussian dominions is, upon the whole, cold and moist. Prussia Proper, which, as Busching informs us, has about eight months of winter, the autumns being often deluged with rain. The northern part of Poland, which fell under the Prussian sceptre, abounds with forests and marshes, which cannot be supposed to render the air salubrious.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] In considering the general appearance of Prussia Proper, we must observe that it formerly abounded in woods, and displays superior fertility, a character which may be also extended to Prussian Poland.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.] The space between Berlin and Potsdam resembles a wilderness; but that of Prussian Poland is loamy and fertile. Agricultural improvements, however, are little known; but Prussia Proper displays every kind of grain and esculent plant that can flourish under such a latitude; yet the wine is of inferior quality.

RIVERS.] Among the chief rivers of the Prussian dominions may be first mentioned the Elbe, which rises in the S. of Bohemia, and pervades the duchy of Magdeburg. The Spree, which passes by Berlin, falls into the Havel, a tributary of the Elbe. The Oder, the Viadrus of the ancients, may be regarded as a river entirely Prussian: it rises in the mountains of Moravia, and, after watering Silesia, Brandenburg, and Pomerania, joins the Baltic, after a course of about three hundred and fifty miles. Next appears another noble stream, the Vistula, which, rising in the Carpathian mountains, passes Warsaw, and joins the sea near Dantzig, after a circuit of about four hundred and fifty miles. The Pregel, passing by Konigsberg, springs from some lakes and marshes in Prussian Poland; and the Memel, a superior river, now forms in part the Prussian boundary on the east.

LAKES.] The lakes in the Prussian dominions are numerous, especially in the eastern part, where among others may be mentioned the Spelding See, which, with its creeks, extends more than twenty British miles in every direction. That region contains many other lakes, which supply the sources of the river Pregel. At their estuaries the rivers Oder, Vistula, and Memel, present singular inland sheets of water, in the German language called *Haffs*; that of the Oder being styled Grass Haff; that of the Vistula, Frisch Haff (with another inland creek called the lake of Drausen); and that of the Memel, Curisch Haff. The Frisch Haff is about seventy miles in length, and from three to ten

ten miles broad, being separated from the Baltic by a long slip of land, said to have been thrown up by the tempests and waves about the year 1190. The lake, or bay, is of small depth, and will not admit vessels of much burthen.

The Curisch Haff, so called from its situation in the ancient duchy of Courland, is about sixty British miles in length, and about thirty in its greatest breadth. A similar ridge of land divides it from the Baltic; and it is full of dangerous shelves, and infested by frequent storms.

MINERALOGY.] A peculiar mineral production of Prussia is amber, which is chiefly found on the Samland shore of the Baltic, near Pillau, on a neck of land formed by the Frisch Haff, which seems to have been the chief seat of this mineral from the earliest ages. It is found at the depth of about one hundred feet, reposing on wood coal, in lumps of various sizes, some five pounds in weight, and is often washed on shore by tempests. It adds about five thousand pounds yearly to the royal revenue.

MINERAL WATERS.] Silesia presents one spring of hot water at Warmbrun, near Hirschberg, which is believed to be the only mineral water worth notice in the Prussian dominions.

SPAIN.

EXTENT.] Spain lies between the thirty-sixth and forty-fourth degrees of north latitude; its western extremity is about nine degrees in longitude W. from London, and its eastern extremity about three degrees. The greatest length from W. to E. is about six hundred miles; the breadth from N. to S. more than five hundred; thus forming almost a compact square (if we include Portugal in this general view of the country), and surrounded on all sides by the sea, except where the Pyrenean chain forms a grand natural barrier against France.

DIVISIONS.] The most recent subdivisions of Spain are into the following provinces:

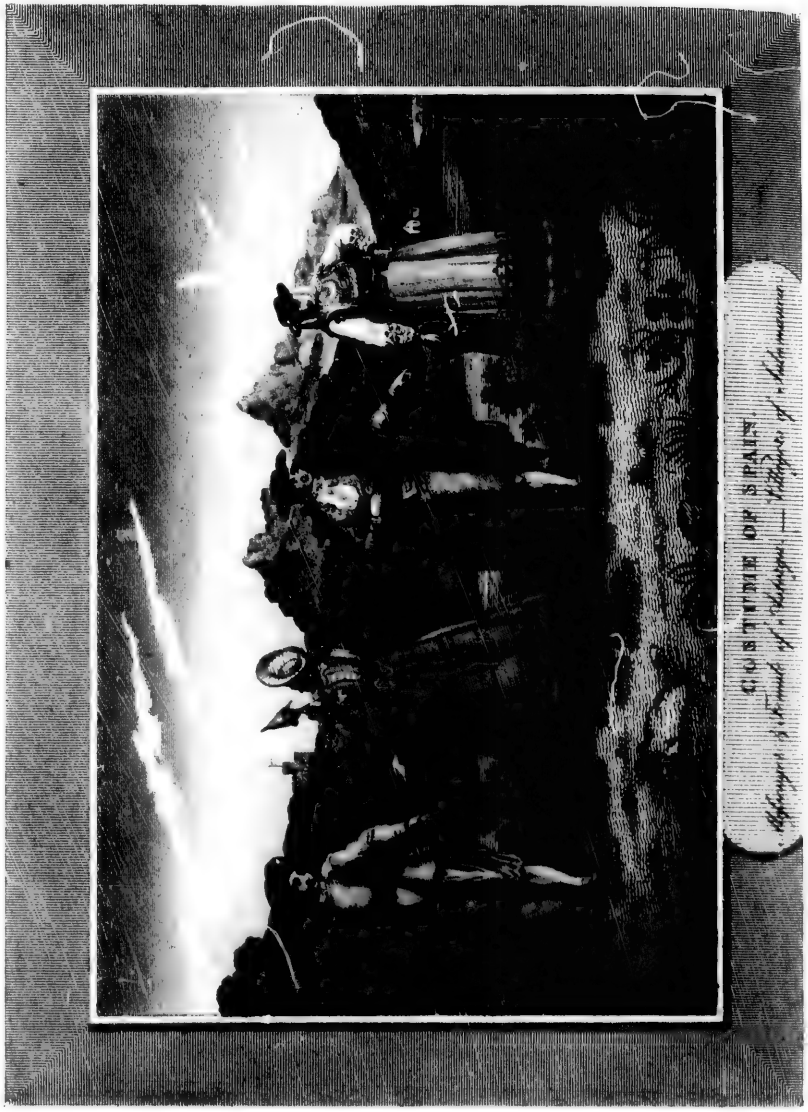
On the Bay of Biscay	1. Galicia. 2. Asturias, including Oviedo and Santillana. 3. Biscay, including Biscay, Guipuscoa and Alava.
On the French frontier	4. Navarre. 5. Arragon. 6. Catalonia.
On the Mediterranean coast	7. Valencia. 8. Murcia. 9. Granada.
On the entrance to the Straits of Gibraltar	10. Andalusia, including Seville, Cordova, and Jaen.
On the frontier of Portugal	11. Estremadura. 12. Leon, including Leon, Palencia, Zamora, and Salamanca.
Midland	13. Old Castille, including Burgos, Avila, and Segovia. 14. New Castille, including Toledo or Algarvia, Cuença or La Sierra, and La Mancha.

ANTIQUITIES.] Of the first epochs it can hardly be supposed that any remains should exist, except a few tumuli, and other rude monuments. Nor are there any certain relics of the Carthaginians in Spain, except coins, which have been found in considerable numbers.

The Roman antiquities are, on the contrary, so numerous, that to enter into details on the subject would be prolix, and foreign to the nature of this work. The aqueduct at Segovia is one of the noblest of the Roman edifices. Morviedo, the ancient Saguntum, presents many curious remains of antiquity. Tarragona, the ancient Tarraco, also contains several interesting monuments.

The Visigothic kings have left few relics, except their coins, which are struck in gold; a metal then unknown to the other European mints, and seemingly native. The churches, &c. of that period were probably destroyed by the Moorish conquest.

Numerous and splendid are the monuments of the Moors in Spain. The mosque at Cordova was begun by Abdurrahman, the first khalif. The second khalif of that name reared the walls of Seville. But these princes were far exceeded in magnificence by Abdurrahman III. who built a town three miles from Cordova, which he called Zehra, after the name of one of his female favourites; and ordered a palace to be constructed by the most skilful architects of Constantinople, then the chief abode of the arts and sciences (A. D. 950). In this palace were reckoned one thousand and fourteen columns of African and Spanish marbles: while Italy had supplied nineteen, and the Greek emperor had transmitted one hundred and forty of surprising beauty.


COSTUME OF SPAIN.

beauty. The hall was decorated with marble and massy gold; and in the midst of the ceiling was hung the famous pearl which the emperor Leo had sent to the khalif. The palace of Zebra appears to have been annihilated in the barbarous and fanatic wars of the middle ages: and Granada, the last Moorish kingdom, having been subdued after the arts and sciences began to revive, it is natural there to expect the best preserved remains of Moresque antiquity.

The Christian antiquities of the middle ages consist of numerous churches, castles, and monasteries, as usual in other European countries.

RELIGION.] The religion of Spain is the Roman Catholic, which, in this country and Portugal, has been carried to a pitch of fanaticism unknown to the Italian states, or even to the papal territory. The inquisition has, in these unhappy kingdoms, been invested with exorbitant power, and has produced the most ruinous effects, and though the evil has been recently subdued, one fanatic reign would suffice to revive it.

GOVERNMENT.] The present state of Spain will not permit us to say any thing concerning its government: the war carried on in that country, and the detention of the king, afford little doubt of Spain becoming shortly subject to the emperor Napoleon.

POPULATION.] The population of this kingdom is computed at little more than ten million; but in consequence of the war now carrying on with France even that number has been greatly diminished.

COLONIES.] After the discoveries of Christoval Colon, called by writers in Latin Christopher Columbus, the Spanish colonies soon became numerous and extensive, in the West Indies, South America, and various isles in the Pacific Ocean. No nation can in this respect rival Spain. But the superior advantages of England, in religious and political freedom, have soon replaced the population thus withdrawn, while to Spain the wound has been incurable, as the causes of depopulation have always increased.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] In speaking of the religion of Spain, one of the most striking of the national customs and manners is the common practice of adultery, under the mask of religion. This disgrace, which is confined to the catholic system, is said to have been transplanted from Italy. But the Italian *cicisbei* are more commonly gentlemen; while in Spain they are monks and ecclesiastics; and the vice becomes more flagrant, as it is practised by those very men who ought to exhibit examples of pure morality.

Exclusive of this vice, the Spanish character is highly respectable for integrity and a long train of virtues. Conscious of an upright and noble mind, the respect which a Spaniard would pay to those qualities in others, is often centred in himself, as he is intimately sensible that he possesses them. This self-respect is nearly allied to pride; but it is the pride of virtue, which certainly ought not to humble itself before vice and folly. Temperance is a virtue which the Spaniard shares in common with other southern nations. In these countries the body is so much exhausted by the influence of heat, that the siesta, or short sleep in the middle of the day, becomes a necessary resource of nature, and is by habit continued even in the winter.

The chief defect in the character of the Spanish nobility and gentry is, their aversion to agriculture and commerce. Instead of those beautiful villas, and opulent farms, which enrich the whole extent of England, the Spanish architecture is almost confined to the capital, and a few other cities and towns; and till farm-houses are scattered over the kingdom, it will be absolutely impossible for agriculture to flourish in Spain. To import German colonies, as has been done in the Sierra Morena, is to begin at the wrong end, and to suppose that the poor can set an example to the rich. An intimate connexion and intermixture of all ranks of men, and their mutual respect for each other, form a liberal source of the wealth and power of the British dominions; but Spain, perhaps, despises the example of heretics.

Since the accession of the house of Bourbon, a slight shade of French manners has been blended with the Spanish gravity. But fashions have here little sway; and the prohibition of slouched hats and long cloaks led to a serious insurrection. The houses of the great are large and capacious; but the cottages and inns are, on the contrary, miserable. The dress and manners of the lower classes vary much in different provinces.

The amusements of people of rank chiefly consist in dancing and cards; but the combats with bulls in the amphitheatres have justly been regarded as the most striking feature of Spanish and Portuguese manners. The chief actors in the bull-feasts are the picadors, who are mounted on horseback and armed with lances, and the chulos on foot, who relieve and sustain the former; but the chief personage is the matador, who enters amid the profound silence of the whole assembly, and coolly dispatches the furious animal by a blow where the spinal marrow joins the head. The death is bloodless and instantaneous, and deserves imitation, as humanity would wish to save pain to the animals slaughtered for food. Sometimes the bull is pierced in various parts with lances, to which squibs are fastened, which being set on fire, the maddened animal stands pawing the ground, while he draws in and exhales volumes of smoke: sometimes an American is introduced, who, after the manner of hunting the wild bull in his own country, throws a rope round the horns, and entangles the quadruped as in a net, then kills him with perfect safety.

Language.] The Spanish language is one of the three great southern dialects which spring from the Roman; but many of the words become difficult to the French or Italian student, because they are derived from the Arabic, used by the Moors, who for seven centuries held dominion in this country. The speech is grave, sonorous, and of exquisite melody, containing much of the slow and formal manner of the Orientals, who seem sensible that the power of speech is a privilege.

Universities.] The universities, or rather academies, in Spain, are computed at upwards of twenty: of which the most noted is that of Salamanca, founded in the year 1200 by Alphonso IX. king of Leon. The students have, at former periods, been computed at sixteen thousand; and, even now the reign of Aristotle in logic and natural philosophy, and of Thomas Aquinas in theology, continues unviolated, so that a student of the year 1800 may aspire to as much ignorance as one of the year 1300. In 1785 the number of students was computed at one thousand nine hundred and nine.

Cities and Towns.] Madrid, the royal residence, is esteemed the capital of Spain. Philip II. first established his court at Madrid, and the nobility, in consequence, erecting numerous palaces, this formerly obscure town began to assume an air of grandeur. The centrical position seems the chief advantage, for the environs can boast of little beauty or variety. The river Mançenares is in winter a torrent, but dry in summer: over it is an elegant bridge, which occasioned a sarcastic remark that the bridge should be sold in order to purchase water. This metropolis contains about one hundred and forty-seven thousand three hundred and fifty inhabitants. The convents are sixty-six; and there are fifteen gates of granite, many of which are elegant. The chief is the Puerta de Alcala, of three arches, the central being seventy feet in height. The churches and monasteries contain many noble paintings, and the royal palaces display considerable magnificence. The new palace presents four fronts of four hundred and seventy feet in length, and one hundred in height, enriched with numerous pillars and pilasters. The foundation was laid in 1737, three years after the ancient palace had fallen a sacrifice to the flames. The audience-chamber is deservedly admired, being a double cube of ninety feet, hung with crimson velvet, and adorned with a sumptuous canopy and painted ceiling.

Gibraltar, so called from a Moorish or Arabic denomination, signifying the mountain of Tarik, who conducted the Moors into Spain, stands on the west side of a rocky mountain called Calpe by the ancients; and to the west of the town is a large bay. In 1462 it was taken from the Moors; and in 1704 fell into the hands of the English. The siege during the American war is of fresh and celebrated memory. The inhabitants of the town are about five thousand; and the garrison generally amounts to as many. The number and strength of the military works, and the vast galleries opened in the calcareous rock, excite admiration. There is a stalactitic cave, that of St. Michael, and bones are found in the rock, which seem to have fallen into the cavities where they are enveloped in the exuding petrefaction. The fortress, in the opinion of most military men, is absolutely impregnable.

Climate and Seasons.] The climate of Spain has been deservedly praised, as equal if not superior to that of any country in Europe; but in the southern provinces the heat is insalubrious

and malignant fevers sometimes sweep off great numbers. The chains of mountains which pervade Spain at different intervals from east to west, seem to temper the climate, and supply cooling breezes. In the south the sea breeze, beginning about nine in the morning, and continuing till five in the evening, agreeably diversifies the warmth of the summer; and in the northern provinces the severity of winter is allayed by the proximity of the ocean, which generally supplies gales rather humid than frosty.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The face of the country is in most seasons delightful, abounding with excellent and fragrant pasturage, vineyards, and groves of orange trees; and the hills clothed with wild thyme and other odoriferous plants. The rivers and streams are numerous, and the chains of mountains afford a grand variety to the prospect.

SOIL AND AGRICULTURE.] The soil is generally light, and reposes on beds of gypsum, or plaster of Paris, itself an excellent manure. In the more southern provinces the land is almost equally fertile; and the sugar-cane is cultivated with success near Granada. Agriculture is greatly impeded in Spain by the superior attention paid to the large flocks of sheep, which are authorized by a special code, the mesta, to travel from one province to another, as the season presents pasturage in the vales, or on the mountains. The Merino sheep, or flocks, thus privileged, are computed at five millions; and one nobleman has sometimes forty thousand. The fleece is esteemed double the value to that of other sheep; but the checks given to agriculture by such privileges, unknown to all other countries, are incalculable.

RIVERS.] Among the chief rivers of Spain are the Ebro, which anciently conferred an appellation on the country. This noble stream rises in the mountains of Asturias, in a small vale E. of Reisona, and pursuing its course to the S. E. enters the Mediterranean Sea, after having run about three hundred and eighty geographical miles. The other rivers running to the east are of less importance, as the Guadalaviar, the Xucar, and the Segura, which enlivens the fertile vales of Murcia. Towards the W. occurs the Guadalquivir. This river originates in the Sierra Morena, and flows into the gulf of Cadiz, after a course of near three hundred geographical miles. The Guadiana rises in the N. side of the Sierra Morena; pursues a part of its course through Portugal, and falls into the gulf of Cadiz, after a circuit nearly equal to that of the Ebro. But the chief river of Spain and Portugal is the Tajo, or Tagus, which rises in the west of Arragon, near Albarracin, in a spring called Abrega, and holds a course of about four hundred and fifty geographical miles. The Douro springs near the ruins of ancient Numantia: and its course may be computed at three hundred and fifty geographical miles. The Minho rises in the mountains of Galicia; and is more remarkable as forming a part of the boundary between that province and Portugal.

MOUNTAINS.] The Spanish mountains are arranged by nature in several distinct chains. The most northern is regarded as a continuation of the Pyrenees, passing on the south of Biscay and the Asturias in Galicia. This chain is distinguished by different names, as the mountains of Biscay, the Sierra of Asturias, and the mountains of Mondonedo in Galicia. It must be here observed that the term of *Sierra*, peculiar to Spain, implies a chain of mountains whose successive peaks present the resemblance of a *saw*. The gypseous and argillaceous mountains of this country rarely exhibiting any supreme elevation, like those in the granitic chains, naturally suggested this singular appellation. The second chain of Spanish mountains extends from near Soria on the N. E. and pursues a S. W. direction towards Portugal. This chain is called that of Urbia or Guadarama; and also the *Montes Carpentarios*. The third is that of Toledo, running nearly parallel with the last. These two central chains contain great quantities of granite. Next, towards the S. is the Sierra Morena, or Brown Mountains, which are followed by the most southern ridge, that of the Sierra Nevada. On the east there is a considerable chain, which connects the central ridges, and advances towards the Mediterranean in the north of Valencia. There are also several considerable ranges of hills in this part of the kingdom, generally running from N. to S.

A remarkable solitary mountain, not far from Barcelona, must not be omitted. At a distance Montserrat appears like a sugar loaf; but on a nearer approach seems jagged like a saw with pyramidical rocks; it is composed of limestone and

and gravel, united by calcareous cement; and is of such a height that from its summit may be discerned the islands of Majorca and Minorca, at the distance of fifty leagues. Not far from Montserrat, near the village of Cardona, is a hill three miles in circumference, which is one mass of rock salt, used in the dry climate of Spain for vases, snuff-boxes, and trinkets, like our Derbyshire spar.

The Spanish side of the Pyrenees has not been accurately examined; and as the French mineralogists have amply illustrated the part belonging to France, an account of these mountains has been given in the description of that country. According to Townsend, the northern side of the Pyrenees is chiefly calcareous, surmounted with argillaceous schistus; but the southern is granite, and of course barren. The hills to the south of Gerona are also granitic. The highest ridge in Spain, near Daroca, whence originate the Tajo and Ebro, seems composed of argillaceous schistus and freestone, probably resting on granite. Near Anchuela the mountains are limestone, with shells; and sometimes contain beds of red gypsum, with crystals of the same colour. In general gypsum is as abundant in Spain, as chalk is in England. The mountains on the north of Madrid, forming part of the central chain, are granite. Those to the north of Leon chiefly marble or limestone, on a basis of argillaceous schistus, rising in bold and rugged rocks which afforded a barrier to the remains of Spanish liberty. In returning towards the south, the soil of La Mancha is sandy, the rock gypsum. The higher regions of the Sierra Morena are granite; the lower argillaceous schistus, with gypsum and limestone. The granite is of two kinds, the red and the white.

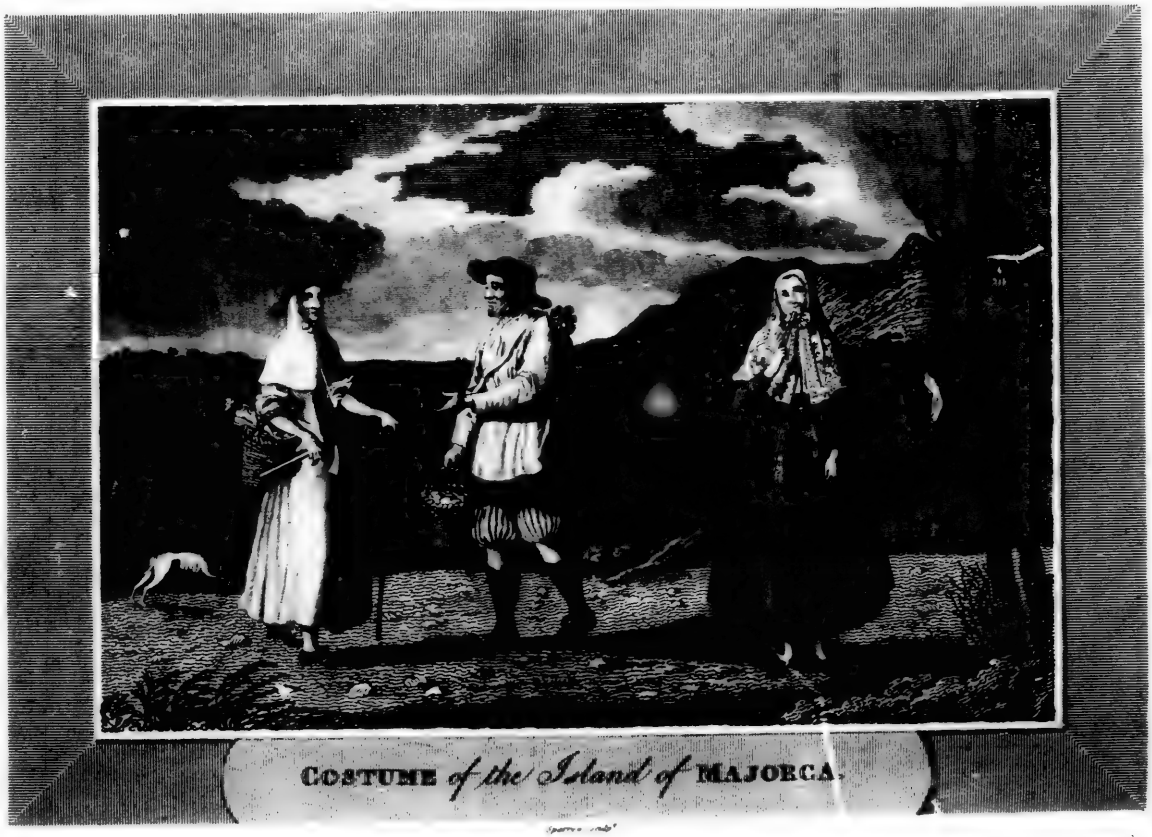
Near Cordova the highest hills are covered with rounded masses of granite, grit, and limestone. Near Malaga are branches of the Sierra Nevada, or snowy chain, an appellation which might also be extended to the central range between Old and New Castille, which, according to Mr. Townsend, might at some times be visible at the distance of one hundred miles; these branches present limestone and marble, surmounted by argillaceous schistus. Near Alhama, S. E. of the city of Granada, are found rocks, which on a basis of shingle or round gravel, present sandstone with shells, surmounted with pudding-stone, but in general the rocks are gypseous, with strata of the same substance crystallized. The S. E. part of Spain seems calcareous, and the cathedral of Murcia is built with a sort of freestone resembling the roe of fish. But near Cape de Gata the hills seem to have been volcanic, as French mineralogists have inferred from the singularity of its productions.

Forests.] Spain contains many forests, partly arising from the want of cultivation, partly reserved for the royal pleasures of the chase; as that of the Pardo, which extends near thirty miles in length; some of the forests are haunted by smugglers and banditti, who raise contributions from the unwary travellers; and even murders are not unfrequent.

Zoology.] The glory of the Spanish zoology is the horse, which has been famous in all ages, probably originating from the barb, or beautiful and spirited steed from the north of Africa, the immediate offspring of the Arabian. The Spanish mules are also excellent, and the ass is here no ignoble animal, though not equal to that of Arabia. The breed of sheep has been long celebrated as perhaps superior to any in the world, for the delicacy of the mutton, and the beauty of the fleece. The purity of the air, and aromatic pasture, no doubt contribute to both qualities, which it is to be suspected would degenerate on transportation.

Mineralogy.] The mineralogy of Spain was anciently of more importance than in modern times. Pliny *, after observing that silver was generally found with galena, or lead ore, proceeds to state that the fairest of all silver was found in Spain, where the pits, begun by Hannibal, lasted to his time, being known by the names of their original discoverers. That called Bebelo had yielded to Hannibal three hundred pounds weight a day, a mountain being pierced for a mile and a half, through which the workmen directed large streams of water; so that the plan pursued seems to have been that called hushing by modern writers. Strabo † informs us that the province of the Turditani, modern Andalusia, was the most productive of precious metals; and gold, silver, brass, and iron, were no where found more abundant, nor of better quality: gold was found in the sands of the rivers and torrents, a known attribute of the Tagus. Polybius informs us concerning the mines of silver near Carthagena, which occupied a number of workmen,

* Lib. xxxiii. cap. vi. † Lib. iii.



COSTUME *of the Island of* MAJORCA.

COSTUME of the Island of

Peasants of Alojera. — *Woman of Murcia.*

men, and yielded to the Romans twenty-five thousand drachms daily. Other mines of silver were found near the sources of the Bætis. This intelligence becomes of the more importance, as Britain and other regions of the west certainly derived their gold and silver from Gaul and Spain, in return for cattle, hides, and other products. At present almost the only silver mines in Spain are those of Guadalcanal, in the Sierra Morena. At Almaden, in La Mancha, are valuable mines of quicksilver, which are chiefly remitted to Spanish America, and employed in refining the more precious metals. Calabine appears near Alcavas, cobalt in the Pyrenees; antimony in La Mancha; copper on the frontiers of Portugal *; tin in Galicia: and lead is common in many districts. The iron of Spain is abundant, and still maintains its high character; and coals are found in the district of Villa Franca, in Catalonia, where also occur gold, silver, copper, and lead †. Amber and jet (in Spanish Azabache) are found together in the territory of Beloncia in the Asturias. The other minerals are rather curious than important, such as the beautiful crystallized sulphur found at Conilla, not far from Cadiz, the elastic marble of Malaga, and the green marble resembling the verde antico, found near Grenada.

Mineral Waters.] Spain contains many mineral waters, but few are celebrated. The hot springs of Rivera de Abajo are situated not far from Oviedo; and bear some resemblance to those of Bath. Near Alicant are the baths of Buzot, warm springs of a chalybeate nature, rising like the former, among calcareous hills.

SPANISH ISLES.

The chief circumjacent islands belonging to Spain are Majorca, Minorca, and Eviza; or, according to Spanish orthography, Mallorca, Menorca, Ibiza. Majorca is about fifty-five English miles in length, by forty-five in breadth. The N. W. part is hilly; the rest abounds with cultivated land, vineyards, orchards, and meadow; the air is temperate, and the honey highly esteemed: there is generally a considerable military force in the isle. The capital, seated on a fair bay, is an elegant city, and is supposed to contain ten thousand inhabitants. Majorca was reconquered from the Moors by James I. king of Arragon, in 1229. Majorca is generally in too strong a state of defence to admit of an easy conquest, but Minorca has been repeatedly seized by the English, to whom it presents an advantageous station for the Mediterranean trade. It is about thirty miles in length, by about twelve of medial breadth. The air is moist, and the soil rather barren, being chiefly calcareous, with lead and fine marble. The wine is praised; and the inhabitants retain a share of their ancient reputation as excellent slingers. Cittadella, the capital, has a tolerable haven, but the population and fortifications are of little consequence. Port Mahon, on the S. E. has an excellent harbour, and received its name from Mago, the Carthaginian general. Eviza is the nearest to Spain, about fifteen miles long, and twelve broad. It is remarkable for its fruits, and abundance of excellent salt.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

The Turkish empire, once so formidable to Europe, has lately sunk before the power of Russia. Turkey in Europe is computed to contain one hundred and eighty two thousand five hundred and sixty square miles; an extent which exceeds that of Spain, or even France under the ancient monarchy. It embraces many ancient kingdoms and republics. 1. Moldavia; 2. Budzac, or Bessarbia; 3. Wallachia; 4. Bulgaria; 5. Romelia; 6. The Morea; 7. Albania; 8. Dalmatia; 9. Servia; 10. Bosnia; and 11. Turkish Croatia.

In recent times Turkey has lost the provinces of the Krim, and New Servia, which, with several Asiatic districts, have become subject to Russia; and on the west, Transylvania, Sclavonia, with the Buckovina, part of Moldavia, and a great part of Croatia, have fallen under the power of Austria.

Extent.] Turkey in Europe extends about eight hundred and seventy miles in length, from the northern boundary of Moldavia, to Cape Matapan in the Morea. The breadth from the river Unna to Constantinople is about six hundred and eighty British miles. The eastern and

* See Dillon, 195, for an account of the copper-mine of La Platilla, near Molina.

† Towns. iii. 341, 345.

southern boundaries are formed by the Euxine or Black Sea, the Sea of Marmora, the Archipelago, and the Mediterranean. The utmost northern limit is now the river Dniester: but the western often consists of an arbitrary line, and is sometimes supplied by rivers or mountains.

Antiquities.] The ancient monuments of European Turkey are well known to exceed in number and importance those of any other country. The remains of ancient Athens, in particular, formerly the chosen seat of the arts, have attracted the attention of many travellers, and have been repeatedly described. A venerable monument of antiquity, the church dedicated to the divine wisdom, or vulgarly Sancta Sophia, by the emperor Justinian, in the sixth century, has been fortunately preserved, by being converted into a mosque. The interior is adorned with a profusion of marble columns, of various beautiful descriptions, the purple Phrygian, the Spartan green, the red and white Carian, the African of a saffron colour, and many other kinds. The other antiquities of Constantinople and European Turkey, would occupy many pages in the bare enumeration. Suffice it here to observe, that the French have recently discovered the remains of the ancient sea-port belonging to Sparta, near a barren promontory, which projects from the south of the Morea; and that the antiquities and geography of that part now styled Albania, still present a field of research to the enterprising traveller.

Religion.] The religion of the Turks is the Mohammedan; but of their subjects, in this division of the empire, it is probable that two-thirds are Greek Christians. The religion of Mohammed has been recently cleared from many erroneous representations: but its pernicious effects are sufficiently visible in the destruction of art and industry, wherever it has made its appearance. The exclusive attachment to the Koran, the rigid fanaticism, and the contempt for profane knowledge, conspire, with the devout hatred against all unbelievers, to prevent any intercourse with other sects, and thus to erect a barrier against every branch of science and industry. While the Mohammedans regard all other nations as dogs, (to use their own expression), it is no wonder that they themselves should sink into an ignorance and apathy truly brutal. The mufti, or Mohammedan pontiff, presides at Constantinople; but his power has seldom interfered with the civil government. Next to him in rank are the moulahs, who, though esteemed dignitaries of the church, are in fact rather doctors of the law, while the Koran is also a code of civil observance. From the moulahs are selected the inferior muftis or judges throughout the empire, and the cadelesquiers, or chief justices.

Government.] The sultan is a despotic sovereign; but he is himself strictly subject to the laws of the Koran, which, including also the national religion, raise such obstructions to his absolute will, that an intelligent traveller pronounces many Christian sovereignties more despotic. Hence it appears, that the power of the monarch is balanced by a religious aristocracy, which, together with the mutinies of the Janizaries, and the insurrections of the provincial pachas, has greatly weakened the sovereign authority.

The Turkish laws are contained in the Koran; but to supply the defects of this work, successive moulahs of high reputation, using the Koran as a kind of text, have constructed commentaries which have acquired the force of laws. The Turkish empire is chiefly guided by those of Abou Hanife. As a due skill in these commentaries require considerable study, ecclesiastics versed in this science became in some degree a distinct body from those merely dedicated to the priesthood.

Population.] Turkey in Europe has been computed to contain eight millions of inhabitants; but it is probable that this number rather exceeds the truth, when it is considered that these regions are intersected by many mountainous and barren tracts, and that the population even of the best provinces impresses travellers with a striking defect.

Revenues.] The revenues of the whole Turkish empire are computed at about 7,000,000 sterling, while the usual expence does not exceed five. This revenue is partly derived from the capitation tax on unbelievers, and from the *zechat*, or customs; but principally from the tax on land, amounting to about six shillings an acre, and which is called the *jizie*. The sultan is also supposed to possess a considerable private treasure; which, when called forth by the exigencies of the state, will probably be found of a small

small account as the treasures of similar fame, which fell into the hands of the French. A more real treasure may be expected from the arbitrary exactions from the rich, particularly the Christians.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] The manners and customs of the Turks are distinguished by the peculiarity of their religion from those of other European nations. On the birth of a child the father himself gives the name, putting at the same time a grain of salt into his mouth. Marriage is only a civil contract, which either party may break, and is managed by female mediation, the youth seldom seeing his bride till after the ceremony. The burial-grounds are near the highways, and stones are often placed at the head of the graves, with carved turbans denoting the sex. As they never intrench upon a former grave, the cemeteries are very extensive. In diet the Turks are extremely moderate, and their meals are dispatched with great haste. Rice is the favourite food, and is chiefly dressed in three ways; the pilau, boiled with mutton or fowl; the lappa, or mere boiled rice; and the tehorba, a kind of broth of the same vegetable. The meal is usually spread on a low wooden table, and the master of the house pronounces a short prayer. The frugal repast is followed by fruits and cold water, which are succeeded by hot coffee, and pipes with tobacco. The houses of the Turks are seldom expensive; and the chief furniture is the carpet which covers the floor, with a low sofa on one side of the room. In regard to dress, Tournefort observes that the use of the turban is unhealthy, because the ears are exposed, and its thickness prevents perspiration. The shirt is of calico: and the loose robe is fastened by a girdle, in which is stuck a dagger; while the tobacco box, pocket book, &c. are worn in the bosom. The robe is generally of European broadcloth, trimmed with various furs. The shoes, or rather slippers, are slight, and unfit for much exercise. The dress of the women differs little from that of the men, the chief distinction being the head-dress; that of the fair sex consisting of a bonnet, like an inverted basket, formed of pasteboard, covered with cloth of gold, or other elegant materials, with a veil extending to the eyebrows, while a fine handkerchief conceals the under part of the face. The personal cleanliness of both sexes is highly laudable; but the European eye is not pleased with the female custom of staining the nails with a red tincture. The amusements of the Turks partake of their indolent apathy, if we except hunting, and those of a military description. To recline on an elegant carpet, or in the hot season by the side of a stream, and smoke the delicate tobacco of Syria, may be regarded as their chief amusement. With opium they procure what they call a kief, or placid intoxication, during which the fancy forms a thousand agreeable images, but when the dose is too potent, these are succeeded by irritation and ferocity. Chess and draughts are favourite games; but those of chance are considered as incompatible with strict morals. The coffee-houses, and the baths, furnish other sources of amusement; and the bairam, or festival which follows their long lent, is a season of universal dissipation.

LANGUAGE.] The Turkish language is of far inferior reputation to the Persian or Arabic, being a mixture of several dialects, and possessing neither the force, elegance, nor purity of those two celebrated oriental tongues.

CAPITAL CITIES.] The chief city of European Turkey, and of the Turkish empire, is Constantinople, so called because founded by Constantine. The advantages of the situation can hardly be exceeded, and the aspect from the sea is peculiarly grand; but on a nearer approach, the wooden hovels and narrow streets disappoint the splendid expectations of the spectator. This capital forms an unequal triangle, resembling a harp, being about twelve or fourteen English miles in circumference, inclosed by walls, and on two sides by the sea and the harbour called the Golden Horn. The inhabitants are computed at four hundred thousand, including the four suburbs, Galata, Pera, Tophana, and Scutari. Of these two hundred thousand are Turks, one hundred thousand Greek, and the remainder Jews, Armenians, and Franks. The most celebrated edifices are the Seraglio, which comprizes a large space crowded with various buildings of mean architecture; and the mosque of Sancta Sophia. The principal entrance of the Seraglio is styled Capi, or the Porte, an appellation which has passed to the Turkish court.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.] The extensive regions comprised within the limits of European Turkey enjoy, in general, a delicious climate, pure

pure air, and regular seasons. Ovid, who was banished to modern Bulgaria, has written many elegiac complaints on the severity of the clime; and it seems an undoubted fact, that the seasons have become more genial since Europe has been stripped of those enormous forests, which diffused humidity and cold. The climate of Moldavia, which Ovid would have painted like Lapland, is now little inferior to that of Hungary, though the western part be mountainous, and the eastern present many uncultivated deserts. In Walachia the air is so temperate that vines and melons prosper. In the mountainous parts of the more southern districts the temperature must partake of the cold, universal in such elevated regions; but the products of Macedonia and Greece, rice, vines, and olives, shew that the climate retains its ancient praise.

Face of the Country.] The general appearance of Turkey in Europe is rather mountainous, but abundantly interspersed with delicious plains and vales; and to the N. W. of Constantinople there is a plain country of vast extent, while the shores of the Euxine present many level deserts. Besides the grand stream of the Danube, many large and beautiful rivers intersect these provinces, and the numerous gulphs of the Archipelago and Mediterranean diversify and enrich the country.

Soil and Agriculture.] The soil is generally fertile, the northern parts producing wheat and rich pasture, the middle and southern abundance of rice. But agriculture, like every other art and science, is neglected by the Turks; and that soil must be truly fertile which, under their sway, can support its inhabitants.

Rivers.] Among the rivers of European Turkey must first be named the Danube, which from Belgrade to Orsova divides Servia from the Banat, and afterwards becomes a Turkish stream. The Maritz, which rising in a chain of mountains anciently called Hæmus, and running towards the E. and S. falls into the Ægean Sea.

Lakes.] Budzac and Walachia contain some lakes of considerable extent, as those round Ismail, and that to the E. of Surza, which communicates with the Danube, or forms a part of that river.

Mountains.] The chains of mountains are numerous and extensive. To the W. of Moldavia and the Buckovine runs N. and N. W. for about two hundred miles, part of the grand Carpathian chain. Besides these, there are other ranges of mountains of great extent.

Zoology.] The zoology of European Turkey presents few peculiarities. The jackall, frequent in Africa and Asia, is not unknown in these regions; and among the beasts of burthen must be classed the camel. The Turkish horses are celebrated for spirit and form: and those of Walachia deserve particular praise. The breeds or qualities of their cattle have been little explained. The sheep, distinguished by the name of Walachian, have spiral horns of singular elegance; but the fineness of the fleece would be a more useful distinction.

Mineral Waters.] The mineral waters are little known or celebrated; and the natural curiosities in the northern parts, and around mount Hæmus, remain undescribed. Of those in the south, the principal is the grotto of Antiparos, one of the islands of the Cyclades to the west of Paros. The whole isle is a rock of fine marble, about sixteen miles in circumference *.

ISLANDS

BELONGING TO TURKEY IN EUROPE.

The numerous islands in the Archipelago are by geographers considered as belonging to Europe, except a few which approach the Asiatic shore, as Mytilene, Scio, Samos, Cos, and Rhodes.

* In its southern part, about a mile and a half from the sea, rises a rugged cavern, with some ancient inscriptions. After proceeding about twenty paces, appears a dark and low passage, whence the traveller, being provided with lights, descends by a rope, and afterwards by a ladder placed by the side of deep abysses. The path now becomes more easy, and conducts to another deep precipice, which is descended by another ladder. After much fatigue, and some danger, the traveller at length arrives in the grotto, which is supposed to be about nine hundred feet from the first opening. Tournefort estimates the height of the grotto at about forty fathoms. The stalactitic marble hangs from the roof in the most elegant and picturesque forms; and on the floor are large masses of stalagmite, brownish and less pure, produced by the liquified stone dropping from above. A great distinction between this grotto and others of a similar kind in England, and other countries, is the purity of the material, being marble of a snowy whiteness, and the finest calcareous spar. The marble of Paros has been known and celebrated for many ages, as the most pure that the sculptor can employ; but some prefer that of Carrara, as of a finer and closer grain, and more obedient to the chissel, the Grecian having a large crystalline grain, apt to slit off more largely than required.

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The EXCHANGE at ROTTERDAM.

View of MAARSEN, in Holland

The islands of ancient Greece have been so repeatedly described, that little more than an enumeration may suffice. The largest is that of Crete or Candia, which is about one hundred and eighty British miles in length, by forty as its greatest breadth. A chain of high mountains, called the White Mountains, from the snow, pervades a great part of its length. The inhabitants are vigorous and robust, and fond of archery. This isle abounds with cattle, sheep, swine, poultry, and game, all excellent; and the wine is balmy and luscious. The siege of Candia by the Turks in the middle of the seventeenth century, is remarkable in modern history, as having continued for twenty-four years, 1646—1670. This island had before flourished under the Venetians.

Next is Negropont, anciently called Eubœa, about one hundred British miles in length, by twenty in breadth, a large and important island, which also belonged to the Venetians to a late period *.

The other isles are generally of a diminutive size, among which are Lemnos, Skyro, and Andro. It must not be omitted, that in 1707 a new island arose from the sea, with violent volcanic explosions, near Santorine, about a mile in diameter.

HOLLAND.

Names.] The Seven United Provinces were, in ancient times, chiefly possessed by the Batavi, a people highly celebrated by Tacitus: but the boundaries being modern, there is no ancient appellation which particularly denotes this country. It was lately styled the republic of Holland, from the name of the chief province; but since the stadtholder was driven from his country by the victorious French, it has been erected into a kingdom. This happened in 1795; but on July 9, 1810, the kingdom of Holland was annexed to the French empire.

Religion.] The protestant religion, in the Calvinistic form, prevails throughout the kingdom of Holland. The states of Holland, in 1583, proposed that no other form of worship should be tolerated; but this resolution was wisely rejected; and every religion is permitted, on condition that it do not oppose the fundamental laws, or teach any doctrines subversive of the state.

Population.] The population of this kingdom has been recently computed at two million seven hundred and fifty-eight thousand, six hundred and thirty-two. The population of Holland, the chief province, is calculated at nine hundred and eighty thousand.

Colonies.] The Dutch, being, for a considerable time, the chief maritime power in Europe, their colonies were numerous; besides some settlements on the coast of Hindostan, and an important establishment in Ceylon, they held, and still retain, the Spice Islands, Batavia, in the island of Java, the Cape of Good Hope, Surinam, and other considerable establishments.

Army.] The army was computed at about thirty-six thousand, but it is now incorporated with that of France. The navy, which used to consist of forty ships of the line, has by the events of the last war almost totally disappeared. The Dutch are, however, forming a powerful fleet at Antwerp, which was intended to be destroyed by the English in 1809: to effect which, the most powerful and best appointed armament that ever sailed from the shores of Britain was sent; but, alas! the fatal effects of the Walcheren fever destroyed so many of our troops, that orders were at last dispatched for the speedy return of the remainder to England. This discomfiture of the English forces was made a subject of parliamentary enquiry in 1810.

Manners and Customs.] On visiting Holland, a stranger is surprized at the extreme cleanliness observable in the houses and streets; even hamlets, inhabited by poor fishermen, displaying a neatness and freshness, which forms a striking contrast with the squalid appearance of the German villages. The air being always moist, and commonly cold, the Dutch dress is calculated for warmth and not for elegance. The people are of a phlegmatic temperament; and their courage at sea is rather obstinacy than ardour; while from the same cause, their labour is rather slow perseverance, than impetuous strength, like

* The isles of Corfu, Cefalonia, and Zante, on the other side of Greece, were, on the fall of Venice, seized by the French, but now constitute an independent republic, under the protection of Russia; a curious experiment on the genius of modern Greece.

that of the English. In former times their knowledge was chiefly restricted to two channels; affairs of state, on which even the vulgar would converse with propriety; and the arts of getting money. But the latter at length supplanted every noble thought and generous feeling. This striking characteristic has impressed every spectator, from the days of Ray the naturalist, who visited Holland, in 1663, even to the present hour. A late amiable traveller observes, that "the infatuation of loving money, not as a mean, but as an end, is paramount in the mind of almost every Dutchman, whatever may be his other disposition and qualities; the addiction to it is fervent, inveterate, invincible, and universal from youth to the feeblest old age*." The Dutch are commonly low in stature, and the women are taller than the men. Their dress is little affected by fashion. The opulent merchants delight in their villas, thickly planted among the numerous canals; and the smallness of the gardens was compensated by the richness of the miniature selection, in which perhaps one tulip root might cost fifty guineas. In the winter, skating is a favourite amusement, and the canals are crowded with all ranks, from the senator to the milk-maid with her pail, and the peasant with his eggs. But the chief amusements, in so moist a climate, are under the shelter of the domestic roof, in large and expensive collections of paintings and prints, which also have become an article of commerce and avarice.

Language.] The Dutch language is a dialect of the German.

Education.] The mode of education pursued in these provinces seems to have been greatly inferior to that used in England. The Dutch youths being chiefly allotted to a seafaring life, there was not indeed opportunity for numerous parochial schools, and consequent diffusion of common knowledge. The most celebrated Latin schools were at Rotterdam, Breda, Middleburg, Groningen, &c. The universities are, Leyden, Utrecht, Harderwyck, Franecker, and Groningen: with two inferior colleges at Amsterdam and Deventer. There is an academy of sciences at Haarlem.

Cities and Towns.] Amsterdam, the chief city of Holland, upon the small river Amstel, is first mentioned in the thirteenth century; but in the fourteenth was reckoned among the commercial towns of Europe. About the middle of the seventeenth century, during the highest prosperity of the republic, it was enlarged by about one half. The haven is not distinguished by natural advantages, but has been improved and secured by art: and the wide forest of masts impressed every traveller with amazement. The population is computed at about two hundred and twelve thousand. The streets are generally narrow, and the canals feculent. The chief edifices are the state-house, founded on piles at an immense expence; the exchange, and the post-office; but some streets along the chief canals display houses of uniform grandeur. Here is the famous Delft Gate, which may be considered as a curiosity.

Leyden is esteemed the next city in population, containing about fifty thousand souls. It is the Lugdunum Batavorum of antiquity, and is distinguished by its university. Here the ancient Rhine almost expires in a number of small channels, which are passed by so many bridges, that the number has been computed at more than one hundred. The meadows and gardens around Leyden are remarkably productive, and there is a daily intercourse, by canals, with the other chief cities and provinces. The fair is still much frequented; but the university has declined.

Inland Navigation.] To enumerate the canals of the United Provinces would be infinite, for they equal the roads in other countries; and the advantage must be the more perceived during the interruption of maritime commerce, by the increase of the inland trade with Germany, the southern Netherlands and France.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The chief manufactures of Holland are linens, many of which, however, are made in Silesia, pottery, and painted tiles, especially at Delft, leather, wax, snuff, sugar, starch, paper, besides some of woollen, cotton, and silk. But the most precious branch of commerce consisted in spices and drugs, brought from the settlements in the East Indies; and the Dutch East India company was, for a considerable time, the greatest mercantile firm in Europe. The fishery in the Northern Seas, and even on their own and the English coasts, was also an object of great commercial importance. Latterly, perhaps, the chief advantage was derived from Holland being the grand deposit of commerce between Great Britain

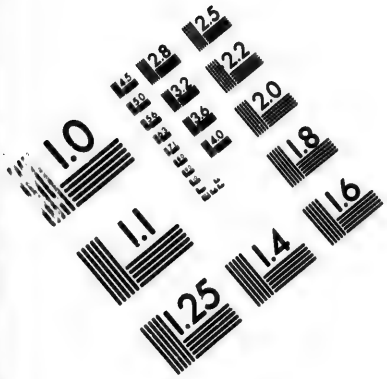
2

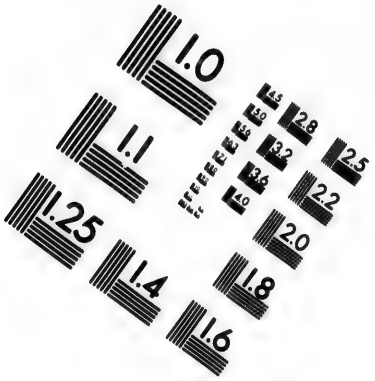
* Mrs. Radcliffe, vol. i. p. 98.

Female Peasants, & Sailor, of the Province of Friesland.

Female Peasants, & Sailor, of the Province of Friesland.

View of the RING DIKE, *near Amsterdam.*





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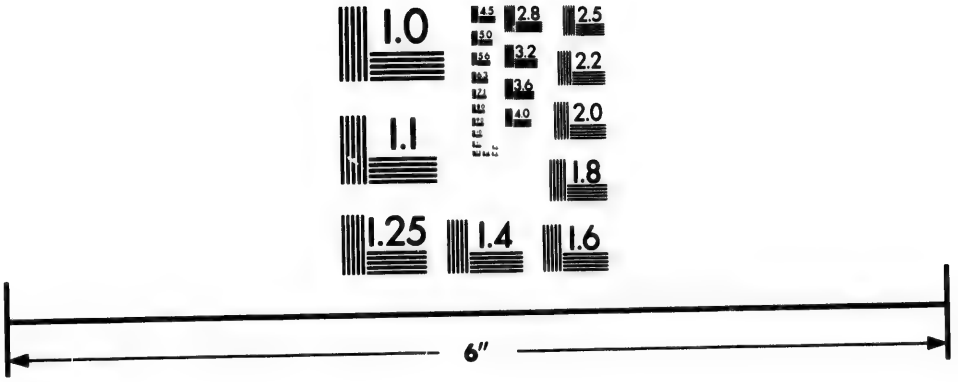

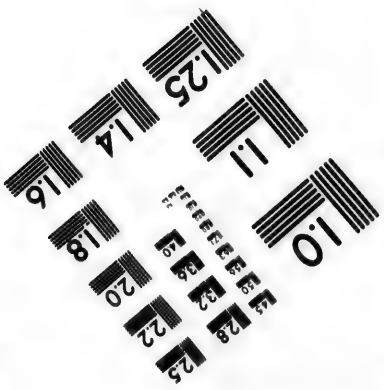

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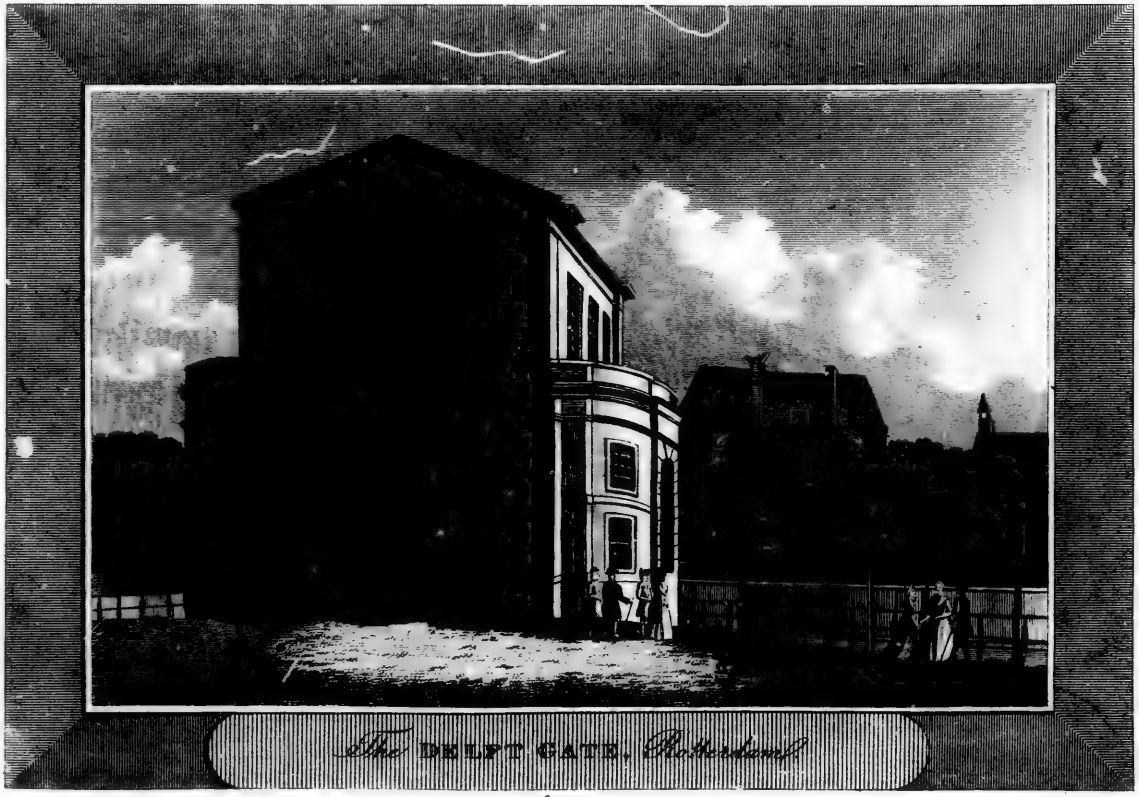


The DELFT GATE, Rotterdam

Sparrow sc.

tain and the continent, particularly Germany and France. The inland trade with Germany, by the canals and the Rhine, is almost the only branch which has escaped the ravages of war *.

Climate and Seasons.] Humidity and cold are the chief characteristics of the climate of Holland. The general face of the country is that of a large marsh which has been drained; the canals, and even the sea, looking pale and discoloured by mud; but the numerous and important cities and towns excite admiration, and the most dignified ideas of the wonderful powers of industry, which seems to have selected a chief seat amidst the greatest natural disadvantages. And even among these marshes the eye is relieved by the groves, gardens, and meadows; and to the east of Utrecht the woods and hills gently swell towards Germany. Yet the east of Dutch Brabant is still disfigured by the large morass of Peal, extending about thirty British miles in length: Over-Yssel, so called from its western boundary of the Issel, which received the canal led by Drusus from the Rhine, is almost wholly composed of enormous marshes and heaths; and the morass of Bourtang rivals that of Peal in extent. The northern provinces of Friesland and Groningen present towards the S. and S. E. extensive heaths; while the parts towards the sea rival the morasses of Holland. Thus the whole country may be said to display an intimate combination of land and water; and the few elevations commonly consist of barren sand.

Soil and Agriculture.] The agriculture of such provinces cannot be expected to be considerable, the land being mostly under pasturage, except a few crops of madder, and tobacco, which are cultivated with great predilection. The pasturages in the north of Holland supply such quantities of excellent butter, as to become a staple article of commerce. The cows seem to have been originally from Holstein, and the utmost attention is paid to warmth and cleanliness, so that even in summer the animals appear in the meadows clothed with ludicrous care.

* Of this the most remarkable feature consists in the vast floats of timber, which arrive at Dort from Andernach, and other places on the Rhine, whose copious stream receives the trees of the German forests. The length of these rafts is from seven hundred to one thousand feet, the breadth from fifty to ninety: and five hundred labourers direct the floating island, which is crowned with a village of timber huts for their reception. The navigation is conducted with the strictest regularity: and on their arrival at Dort the sale of one raft occupies several months, and frequently produces more than thirty thousand pounds sterling. The other branches of inland traffic are numerous; and the Rhine may be said to supply Holland with insular advantages, secure from the destructive inroads of maritime war.

Rivers.] The chief rivers of the United Provinces are the Rhine and the Meuse; the latter here receiving at its estuary the Aa, joined with the Domel from the S.; and from the N. that great outlet of the Rhine called the Waal: and near forty British miles farther to the W. the second grand outlet of the Rhine, called the Leck, joins the Meuse, after which but a small stream passes by Leyden to the German ocean. The principal river falling into the Zuyder Zee is the Issel, which rises not far to the S. W. of Munster, and after receiving the canal of Drusus near Duisberg becomes a considerable stream. On the N. of this is the small estuary of Wecht, which rises to the N. of Munster.

DENMARK AND NORWAY.

These countries having been already described (see above pp. 477, 489,) it would be improper to mention any thing in this place that has been before noticed. We shall therefore advert to only a few particulars.

Divisions.] The territories subject to the crown of Denmark are divided into the following provinces: Denmark Proper, 1. Jutland, 2. Isle of Funen, 3. Isle of Zeeland, 4. Sleswick, 5. Holstein.—Norway; 6. Christiansand, 7. Aggerhuus, 8. Bergen, 9. Drontheim, 10. Norland, 11. Finmark.—12. The Isle of Iceland. 13. Isles of Ferroe.

Antiquities.] The ancient monuments of Denmark and Norway are chiefly what are called Runic; though it be not clear at what period the use of the Runic characters extended so far to the north. Circles of upright stones are common in all the Danish dominions; in Iceland their origin is perfectly ascertained, as some were erected even in recent times of the Icelandic republic, being called Domhring, or Circles of Judgment. Monuments also occur of the other forms imagined by our antiquaries to be Druidic. The churches of Bergen and of Drontheim were

both

both built of stone in the eleventh century. The residences of the chiefs appear to have been generally constructed of wood, for there are few ancient castles to be found in Denmark or Norway.

Army, &c.] The army of this kingdom is computed at seventy thousand men, of which Denmark supplies about forty thousand, and Norway the remainder. The navy, prior to the late engagement with the English off Copenhagen, consisted of thirty-three ships of the line, manned by about eleven thousand seamen, and five thousand marines.

Revenue.] The annual revenue is computed at about one million and a half sterling, being superior to that of Sweden. Denmark contributes five hundred and forty-three thousand five hundred and fifty-four pounds; Norway two hundred and ninety thousand pounds; Sleswick and Holstein three hundred thousand pounds; the West Indian islands two hundred and sixty-two thousand pounds; the toll levied upon ships passing the Sound one hundred and twenty-two thousand five hundred and fifty-four pounds; Altona three thousand one hundred and fifty pounds. The expences of the state amount annually to about one million and fifty thousand pounds; and it is burthened with a debt of two million six hundred thousand pounds.

Manners and Customs.] The manners and customs of the superior Danes differ little from those of the same classes in other parts of Europe. The peasantry continue in a state of vassalage; except those of the crown, who have been recently delivered by the patriotism of the heir apparent, and a few other instances. They are of course idle, dirty, and dispirited. In Norway, on the contrary, every peasant breathes the air of freedom, except those of a few noble estates near Frederickstadt. The Norwegian peasants are spirited, frank, open, and undaunted, but not insolent; in the comforts of life they seem to yield to none, except some of the Swiss: their usual dress is of a stone colour, with red button-holes, and white metal buttons; and the women often appear only dressed in a petticoat and shift, with a close collar round their throat, and a black sash. Their usual bread, like that of the Scottish peasantry, consists of flat cakes of oatmeal: which in times of great scarcity is mingled with the white inner rind of trees.

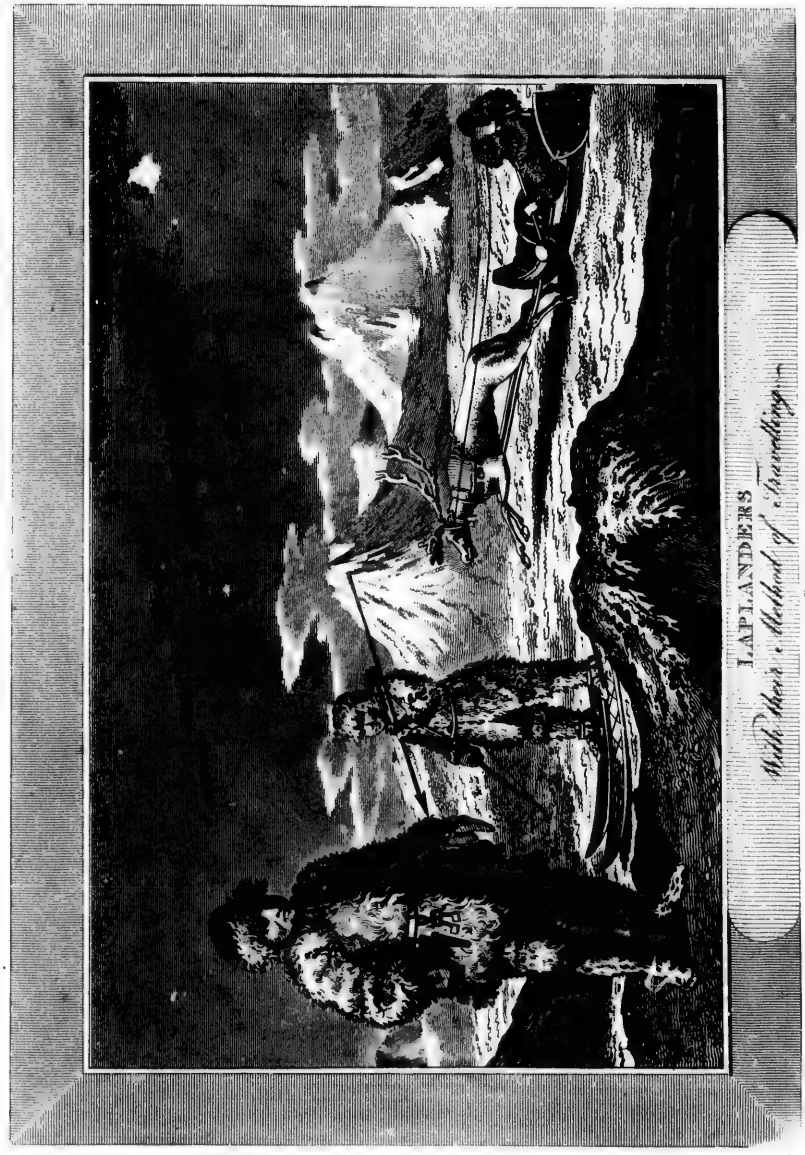
Laplanders.] At the farthest northern extremity of Norway is the region of Finmark, or more properly Lapmark, being a large province possessed by the Danish Laplanders*, and extending even to the east of Cape Nord, towards Russian Lapland.

The sun is here absent for seven weeks; yet from ten in the forenoon to one in the afternoon there is a kind of twilight even in the shortest days, so that one may read without a candle: but the stars are very visible, and the moon, when apparent, shines all the day. In return, the sun never sets for seven weeks of summer; but his beams are dull and remiss in the night, when he assumes a ruddy hue. The rivers supply salmon, and other fish, a considerable part of the Laplandic food; but at a festival are seen mutton, or rein deer, and mead. The men wear conic red caps, lined with fur, and a kind of robe of cloth or skin; the poor sometimes using that of salmon, which appears like a white shagreen. Till recent times they were immersed in paganism, regarding particular mountains and rocks as holy; their chief god was Radien, who dwelled in the starry heaven; in the lower aërial regions were Beivi, or the sun, with Horangalis, or the thunderer, and other divinities. Amidst the conversion of the northern nations to Christianity, the Laplanders have been unaccountably neglected; but since the missionaries have exerted themselves with great success.

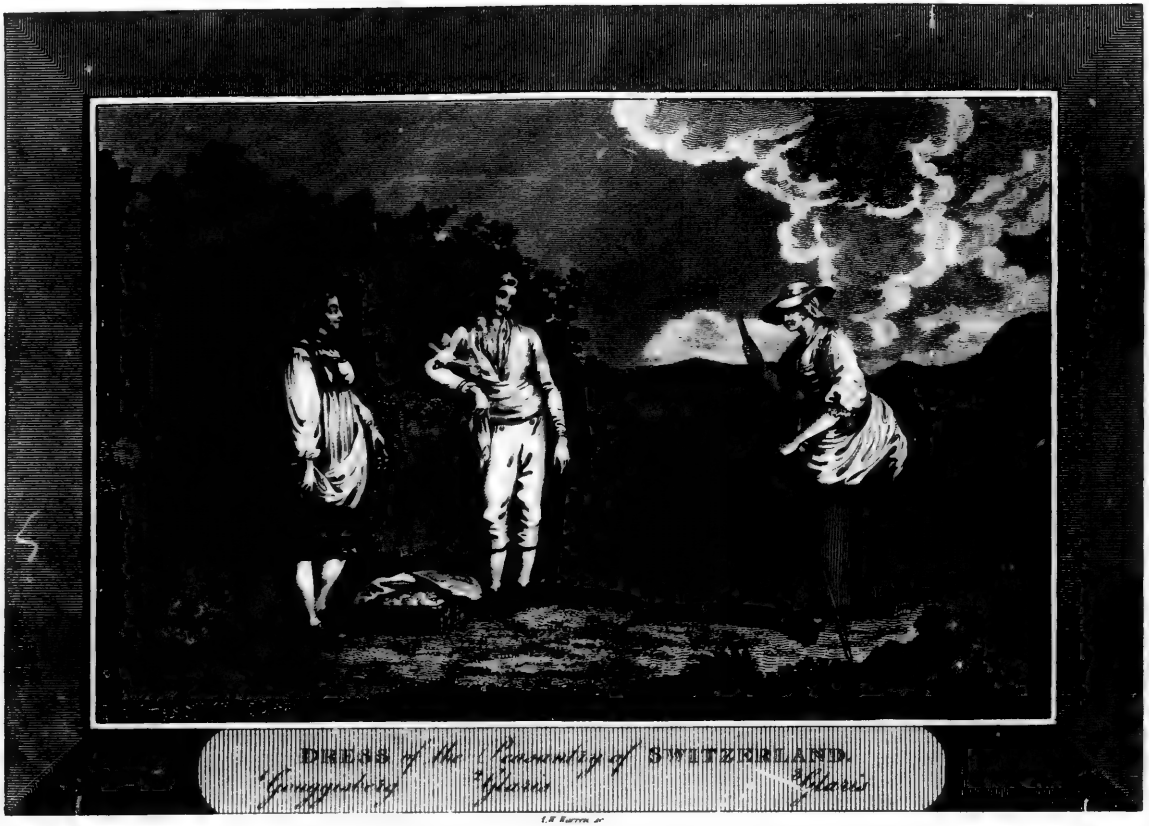
The people of Iceland, being of Norwegian extract, have few peculiar manners, but retain more of the ancient dress and customs of their ancestors. They are constrained to prepare flour from various plants described by Von Troil; and

* This singular race of men is of a small size, generally about four feet, with short black hair, narrow dark eyes, large heads and high cheek bones, a wide mouth and thick lips, and a swarthy complexion. In the southern part of Finmark they are mingled with Norwegians; but the northern wilderness is wholly their own. They call themselves *Same*, their speech *Same-giel*, and their country *Same Edna*, being probably of the same race as the Samoides. Towards the shore they build huts; and on the mountains use tents of a flatly conic form, and divided by several rude partitions into apartments for themselves, their servants, and cattle.

their



LAPLANDERS



DRESS of the Peasantry of SWITZERLAND.

their chief animal nutriment is dried fish; the common beverage is syra, or sour whey, kept in casks and left to ferment, beer being scarce,

Inland Navigation.] The chief inland navigation of Denmark is the canal of Kiel, so called from a considerable town in the north of Holstein. This canal is intended to unite the Baltic with the river Eydar, which flows into the German sea. The extent of this important canal is about twenty British miles and a half; the breadth one hundred feet at top, and fifty-four at bottom; the least depth is about ten feet, so as to admit vessels of about one hundred and twenty tons. It was begun in July 1777, and was finished in 1785.

Forests.] There are some woods in the Danish isles and forests in Jutland. The Norwegian mountains are generally clothed with pines and firs; and almost the whole country may be regarded as a forest, which supplies Europe with masts and other large timber.

Zoology.] The Danish dominions being of such great extent, and variety of climate and aspect, there is a great diversity in the animal productions. The horses of Norway and Iceland are as remarkable for diminutive size, as those of Holstein are for the contrary quality. Among the more peculiar animals may be first named the rein-deer *, common in Finmark and throughout Lapland.

The elk is a more southern animal, and sometimes appears in Norway, which is infested by the bear, the wolf, and the lynx. The lemming, or Norwegian mouse, proceeds from the ridge of Kolen, and sometimes spreads desolation, like the locust. These animals appear in vast numbers, proceeding from the mountains towards the sea, and devouring every product of the soil: it would seem that after consuming every thing eatable in their course, they at last devour each other. This singular creature is of a reddish colour, and about five inches in length. Norway also boasts of eagles, and its falcons are reckoned the boldest and most spirited of any in Europe. The salmon supplies a considerable part of the Laplander's food; and vast numbers are transported on rein-deer from the shores of the Tana. Hares are also common in that remote region, as well as the bear, lynx, and fox; nor are the glutton and the beaver unknown. About Roras in Norway the latter animal is sometimes found white.

Mineralogy.] In gold Norway yields greatly to the Swedish mines of Aldenfors, and only claims the superiority in silver; the mines of Konigsberg, about forty British miles to the S. W. of Christiana, having been long reputed the richest in Europe; and one mass of native silver in the royal cabinet weighs four hundred and nine marks, being worth three thousand rix-dollars, or six hundred pounds. The veins of metal are from half an inch to more than two feet in thickness. These mines were discovered in 1623 by two peasants. They are worked by thirty-six shafts, and used to yield about seventy thousand pounds annually. They supply the mint with currency, the largest coin being of eight Danish skillings, or four-pence sterling; and it is esteemed a peculiarity of this mine, that it may be little productive during a year or two, when suddenly a rich vein is discovered which amply repays the loss of labour.

Norway also possesses other silver mines at Iarlsberg in the same region, about thirty miles to the N. E. discovered in 1726, but of small account.

The important copper mines of Roras, about sixty-eight British miles S. E. of Drontheim, were discovered in 1644. They are in the southern slope of the chain of Doffra, in a rock of what the Germans call hornschiefer. The veins are from six inches to six ells in thickness; and the ore of a pale yellow. In general the mines of Roras are very productive, and a source of considerable revenue. Other copper mines are at Quickne and Selboe, about fifty miles to the east of Drontheim, and at other places.

The mines of cobalt at Fossum, a recent discovery, must not be passed in silence. This metal yields smalt, or powder blue, used in painting

* This animal resembles a stag, but is stronger; and the deep division of his hoofs is adapted to tread on the snow, being suited by Providence to a cold climate, as the camel is to the hot desert. The antlers of the rein-deer are longer and more branched than those of the stag, and they also decorate the brows of the female. These animals are still numerous in a wild state, though the Laplanders have reclaimed great numbers, which supply the place of horses and cattle.

pottery, and porcelain, and in colouring starch; and the mine is supposed to produce a clear annual revenue to the crown of about £15,000. Near it is a rich vein of quartz, containing large masses of talc.

But the iron mines of Norway are esteemed the most profitable. They are chiefly situated not far from Arindal, in the southern province of Christiansand; and near Skeen, between Arindal and Konigsberg. Lead appears in the vicinity of Konigsberg; and there are alum works near Christiana. In Iceland are found many volcanic productions, particularly black obsidian. The isles of Ferroe produce agate, jasper, and beautiful zeolites. The magnet is also found in Norway: with curious garnets, especially the green, which are little known in other regions.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] The Moskostrom, or Malstrom, is a remarkable whirlpool off the shore of Norland, which will involve boats, and even ships: nay the bellowing struggles of the whale have not always redeemed him from the danger; the bottom is full of craggy spires, and the noise truly tremendous. On the south of the Ferroe isles there is another dreadful whirlpool. The volcanoes of Iceland may also be classed among the grandest features of nature*. The boiling springs of Iceland present a singular phenomenon: that of Geyser, to the north of Skallholdt, is the most remarkable, rising from an aperture, nineteen feet in diameter, and springing at intervals to the height of fifty, or even ninety feet. About twenty miles to the north of Bergen, the rocks abound with singular petrifactions. The mountains are sometimes split and engulphed by subterranean waters, of which Pontoppidan relates some instances, more to be credited, as a similar event recently happened in the south of France. The farm of Borre, in the province of Christiana, was in 1703 swallowed up with all its buildings, and there now remains only a chasm full of ruins and sand.

DANISH ISLANDS.

The prime seat of the Danish monarchy having ever been in the isles of Zeeland, Funen, Laland, Falster, and the others of that group, they have been considered in the general description of the monarchy. In the east, the farthest isle belonging to Denmark is that of Bornholm, a small but fertile spot, conquered by the Swedes in 1645, and surrendered to them by the treaty of Roskild, 1658; but the inhabitants revolted the same year, and restored their isle to the Danish domination, under which it has since continued.

Off the west coast of Jutland are the isles of Nordstrand, Fora, Sylt, Rom, Fanoa, and others, which with Helgeland, were known to the Romans; and the writers of that nation appear often to have confounded them with some of the Orkneys, and even with the islands in the Baltic.

The Norwegian coast presents one continued series of small and unimportant islands, most of them indeed uninhabited. Among a few worthy of mention may be named Karm, Bommel, Sartar, Hitteren, and others at the entrance of the gulph of Drontheim: the Vikten or Viktor islands are followed by those of Loffoden, the most numerous and extensive, and noted for the whirlpool of Malstrom.

For many years the Norwegians held the isles of Orkney and Shetland, which last was styled by them the Land of Hialt, from an adventurer so called, whence the corrupt names of Zetland, Yetland, and Shetland. The Ferroe isles remain an appanage of the Danish crown: they are seventeen in number, and not unfertile, producing some barley, and abundant pasturage for sheep. Small junipers, stunted willows, and birches, alone bear a diminutive image of trees. They were discovered prior to Iceland, in the ninth century; and export feathers, eiderdown, caps, stockings, salted mutton, and tallow. The inhabitants do not exceed five thousand.

The large and celebrated island of Iceland may be regarded as two hundred and sixty British miles in length, from the most western cape to the most eastern, and about two hundred in breadth, from N. to S. but the inhabitants do not exceed fifty thousand. The government was

* Among these, Mount Hekla is the most remarkable, being situated in the southern part of the island, about twenty British miles from the sea, above which it rises to the height of about five thousand feet. The summit is covered with snow, except some spots where the heat predominates. The craters are numerous, but the eruptions rare; there having only been ten from the year 1104 to 1693, after which it remained quiet till 1765, when it emitted flames and lava.

aristocratic republic for about three hundred and eighty seven years, till in 1261 it submitted to Norway.

SWEDEN.

The kingdom of Sweden having been geographically described above, p. 495, which see, we shall content ourselves with a very brief account of it.

NAMES.] Sweden, in the native language Suitheod, and more modernly Sweireke, appears to be a very ancient appellation, and is said, by the northern antiquaries, to imply a country whose woods had been burnt or destroyed.

MODERN DIVISIONS.] The provinces of the Swedish monarchy may be arranged in the following manner:

Sweden Proper contains, 1. Upland, 2. Sudermanland, 3. Nerike, 4. Westmanland, 5. Dalarne, or Dalecarlia. 6. West Gothland. 7. East Gothland. 8. South Gothland.

West Norland contains, 9. Jemtland, 10. Angermanland, 11. Medelpad, 12. Halsingland, 13. Gastrikland, 14. Herjeadalen, 15. West Bothnia.

Swedish Lapland contains, 16. Asele Lappmark, 17. Umea Lappmark, 18. Pitea Lappmark, 19. Lulea Lappmark, 20. Tornea Lappmark, 21. Kemi Lappmark.

East Bothnia contains, 22. Uleaburg, and 23. Wasa.

Finland contains, 24. Kuopio Karelen, or Carelia, 25. Tavastland and Nyland, 26. Abo and Bjorneborg, 27. Kymmengard, 28. Swedish Pomerania, in Upper Saxony.

ANTIQUITIES.] The ancient monuments of Sweden consist chiefly of judicial circles, and other erections of unhewn stone, followed by the monuments inscribed with Runic characters, some of which are as recent as the fifteenth century, and none of them can safely be dated more anciently than the eleventh. Not far from Upsal is the n orasten, or stone on which the king used to be enthroned, as the old Scottish monarchs were at Scone. The ancient temples, called Skior, or Skur, were of wood, and have consequently perished. Some of the old castles, erected since the use of stone, are remarkable for their resemblance to what are called Pictish castles in Scotland.

RELIGION, ECCLESIASTIC GEOGRAPHY.] The religion of Sweden is the Lutheran, and this kingdom has retained an archbishopric with thirteen prelacies. The parishes amount to two thousand five hundred and thirty-seven. The priests are computed at one thousand three hundred and seventy-eight; with one hundred and thirty-four vicars, and one hundred and ninety-two prepositi, or inspectors. Some of the parishes are very extensive, as that of Eastern Bothnia, which is about one hundred and fifty miles in length, by forty-eight in breadth; and another parish in Lapland is still larger.

POPULATION.] The population of the kingdom is thought to exceed three millions.

ARMY.] The Swedish army consists of national troops and of foreign infantry, the latter being computed at about twelve thousand. The total amount of the army may be forty-eight thousand: and the soldiers are of distinguished valour and hardihood, and elated with the former fame of the Swedish arms.

NAVY.] So fatal were the naval operations of 1792, that the Swedish fleet, which consisted of thirty ships of the line, cannot now display above half that number. In the Baltic, which is full of low coasts and shoals, gallies of a flat construction are found more serviceable than ships of war, and of course great attention is paid to their equipment by Sweden as well as Russia.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] The manners and customs of the superior classes in Sweden are so tinged with those of the French, that no striking peculiarity can be observed, and even the peasantry have so much vivacity and address, that they have been stiled the French of the north. The complexion, which in the northern latitudes is generally fair, is here much diversified, being in some provinces extremely brown. The men are commonly robust and well formed, and the women slender and elegant. The natives of the western province of Dalecarlia retain many ancient customs, and have been distinguished for their courage and probity, since the time that Gustaf Wase issued from the mines of that country to break the yoke of Denmark. The Finlanders, on the east of the Bothnic Gulph, are now little distinguishable from the Swedes; and any remarkable

markable peculiarities of manners and customs must be sought in Swedish Lapland. Danish Lapland, however, being more remote, less known, and more recently described; an account of this singular people is given under the article of Denmark.

SWEDISH ISLANDS.

The Swedish isles have been before described. See above p. 504.

PORTUGAL.

The reader who wishes for a further account of Portugal than is here given, is referred to Link's travels in that country, given above, p. 345, &c.

Extent.] Portugal extends about three hundred and sixty British miles in length, by one hundred and twenty in breadth; and is supposed to contain about twenty-seven thousand two hundred and eighty square miles, and a population of one million, eight hundred and thirty-eight thousand, eight hundred and seventy-nine.

Religion.] The religion of Portugal is the Roman Catholic; and a strict observance of its duties forms one of the national characteristics. There are two archbishoprics, and ten episcopal sees: and there is besides a patriarch. The number of parishes approaches four thousand.

Government.] The present situation of Portugal precludes our observation on its government; for in all probability it will shortly experience the fate of other European nations. The population is estimated at two millions.

Colonies.] The chief colony from Portugal is that established in Brasil*; and they still retain Madeira and many settlements on the coast of Africa, with Goa and Macao, in the East Indies, the relics of great power and territory.

Language.] The Portuguese language is more remote from that of Castille than might be expected from the circumstances. As the royal race was of French extract, it is supposed that many of the words are derived from the Limosin and other dialects of the south of France. It is a grave and solemn speech; but would have been little known among foreigners, had it not been diffused by the fame of the Lusiad of Camoens.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The Portuguese manufactures are few and unimportant: hats and paper have been lately fabricated at Lisbon; but the chief manufactories are those of woollen cloth at Covilham, Portalegre, and Azeitaõ.

Climate and Seasons.] The climate of Portugal is familiarly known to be most excellent and salutary. At Lisbon the days of fair weather are computed to amount to two hundred in the year; and those of settled rain seldom exceed eighty. The medial heat is generally about sixty degrees.

Rivers.] The rivers of Portugal have been already enumerated in the description of Spain. The Tajo is here a noble stream, and its estuary near Lisbon affords a capacious haven, from two to nine miles in breadth. Among the native streams may be named the Mondego, which passes by Coimbra; the Soro, which runs into the Tajo; and the Cadaon, which forms the harbour of Sauval. Scarcely a lake can be traced in the map of Portugal.

Natural Curiosities.] On the north bank of the river Douro is a high massy cliff, with engraved letters or hieroglyphics, stained with vermilion and blue; beneath which is a grotto, supposed to abound with bitumen.

SWISSERLAND.

Names.] The provinces known by the collective name of Swisserland, were, in ancient times, distinguished by several appellations. By the Romans they were regarded as a part of Gaul; and the chief possessors were the Helvetii on the west, and the Rhæti on the east. After the fall of the Roman empire, this country may be considered as possessed by the Alemanni on the east; and on the west, as a part of Burgundia. Divided among several lords, secular and spiritual, the inheritances of the former at length chiefly centered in the house of Hapsburg, afterwards the family of Austria; and, on its emancipation, in the beginning of the fourteenth century, first appeared the modern denomination of

* In consequence of the present war carrying on in Portugal, the Prince Regent and the Queen deserted the throne, and flew to the Brazils, which is now made the seat of government.

Swisserland, or Switzerland, either derived from the canton of Schweitz, distinguished in that revolution, or from the general name of Schweitzers, given by the Austrians to this alpine people.

EXTENT.] In length, from east to west, Swisserland extends about two hundred British miles; and in breadth, from north to south, about one hundred and thirty.

DIVISIONS.] The Swiss league, before the French invasion, consisted of thirteen independent confederated cantons, and their subjects and allies *.

The dissolution of the Swiss confederacy by the French invasion took place in 1798.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Swiss countries is in some the Roman Catholic, in others the Reformed. Of the former persuasion are Uri, Schweitz, Underwalden, cantons which founded the liberty of the country, with Zug, Lucerne, Friburg, Solothurn, part of Glaris, and Appenzel. The reformed cantons are of the Calvinistic or Presbyterian persuasion, being the rich and extensive canton of Berne, with Zurich, Basil, or, according to the French enunciation, Basle, Schaffhausen, the greatest part of Glaris, and some portions of Appenzel. The country of the Grisons is chiefly Protestant: and Vallais, an ally of the thirteen cantons, has been the scene of atrocious persecutions on account of its disaffection from the Catholic faith; but the inhabitants, to the amount of about one hundred thousand, now profess the Roman Catholic system. In general the two persuasions live in the most amiable unity and moderation.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Swisserland has been a fertile theme of discussion. The most powerful cantons of Berne, Zurich, Lucerne, and Friburg, had retained much of the feudal aristocratic form; and the insurrection of the peasants, in the middle of the seventeenth century, unites, with repeated discontents, to convey no high practical eulogy on the constitution, as these simple and honest vassals were not influenced by theories of sedition, but acted solely from their own feelings of oppression. In the eye of the most candid observers the aristocracy had degenerated into a venal oligarchy, more intent on procuring the lucrative government of the bailliages than on the promotion of the general advantage. The other cantons were more democratic: but the recent subversion of the government by the French, has reduced Swisserland to a dependent province, with new divisions and arrangements. The laws of course partook of the nature of the government of each canton; and under the aristocracies were sufficiently jealous and severe. Yet Swisserland was one of the happiest countries in Europe, and recommended itself to the most intelligent observers equally by moral and physical grandeur and beauty.

POPULATION.] The population of this country is computed at two millions. But a large portion is uninhabitable.

ARMY.] The military force was reckoned at about twenty thousand; but in the late struggle with France, this force appears to have been divided, and little effectual.

POLITICAL IMPORTANCE AND RELATIONS.] The political importance and relations of Swisserland are immerged in those of the French empire.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] Amidst the general corruption of manners, those of the Swiss have long excited applause, from their moral uniformity, and frank independence. The houses are generally constructed of wood, in the most simple form, with staircases on the outside; yet their appearance singularly coincides with the picturesque character of the country. The dress of the lower ranks is little subject to the laws of fashion, and in many cantons there are regulations to prevent idle ornament. Among the superior classes the manners may be considered as partly German, and partly French; but it may be imagined that at present the latter preponderate. In general the Swiss are remarkable for an intense attachment to their native country; and there are few who do not return there to terminate their existence. This impression is almost irresistible, and liable to be awakened by the most minute circumstances. Hence in the French armies the tune called the Rances des Vaches,

* The following is a list of them:—1. Canton of Berne, with the Pays de Vaud. 2. Canton of Friburg. 3. Canton of Basil. 4. Canton of Soleure. 5. Canton of Schaffhausen. 6. Canton of Zurich. 7. Canton of Appenzel. 8. Canton of Lucerne. 9. Canton of Zug. 10. Canton of Schweitz. 11. Canton of Underwald. 12. Canton of Uri. 13. Canton of Glaris. 14. Principality of Neufchatel (lately subject to Prussia). 15. Bishopric of Basle. 16. County of Baden. 17. The free Bailliages. 18. Turgovia. 19. Tokenburg. 20. The Rhinthal. 21. Lands of the Abbey of St. Gal. 22. Country of Grisons. 23. Valtoline. 24. Italian Bailliages. 25. The Vallais.

often sung by the Swiss milkmaids, when they went to the pastures, was carefully interdicted, because it melted the rough Swiss soldier into tears, and seldom failed to produce desertion. This unconquerable passion seems to arise in part from a moral sensibility to the enchanting ease and frankness of the native manners, and in part from the picturesque features of the country, the verdant hills contrasted with Alpine snows, and delicious vales watered by transparent streams; scenes no where else to be discerned in such perfection, and which must powerfully affect the imagination, the parent of the passions. The modes of dress adopted by the Schweitzers are better described by our plates than they could be by words.

Language.] The language of Swisserland is a dialect of the German; but the French is much diffused, and is often employed by their best authors. In the most southern parts, bordering on Italy, the Valteline, and other territories acquired from Milan, the Italian is the common tongue. Among the Grisons in Engadina, and in some other parts, is spoken what is called the Romanesh, which seems immediately derived from the Latin. The Vallais, or that part of Swisserland watered by the Rhone, has also a particular dialect: and at the city of Sion the French begins to be spoken, as it is also the prevalent language in that beautiful part of the canton of Berne called the Pays de Vaud. The language called the Vaudois, appears to have been confined to the valleys of Piedmont.

Education.] Travellers into Swisserland testify their surprise at the knowledge generally prevalent among the peasantry, so that there is reason to infer that this useful province is not neglected. There is an university of some reputation at Geneva, and another at Basil; with colleges at Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne.

The chief cities and towns have been described before, in Count Stolberg's Travels, see above, p. 401.

Commerce and Manufactures.] Commerce and Manufactures do not much flourish in this inland region. Cattle constitute the chief produce of the country; and some of the cheese forms an export of luxury. The chief linen manufactures were at St. Gal. Printed cottons and watches, also form considerable articles of sale, nor are silk manufactures unknown in Swisserland.

Climate and Seasons.] The climate of Swisserland is deservedly celebrated as salubrious and delightful. From its southern position considerable heat might be expected; but this, though sufficient to mature the grape, is attempered by the cold gales from the Alps and glaciers. When the sun descends beyond Mount Jura, on a summer evening, the Alpine summits long reflect the ruddy splendour, and the lakes for near an hour assume the appearance of burnished gold. The winter is however in some parts extremely severe; and the summer heat, in the deep vales, sometimes oppressive.

Face of the Country.] The face of the country is generally mountainous, the most level parts being the Thergau, and a part of the cantons of Basil, Berne, Zurich, Schaffhausen, Soleure, and Friburg. Even these present what in some countries would be called mountains, from two thousand to two thousand five hundred feet above the level of the sea. No country in the world exceeds Swisserland in diversity of appearance. The vast chain of Alps, with enormous precipices, extensive regions of perpetual snow, and glaciers that resemble seas of ice, are contrasted by the vineyard, and cultivated field, the richly wooded brow, and the verdant and tranquil vale, with its happy cottages and crystal stream. Count Stolberg, however, as above referred to, gives an animated description of this country, insomuch that little remains to be said.

Zoology.] The horses of Swisserland are esteemed for vigour and spirit; and the cattle attain great size. Among the animals peculiar to the Alps, may be first named the ibex, or rock goat. This animal resembles the common goat; but the horns of the male are extremely long and thick. It is more common on the Italian than on the Swiss Alps. The hair is long, and ash coloured, with a black list along the back. The ibex will mount a perpendicular rock of fifteen feet at three springs, bounding like an elastic body struck against a hard substance. In the day he seeks the highest summits, but in the night the nearest woods, browsing on aromatic plants, and dwarf birch, and in the winter on lichens.

Another singular animal is the chamois, which is commonly seen in herds of twenty or thirty, with a centinel, who alarms them with a shrill cry. The colour is yellowish brown; but they sometimes occur speckled. The food is the lichen, with shoots of pine or fir. The marmot is common

mos in the Swiss mountains. In summer they feed on alpine plants, and live in societies, digging dwellings in the ground for summer, and others for winter. About the beginning of October, having provided hay, they retreat to their holes, where they remain torpid till the spring. The skin of this little animal is used for furs. The marmot may be tamed, and shews considerable docility. The size is between that of the rabbit and the hare. Among alpine birds may be named the vulture, called also the golden or bearded vulture. It inhabits the highest alps, forming its nest in inaccessible rocks, and preying on the chamois, white hare, marmot, and sometimes on kids and lambs.

Mineralogy.] The mineralogy of this interesting country is not so important as we might be led to infer from its mountainous nature. Some of the streams wash down particles of gold. Copper and lead are also found: but the chief mines are those of iron, in the county of Sargans. In the canton of Berne there are valuable quarries of rock salt; and it is said that coal and native sulphur are not unknown. But the grand stores of minerals are in Piedmont and the southern sides of the Alps. Rock crystal forms perhaps the chief export of Swisserland, being sometimes found in such large pieces as to weigh seven or eight hundred weight. The calcareous parts of the Alps often present beautiful marbles; and good slates are not uncommon. As to granite and porphyry, the country may be said to consist of them. Among the Alps are also found serpentines, asbestos, with jaspers, agates, and various petrifactions. Among the mineralogic curiosities may be named the adularia, or glassy felspar, on the mountains of Adula, and the tremolite, so called from mount Tremola, near St. Gothard.

Mineral Waters.] Of mineral waters, the most remarkable are those of Leuk. To the S. E. are the baths of Alvenew, which are sulphureous, and resemble Harrowgate water.

Natural Curiosities.] To enumerate the natural curiosities of Swisserland would be to describe the country. The Alps, the glaciers, the vast precipices, the descending torrents, the sources of the rivers, the beautiful lakes and cataracts, are all natural curiosities of the greatest singularity and most sublime description. Of late the glaciers have attracted particular attention; but those seas of ice, intersected with numerous deep fissures, owing to sudden cracks, which resound like thunder, must yield in sublimity to the stupendous summits clothed with ice and snow, the latter often descending in what are called avalanches, or prodigious balls, which, gathering as they roll, sometimes overwhelm travellers, and even villages*.

The vast reservoirs of ice and snow give birth to many important rivers, whose sources deeply interest curiosity†.

AUSTRIA.

Austria has hitherto been considered as a part of Germany, but by the late wars on the continent between the emperor of Germany and the French, the German empire has been much curtailed and dismembered, insomuch that but little remains under the dominion of the former in

* Nay, the mountains themselves will sometimes burst, and overwhelm whole towns, as happened in the memorable instance of Pleurs, near Chiavana, in which thousands perished, and not a vestige of a building was left: nor are recent instances, though less tremendous, wholly unknown.

† As an example, the account which Bourrit gives of that of the Rhone, may be selected. "At length we perceived through the trees a mountain of ice, as splendid as the sun, and flashing a similar light on the environs. This first aspect of the glacier of the Rhone inspired us with great expectation. A moment afterwards this enormous mass of ice having disappeared behind thick pines, it soon after met our sight between two vast blocks of rock, which formed a kind of portico. Surprised at the magnificence of this spectacle, and at its admirable contrasts, we beheld it with rapture. At length we reached this beautiful portico, beyond which we were to discover all the glacier. We arrived: at this sight one would suppose oneself in another world, so much is the imagination impressed with the nature and immensity of the objects. To form an idea of this superb spectacle, figure in your mind a scaffolding of transparent ice, filling a space of two miles, rising to the clouds, and darting flashes of light like the sun. Nor were the several parts less magnificent and surprising. One might see as it were the streets and buildings of a city, erected in the form of an amphitheatre, and embellished with pieces of water, cascades, and torrents. The effects were as prodigious as the immensity and the height; the most beautiful azure, the most splendid white, the regular appearance of a thousand pyramids of ice, are more easy to be imagined than described. Such is the aspect of the glacier of the Rhone, reared by nature on a plan which she alone can execute: we admire the majestic course of a river, without suspecting that what gives it birth and maintains its waters may be still more majestic and magnificent."

comparison

comparison of his vast territory before those commotions. Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Westphalia, and Saxony, have been made separate kingdoms: the title of emperor of Germany was discontinued by order of the French emperor; and the sovereign of Germany was compelled to take that of emperor of Austria. By the last war even the remains of royalty were threatened with dissolution, and there does not appear to be a shadow of a doubt but that the whole of his dominions would have been wrested from him, had he not timely made a peace with the emperor Napoleon, who has since espoused the daughter of the emperor of Austria. The absolute limits of his present dominions, circumscribed as they are, have not yet fully reached us; the principal part, however, seems to be contained in Bohemia, Moravia, Austria, Hungary, Transylvania, and a part of Poland.

ITALY.

THE country of Italy has been so repeatedly described, that it has become familiar even to the common reader: this description shall therefore be restricted to very narrow limits. Italy being now made a separate kingdom, of which the emperor Napoleon is sovereign, we shall consider it as one nation, without regard to its former divisions.

Boundaries, &c.] The boundaries of this country are deeply impressed by the hand of nature; in the Adriatic and Mediterranean seas, and the grand barrier of the Alps, which divide it from France, Swisserland, and Germany. The length of Italy from mount Rosa, the highest summit of the Italian Alps, to the Cape di Lucca, is about six hundred and seventy British miles; while the medial breadth between the Adriatic and Mediterranean is about one hundred; but from the Adige, the recent limit of Austrian power, to the eastern frontiers of the new French departments of Liman and Mont Blanc (formerly Savoy), the breadth is about two hundred miles. The religion is the Roman Catholic. The present population of Italy, with the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, is about thirteen millions. The manners, customs, and dialects are various and discordant, though the general language be the Italian, esteemed the purest in Tuscany, while the enunciation is most perfect at Rome.

Face of the Country.] Italy is decorated with noble architecture, and venerable remains of antiquity, amidst a climate generally serene, though liable to violent rains. In the north the sublime scenery of the Alps is contrasted with the fertile plains, through which many streams flow into the Po. In the centre there are many marshes and standing waters, which occasion what is called the *mal aria*, or a pernicious distemperature of the air; but the varied ridge of the Appenines, and the beautiful prospects of Florence and Tivoli, excite admiration. A great part of Naples is mountainous; but the country beautiful; yet in addition to the fiery eruptions of Vesuvius and Etna, it is exposed to the terrible effects of frequent earthquakes, and the enervating sirocco.

Rivers.] Italy is intersected with rivers in almost every direction, of which the Po is by far the most large and extensive. This noble river, descending from the centre of the western Alps, passes to the N. E. of Saluzzo, by Carignan, to Turin; receiving, even in this short space, many rivers, from the S. and from the N. The other southern rivers are of far less consequence, but among them may be named the Trebbia, the river of Parma, and the Banaro, which joins the Po at Stellato, on the western frontier of the former territory of Ferrara. The course of the Po may be comparatively estimated at about three hundred British miles. The bed of the Po has in modern times been considerably raised, so that in many places banks of thirty feet in height are necessary to preserve the country from inundation. In the middle ages maritime combats took place on the Po, between Venice and some of the inland powers. The other rivers of the north of Italy, are the Adige, the Brenta, the Piavi, and the Tagliamento.

In the centre first appears the Arno, which rises in the Apennines, and flows by Florence and Pisa into the gulph of Genoa. The Tiber is by far the most considerable in the middle, or south of Italy, rising near the source of the Arno, and passing by Rome, to the Mediterranean, which it joins after a course of about one hundred and fifty British miles.

Lakes.] Italy contains many beautiful lakes, particularly

particularly in the northern part. The Lago Maggiore, Greater Lake, or lake of Locarno, is about twenty-seven British miles in length, by three of medial breadth; and the shores abound with alpine beauties, receiving the waters of some other lakes, among which must be mentioned that of Lugano on the east. Still farther to the east is the lake of Como, which is joined by that of Lecco: the lake of Como is about thirty-two British miles in length, but the medial breadth not above two and a half. Yet farther to the east is the small lake of Iseo, which is followed by the noble Lago di Garda, an expanse of about thirty British miles in length by eight in breadth.

MOUNTAINS.] The most important mountains of Italy are the Alps, already described by Count Stolberg, in a former part of this work.

NAPLES AND SICILY.] This division comprises what was the kingdom of Naples and Sicily; but Naples having been subdued by the French, is considered as part of the kingdom of Italy: Sicily, being an island, is at present under its former sovereign, who has fixed his court at Palermo.

The isles of Malta and Gozo are of far more consequence. They are rocky and barren, not producing grain sufficient for half the consumption of a thin population; but may in the hands of the English prove a valuable acquisition. Malta is about fifty British miles in circumference, and is supposed to contain sixty thousand inhabitants. The isle of Gozo is about half the extent, and is rather fertile, the population being computed at three thousand.

The central part of Italy comprehends what was called the Dominions of the Church, (but the pope is now dethroned), and the grand duchy, now kingdom of Tuscany; with a few diminutive states. The territory belonging to the pope reached from near Pesaro to beyond Terracina.

Tuscany has long been celebrated for the arts; and Florence is regarded as the Athens of modern Italy. Tuscany is about one hundred and twenty British miles in length by ninety in breadth; but in consequence of the French ascendancy in Italy, a prince of Spain wields his tributary sceptre of Etruria under the protection of the French empire. Tuscany is one of the most beautiful and fertile regions of Italy, with a temperate and healthy climate. It abounds in corn and cattle, and produces excellent wines and fruit. The manufactures of silk and velvet were formerly celebrated, and still maintain reputation. The mountains in the Siennese, or southern part of Tuscany, contain valuable ores of antimony, copper which is wrought at Massa, and other metals, with slate and yellow marble. The serpentine of Impruneta, seven miles south from Florence, presents beautiful varieties used in ornamental architecture. The Florentine marble is remarkable for picturesque representations of ruins, &c. caused by the infiltration of iron between the laminæ. The Arno receives many small streams; and the Ombrone is a considerable river which pervades the Siennese.

ASIA.

EXTENT.] This great division of the earth extends in length from the Hellespont to the East Cape; that is from twenty-six degrees east from London, to near one hundred and ninety degrees of east longitude; being no less than (taking the degree at a medial latitude) six thousand five hundred geographical miles. From the southern cape of Malacca to the cape of Cevero Vostochnoi, on the Arctic Ocean, the breadth extends from about two degrees of northern latitude to about seventy-seven degrees, or nearly four thousand five hundred geographical miles. If, for the sake of a rude and merely comparative calculation, one sixth part be added for the difference between the statute and geographical mile, the length of Asia in British miles would be about seven thousand five hundred and eighty-three, and the breadth five thousand two hundred and fifty.

Asia is limited, on the east, by a strait which divides it from America, and which, in honour of the discoverer, is called Beering's Strait. The northern and southern boundaries are the Arctic and Indian Oceans, in which last many large islands, particularly that of New Holland, now styled by some *Australasia*, affords a vast additional extent to this quarter of the globe.

ORIGINAL POPULATION.] The population of Asia is allowed to be primitive and original; if we except that of the Techuks or Tchuktchi,

who are supposed to have passed from the opposite coast of America. A few colonies have migrated from Russia to the northern parts, as far as the sea of Kamchatka; and there are well known European settlements in Hindostan and the isles to the S. E.; but the first serious attempt to colonize what is esteemed a part of Asia was the recent settlement at Port Jackson. With these and other trifling exceptions Asia presents a prodigious original population.

After the discovery of America and the Cape of Good Hope, the maritime parts and islands of Asia were successively disclosed. Yet the recent voyages of the Russian navigators, of our immortal Cook, and of the unfortunate La Perouse, evince that much remained to be done; and concerning the interior of Siberia scarcely any solid information arose, till Peter the Great, after the battle of Pultowa, sent many Swedish prisoners into that region; and Strahlenberg, one of the officers, published an account of Siberia. This knowledge was greatly improved and increased by the well known genius of Pallas, and others. Yet our knowledge of Asia is far from being perfect, especially in respect to Daouria, and other regions near the confines between the Russian and Chinese empires; not to mention central Asia in general, Tibet, and some more southern regions; nor had even the geography of Hindostan been treated with tolerable accuracy, till Major Rennell published his map and memoir.

Seas.] Asia is washed by a part of the Mediterranean, the Red Sea, the Arabian Sea, and gulph of Persia; the bays of Bengal and Nankin; and other gulphs, which diversify the coasts.

The Red Sea, or the Arabian gulph, constitutes the grand natural division between Asia and Africa; but its advantages have chiefly been felt by the latter, which is entirely destitute of other inland seas. The Red Sea extends about twenty-one degrees, or one thousand four hundred and seventy British miles.

The Persian Gulf is about half the length of the former, being the grand receptacle of those celebrated rivers the Euphrates and the Tigris.

The Caspian Sea, which is entirely inland, extends about ten degrees, or seven hundred miles in length, and is from one hundred to two hundred in breadth. To the east, this remarkable sea is supposed to have extended, at no very remote period, to the lake of Aral; the deserts on that side presenting the same features as those to the north, though there be now an elevated level between the Sea of Aral and the Caspian. The northern shores are low and swampy, often overgrown with reeds; but in many other parts the coasts are precipitous, with such deep water that a line of four hundred and fifty fathoms will not reach the bottom. This sea is the receptacle of many important rivers.

About one hundred miles to the east of the Caspian, is the Sea or Lake of Aral, which is about two hundred miles in length, and about seventy miles in breadth, receiving the river Sirr or Sihon, and the river Gihon, the Oxus of antiquity, both streams of considerable course, flowing from the mountains of Belur Tag, or Imaus. The Sea of Aral, being surrounded with sandy deserts, has been little explored; but it is salt, like the Caspian, and there are many small saline lakes in the vicinity.

Another remarkable detached sea is that of Baikal, in Siberia, or Asiatic Russia, extending from about the fifty-first to the fifty-fifth degree of north latitude, being about three hundred and fifty British miles in length, but its greatest breadth not above thirty-five. The water is fresh and transparent, yet of a green or sea tinge, commonly frozen in the latter end of December, and clear of ice in May. The Baikal is, at particular periods, subject to violent and unaccountable storms, whence, as terror is the parent of superstition, probably springs the Russian name of Svetoie Morè, or the Holy Sea, There are many seals, and abundance of fish, particularly a kind of herring called omuli. Several islands appear, and that of Olchon has sulphureous springs. The chief river flowing into the Baikal is the Selinga, from the south, while from the north it emits the Angara, which joins the prodigious stream of the Yenisei.

Of the other Asiatic seas a minute account would be superfluous; but a few observations may be offered on the remarkable strait which divides Asia from America. This strait, which was discovered by Beering, and afterwards by Cook, is about forty miles in breadth. Beering, a Dane, was employed by Peter the Great, in 1728, and actually passed this strait, probably in the usual fogs of the climate, without discovering

covering land to the east; but our great navigator gave the name of the Danish adventurer to these straits, when he afterwards explored them with his usual accuracy. On the Asiatic shore is the East Cape, and on the American that called Prince of Wales. The depth of the strait is from twelve to thirty fathoms. To the north of these straits the Asiatic shore tends rapidly to the westward; while the American proceeds nearly in a northern direction, till, at the distance of about four or five degrees, the continents are joined by solid and impenetrable bonds of ice.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

Extent.] Asiatic Turkey extends from the shores of the Egean Sea, or Archipelago, to the confines of Persia; a space of about one thousand and fifty British miles. The boundaries towards Persia are rather ideal than natural, though somewhat marked by the mountains of Ararat and Elwend. In the north the Turkish territories are now divided from the Russian by the river Cuban, and the chain of Caucasus; in the south they extend to the junction of the Tigris and the Euphrates, which last river, for a considerable space, divides the Turkish possessions from those of the Arabs. From the river Cuban to the junction of the Tigris and Euphrates, is about one thousand one hundred British miles.

Divisions.] This extensive territory is divided into nine or ten provinces. Natolia, the most westerly, is followed by Karaman in the south, and Roum, in the north-east. To the north of Armenia are Guria, or Guriel, Mingrelia, and the Abkhas of Caucasus, the ancient Circassians. Armenia is also styled Turcomania; to the south of which are Kurdistan, and Irak Arabi, a part of ancient Persia around the celebrated capital, Bagdad. The ancient Mesopotamia, between the Tigris and the Euphrates, now partly corresponds with the province of Algezira; and the classical name of Syria, or Soria, is still allotted to the celebrated countries along the eastern extremities of the Mediterranean.

Antiquities.] The most splendid ruins are those of Palmyra, or Tadmor in the Desert, about one hundred and fifty miles S. E. of Aleppo, at the northern extremity of the sandy wastes of Arabia.

Balbec, the ancient Heliopolis, is about fifty miles to the N. W. of Damascus, the most remarkable ruin being that of a temple, supposed to have been dedicated to the sun.

The Turkish empire in Asia is estimated at four hundred and seventy thousand, four hundred square miles, and the population at ten millions; which, allowing eight for the European part, will render the total eighteen millions.

Manners and Customs.] In general the most striking feature of manners and customs, in the Turkish empire, is, that half the people may be considered as somewhat civilized, while the other half are pastoral wanderers, ranging over extensive wastes. This laxity of government renders travelling in Asia Minor very unsafe, and has proved a great impediment to any exact geographical knowledge of these regions. Under a prudent government, the wandering hordes of Turcomans and Kurds would be expelled; and regular troops and garrisons maintained on the frontiers; when industry and the arts might again visit this territory.

Climate and Seasons.] The climate of Asia Minor has always been considered as excellent. There is a peculiar softness and serenity in the air, not perceivable on the European side of the Archipelago. The heat of the summer is tempered by the numerous chains of high mountains, some of which are said to be covered with perpetual snow.

Face of the Country.] The general appearance of Asiatic Turkey may be regarded as mountainous; but intermingled with large and beautiful plains, which, instead of being covered with rich crops of grain, are pastured by the numerous flocks and herds of the Tureomans. The soil, as may be expected, is extremely various; but that of Asia Minor is chiefly a deep clay; and wheat, barley, and durra, form the chief products of agriculture. But excellent grapes and olives abound; and the southern provinces are fertile in dates. In Syria the agriculture is in the most deplorable condition. The peasants, though not sold with the soil, like those of Poland, are, if possible, yet more oppressed; barley bread, onions, and water, forming their constant fare.

Rivers.] The principal river of Asiatic Turkey is the Euphrates, which rises from the mountains of Armenia, a few miles to the N. E. of Erzeron: and chiefly pursues a S. W. direction

tion to Semisat, where it would fall into the Mediterranean, if not prevented by a high ridge of mountains *. At Semisat, the ancient Samosata, this noble river assumes a southerly direction; then runs an extensive course to the S. E. and after receiving the Tigris, falls by two or three mouths into the Gulph of Persia. The comparative course of the Euphrates may be estimated at about one thousand four hundred British miles.

Next in importance is the Tigris, which rises to the north of the Medan, about one hundred and fifty miles south from the sources of the Euphrates, and pursues nearly a regular direction S. E. till it joins the Euphrates below Korna, about sixty miles to the north of Bassora; after a comparative course of about eight hundred miles. The Euphrates and the Tigris are both navigable a considerable distance from the sea.

The third river in Asiatic Turkey is that called by the Turks Kizil Irmak, rising in mount Taurus, not far from Erekli, but by other accounts more to the east, and pursuing a winding course to the north, nearly across the whole of Asia Minor, till it joins the Euxine Sea on the west of the gulf of Sansoun. The river Sicaria, the ancient Sangarius, or Sangaris, rises about fifty miles to the south of Angora, and running to the N. W. joins the Euxine, about seventy miles to the east of Constantinople.

Lakes.] Asiatic Turkey also contains numerous lakes. That of Van, in the north of Kurdistan, is the most remarkable, being about eighty British miles in length, from N. E. to S. W. and about forty in breadth: it is said to abound with fish.

In Syria what is called the Dead Sea, may be regarded as a lake of about fifty miles in length, and twelve or thirteen in breadth. The lake of Rackama, to the south of Hilla, and the ancient Babylon, is about thirty miles in length, and flows into the Euphrates.

Mountains.] Many of the mountains of Asiatic Turkey deserve particular attention, from their ancient celebrity. The first rank is due to the Taurian chain of antiquity, which was considered as extending from the neighbourhood of the Archipelago to the sources of the Ganges, and the extremities of Asia, so far as discovered by the ancients. The Caucasian mountains have been well delineated by the Russian travellers, as forming a range from the mouth of the river Cuban, in the N. W. to where the river Kur enters the Caspian, in the S. E.

Towards the east of Armenia is Ararat, a detached mountain, with two summits, the highest being eternally covered with snow. In one of the flanks is an abyss, or precipice, of prodigious depth, the sides being perpendicular, and of a rough black appearance, as if tinged with smoke. This mountain belongs to Persia, but is here mentioned on account of connexion.

In Syria the most celebrated mountain is that of Lebanon, or Libanus, running in the southerly and northerly direction of the Mediterranean shore, and generally at the distance of about thirty or forty miles. The Anti-Libanus is a short detached chain, running nearly parallel on the east. These mountains are of considerable height, the summits being often covered with snow.

Forests.] The numerous mountains in Asiatic Turkey are often clothed with immense forests of pines, oaks, beeches, elms, and other trees. The southern shores of the Black Sea also present many gloomy forests of great extent. The abundance of timber supplies the inhabitants with fuel; nor has pit coal been explored in any part of Asiatic Turkey.

Zoology.] The best horses in Asiatic Turkey are of Arabian extract, and are sparingly fed with a little barley and minced straw, to accustom them to abstinence and fatigue; but mules and asses are in more general use.

In Asiatic Turkey appears that king of ferocious animals the lion; yet he rarely roams to the west of the Euphrates: but Tournefort observed many tygers on Mount Ararat. He must mean the small tyger, or perhaps the leopard, for the royal or large tyger seems to be restricted to the wastes of Hindostan. The hyæna and the wild boar are known animals of Asia-Minor, together with troops of jackals, which raise dreadful cries in the night. The cities and vil-

* In this part of its course the Euphrates is joined by the Morad from the east, a stream almost doubling in length that of Euphrates; so that the latter river might more justly be said to spring from mount Ararat, about one hundred and sixty British miles to the east of the imputed source.

lages swarm with dogs, which are allowed to wander, as a constant defence against strangers or enemies.

The ibex, or rock goat, appears on the summits of Caucasus. The common antelope is also an inhabitant of Asia Minor, with numerous deers and hares. The partridges are generally of the red legged kind, about a third larger than the common European.

ISLANDS BELONGING TO ASIATIC TURKEY.

The chief islands in the Archipelago, considered as belonging to Asia, are Mytilene, Scio, Samos, Cos, and Rhodes.

Mytilene, the ancient Lesbos, is the most northerly and largest of these isles, being about forty British miles in length, by twenty-four at its greatest breadth. The mountainous appearance of this isle is agreeably diversified with bays and inlets of the sea, and plantations of olives, vines, and myrtle. There are hot baths issuing from cliffs resembling those of St. Vincent near Bristol, and which indicate the isle to be chiefly calcareous. The climate is exquisite: and it was anciently noted for wines, and the beauty of the women.

Scio, the ancient Chios, is about thirty-six British miles in length, but only about thirteen in medial breadth. The Chian wine is celebrated by Horace, and retains its ancient fame. The town of Scio, on the east side of the isle, is handsome and convenient. The Greeks here enjoy considerable freedom and ease; and display such industry that the country resembles a garden. This particular favour arises from the cultivation of the mastic trees, or rather shrubs, for they are small evergreens which supply the gum, so acceptable to the ladies of the seraglio. The whole isle is mountainous. Opposite to Scio, on the Asiatic shore, is Chesmé, where the Turkish fleet was destroyed by the Russians, 1770. The inhabitants of Scio are supposed to be about sixty thousand.

Samos is about thirty miles long, and ten broad. This isle is crossed by a chain of hills, and the most agreeable part is the plain of Cora. Tournefort computes the inhabitants at twelve thousand, all Greeks with a Turkish Aga or military officer, and a cadi or judge. The pottery of Samos was anciently excellent; but at present most branches of industry are neglected. Pitch is prepared from the pine trees in the north part of the island, and the silk, honey, and wax are esteemed. Most of the mountains are of white marble, and swarm with game of various descriptions. The best haven is that of Vati to the N. W. Some remains are observed of the celebrated temple of Juno.

Cos is about twenty-four miles long, by three or four broad; but has been little visited by modern travellers. Pliny styles Cos a most noble isle; and from it was first derived the name and substance of the whetstone. It is now covered with groves of lemon trees. Its chief trade is in oranges and lemons; and Cos is the residence of a Turkish Pasha.

Rhodes is about thirty-six British miles in length, by fifteen in breadth, an island celebrated in ancient and modern times. It is fertile in wheat, though the soil be of a sandy nature. The population is computed at about thirty thousand. The city of the same name, in which no Christian is now permitted to dwell, stands in the north end of the isle; and was anciently noted for a colossus in bronze, about one hundred and thirty feet high.

Along the southern shore of Asia Minor there are some small isles, among which is that of Castel Rosso, S. E. of Patira. But they are of no moment when compared with the large and celebrated island of Cyprus, which is about one hundred and sixty British miles in length, and about seventy at its greatest breadth. The soil is fertile, yet agriculture is neglected. The chief products are silk, cotton, wines, turpentine, and timber. The wine of Cyprus is deservedly celebrated. The oranges are excellent; and the mountains are covered with hyacinths and anemonies, and other beautiful flowers. Cyprus is supposed to have derived its name from the abundance of copper ore; and it is said to have produced gold, silver, and emeralds. What is called the Paphian diamond is a rock crystal, found near Paphos; and there is a quarry of amsanthus, while several hills consist chiefly of talc. The other mineral productions are red jasper, agates, and umber. The Cypriots are a tall and elegant race; but the chief beauty of the women consists in their sparkling eyes. To the disgrace of the Turkish govern-

vernment the population of this extensive island is computed at fifty thousand souls! Cyprus is pervaded by a chain of mountains, among which is a third *Olympus*, some primitive name, which seems to have been general for a mountain of great height. There is not one river in the island that continues its course in the summer; but there are many ponds, lakes, and fens, producing a damp and malignant air. The chief cities are Nicosia, the capital and residence of the governor, and Famagusta.

ASIATIC RUSSIA.

EXTENT.] This large portion of the globe extends almost the whole length of Asia, from about the fifty-seventh degree of longitude east of London to more than one hundred and ninety degrees. As the northern latitude is very high, the degree shall only be assumed at thirty miles, and the length may thus be computed at about four thousand geographical miles. The greatest breadth from Cape Cevero Vostochnoi, to the Altaian chain of mountains on the south of the sea of Baikal, may be twenty-eight degrees or one thousand six hundred and eighty geographical miles. In British miles the length may be roughly computed at four thousand five hundred and seventy; and the breadth at one thousand nine hundred and sixty, an extent which will be found to exceed that of Europe.

BOUNDARIES.] The farthest eastern boundary is that of Asia, and the seas of Kamchatka and Ochotsk; while the northern is the Arctic Ocean. On the west the frontiers correspond with those between Asia and Europe. The river Cuban, part of the Caucasian chain, and an ideal line, divide the Russian territory from Turkey and Persia. The boundary then ascends along the north of the Caspian through the stepp or desert of Issim, and the eastern shore of the river Ob, to where it issues from the Altaian mountains, when it meets the vast empire of China; and proceeds along that chain to the sources of the Onon, where it includes a considerable region called Daouria, extending about two hundred miles in breadth, to the south of the mountains called Yablonny; the limit between Russia and Chinese Tatary being partly an ideal line; and partly the river Argoon, which, joined with the Onon constitutes the great river Amur. Thence the boundary returns to the mountainous chain, and follows a branch of it to a promontory on the north of the mouth of the Amur.

ANTIQUITIES.] The most curious antiquities seem to be the stone tombs which abound in some stepps, particularly near the river Yenesei, representing in rude sculpture human faces, camels, horsemen with lances, and other objects. Here are found, besides human bones, those of horses and oxen, with fragments of pottery and ornaments of dress.

RELIGION.] The Grecian system of the Christian faith, which is embraced by the Russians, has made inconsiderable progress in their Asiatic possessions. Many of the Tatar tribes in the S. W. are Mohammedans; and others follow the superstition of Dalai Lama. But the more eastern Tatars are generally addicted to the Shaman religion, a system chiefly founded on the self-existence of matter, a spiritual world, and the general restitution of all things.

POPULATION.] The population of Siberia cannot be computed at above three millions and a half; so that Europe can in future have little to apprehend from the Tataric swarms. Small Russian colonies have been established in several of the distant provinces and isles.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] The manners and customs of Asiatic Russia vary with the numerous tribes by whom that extensive region is peopled. The Tatars, properly so called, are the most numerous, not only remaining in their ancient kingdom of Sibir, but constituting many other tribes in the west, as the Nogays, the Kirguses or Kaizaks, the Bashkirs, and other tribes as far as the sources of the river Ob. Next in importance are the Monguls, of whom one tribe, the Kalmuks, are found to the west of the Caspian; while the others, called Burats, Torguts, &c. are chiefly around the sea of Baikal. Yet farther to the east are the Mandshurs, or Tunguses. Such are the three radically distinct divisions of men, whom former European ignorance classed under the general name of Tartars.

The manners of the Tatars, who are the same people with the ancient Huns, are minutely described by those authors who have delineated the

fall of the Roman empire, prior to which period they seem to have been absolutely unknown. The manners of the Monguls of the Russian empire, who are wholly Nomadic, and their herds consist of horses, camels, oxen, sheep, and goats. The women tan leather, dig the culinary roots, prepare the winter provisions, dried or salted, and distil the koumiss, or spirit of mare's milk. The men hunt the numerous beasts and game that roam through the vast wilds. Their tents are formed of a kind of felt, and in some parts they erect little temples, and the priests have also wooden hovels around the temples. The Kalmyks are divided into three ranks; the nobility, whom they call white bones; the common people, who are bond-men, and termed black bones; and the clergy, descending from both, who are free. In like manner the noble ladies are called white flesh, and the common people black flesh; but the pedigrees are only reckoned by the bones. The power of the *Taidsha*, or chief prince, consists in the number and opulence of his subjects, territory being of no estimation in so wide a region. These subjects form an *Oluss*, divided into *Imaks*, from one hundred and fifty to three hundred families, each Imak being commanded by a *Saissan*, or noble. If there be a great Khan, or emperor, the princes are only guided by him in affairs of general importance. The tribute is about a tenth part of the cattle and other property; but, on the first summons, every man must appear on horseback before the prince, who dismisses those who are unfit for the fatigues of war. The weapons are bows, lances, and sabres, and sometimes fire-arms; and the rich warriors are clothed in mail of interwoven rings, like that used in Europe till the fifteenth century. But they cannot oppose regular armies, and are apt even to disorder those of their allies.

The Monguls are rather short in stature, with flat visage, small oblique eyes*, thick lips, and short chin, with a scanty beard; the hair black, and the complexion of a reddish or yellowish brown; but that of the women is clear, and of a healthy white and red. They have surprising quickness of sight and apprehension, and are docile, hospitable, beneficent, active, and voluptuous. Industry is a virtue entirely female, yet great, and accompanied with perpetual cheerfulness. Their religious books are in the dialect of Tangut, or Tibet, and there is a schoolmaster in every imak, who imparts more knowledge to the boys than would be expected. Animal food is abundant, and sometimes mixed with vegetable, while the general drink is water; but they sometimes indulge in sour milk, prepared after the Tatarian manner, butter-milk, and koumiss; but mead and brandy are now greater favourites. When pasturage begins to fail, the whole tribes strike their tents, generally from ten to fifteen times in the year, proceeding in the summer to the northern, and in the winter to the southern wilds. The herds, men, women, and children, form a regular procession, and are followed by the girls, singing with harmony and spirit. The amusements of these jovial wanderers consist in running races on horseback, in which even the girls excel; archery, wrestling, pantomime, dances, and the songs of the young women, generally accompanied by the lute, viol, and pipe, the themes of their ditties being gigantic tales of chivalry, and amorous adventures and sentiments; but the melody is harsh and dismal. Cards are not unknown, but chess is the favourite game.

Language.] The languages of all these original nations are radically different; and among the Tunguses, Monguls, and Tatars, there are some slight traces of literature: and not a few manuscripts in their several languages.

Cities and Towns.] In Asiatic Russia the principal city is Astracan, at the mouth of the Volga, which is supposed to contain seventy thousand inhabitants. Astracan is built on several small hills, that rise amid the meadows of the Volga. The fortress on the west is triangular, but the walls of the city are neglected. The wooden houses have exposed it to frequent conflagrations, and attempts have been vainly made to enforce the use of brick. The Armenians, Lutherans, and Papists, have their places of worship; and even the Hindoos have been permitted to erect a temple. The chief trade of

* The eye ascending towards the temples, like the Chinese, seems a peculiar feature of the Monguls and Mandshurs. The Tatar eye is small, but strait, or horizontal.

Astracan

Astracan is in salt and fish, particularly sturgeon and kaviar, from the Volga; and it also attracts some portion of oriental commerce.

Manufactures.] There are some manufactures, particularly in leather, at Astracan; and salt is prepared there, and in several other places in Asiatic Russia. Isinglass is chiefly manufactured on the shores of the Caspian, from the sounds or air bladder of the sturgeon, and the beluga. Kaviar is the salted roe of large fish. There is a considerable fabric of nitre, about forty miles to the north of Astracan. The Tatars and Bashkirs make felts of a large size, some of which are exported. The Russia leather is chiefly fabricated in the European provinces, being tanned with willow bark, and afterwards stained. Shagreen is prepared from the hides of horses or asses, but only a particular part of the back is fit for this purpose; and the grain is given with the hard seeds of the greater orach, pressed into the leather while moist. Pitch is made by the boors from the pines of Siberia. Near the Uralian mountains are several manufactures in iron and copper.

Climate and Seasons.] Through the greater part of Siberia, the most southern frontiers being about fifty degrees, while the northern ascends to seventy-eight degrees, the general climate may more justly be regarded as frigid than temperate; being, in three quarters of the country, on a level with that of Norway and Lapland, untempered by the gales of the Atlantic. To the south of the sea of Baikal the climate parallels that of Berlin and the north of Germany, so that the finest and most fertile regions in middle Asia belong to the Chinese. The chains of high mountains, which form the southern boundary of these provinces, also contribute to increase the cold; and the sea of Baikal is commonly entirely frozen from December till May. The finest climate in these eastern parts seems to be that of Daouria, or the province around Nershinsk; and the numerous towns on the Amur evince the great superiority of what is called Chinese Tatary, which is comparatively a fertile and temperate region. The change of the seasons is very rapid; the long winter is almost instantaneously succeeded by a warm spring, and the quickness and luxuriance of the vegetation exceed description.

Soil and Agriculture.] Many parts of Siberia are totally incapable of agriculture: but in the southern and western districts the soil is remarkably fertile. Toward the north of Kolyvan barley generally yields more than twelve fold, and oats commonly twenty fold. Buck wheat, in this black light mould, is apt to run into stalk, but sown in the poorest spots, yields from twelve to fifteen fold.

Rivers.] Some of the largest rivers of Asia belong to the Russian empire, nearly equalling in the length of their course any others on the globe. The Ob, including its wide estuary, may be said to hold a comparative course of one thousand nine hundred British miles, while that of the Yenesei is about one thousand seven hundred and fifty, and that of the Lena one thousand five hundred and seventy. In the same mode of mensuration the Hoan Ho of the Chinese will, in its wandering progress, exceed the Ob; while the Kian Ku, pervading the centre of China, may be traced, if the Porticho be included, for a length of about two thousand three hundred miles!

Lakes.] In the north of Siberia the most considerable lake is that of Piazinsko. In the south the sea of Baikal is fresh. Between the river Ob and the Irtish is a large lake, about half the length of the Baikal, or one hundred and seventy miles in length, divided by an island into two parts, called the lakes of Tchany and Soumy. In this quarter there are many smaller lakes, and others to the north of the Caspian, some of which are salt, particularly that of Bogdo.

Forests.] Asiatic Russia is so abundant in forests, that particular names have not been assigned to so vast an extent. On the west of the government of Irkutsk an enormous dark and marshy forest of resinous trees extends to the river Kan. The northern and eastern parts of Siberia are bare of wood; the Norway fir not being found farther north than lat. sixty degrees, while the silver fir does not exceed lat. fifty eight degrees. In Europe, on the contrary, the Norway fir forms extensive forests in Lapmark, within the arctic circle.

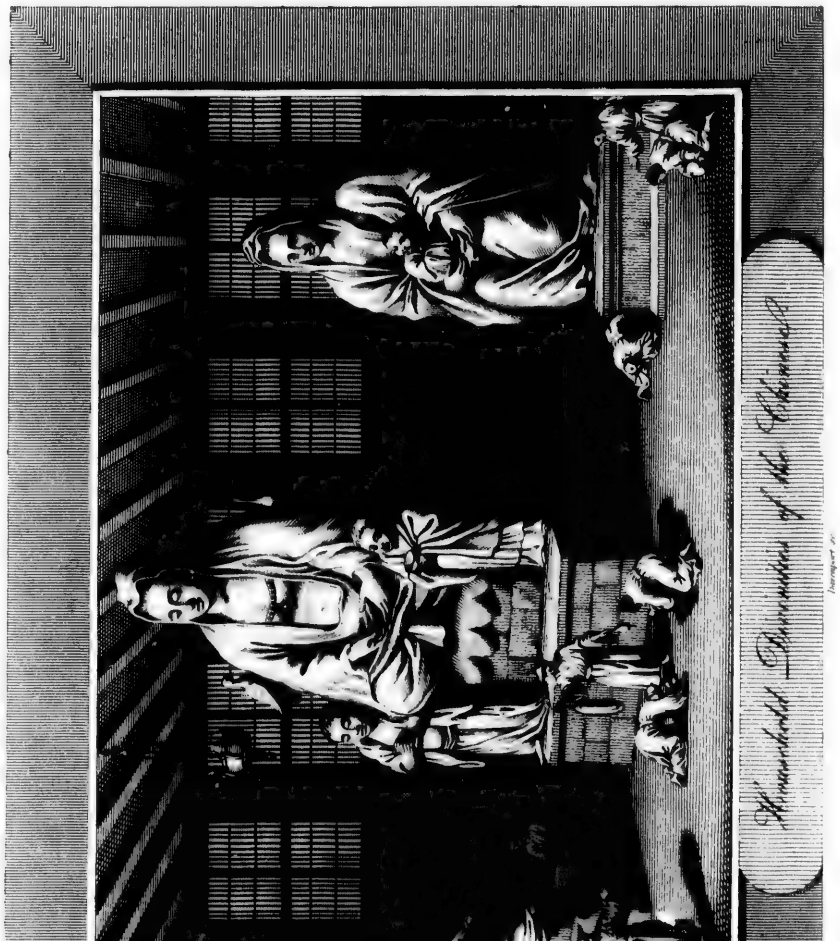
Stepps.] These are extensive level plains, an appearance of nature almost peculiar to Asia, and some parts of European Russia: but somewhat similar to the sandy deserts of Africa. The stepps are not so barren of vegetation, being mostly

JUPITER, *an Idol of the* CHINESE.

NEPTUNE,

of the Chinese.

QUANTRONG, Dressing for the Character.


Marshal Ney receiving the Flag of Truce

mostly only sandy, with scattered patches of thin grass, and at wide intervals a stunted thicket. Between the mouths of the Don and Volga is a stepp which resembles the bed of a sea; with spots of salt, and saline lakes, being entirely destitute of fresh water and wood.

On the eastern side of the Volga begins an extensive stepp, which reaches about seven hundred British miles from E. to W.; and, including Issim, nearly as far from N. to S. but on the N. of the Caspian the breadth does not exceed two hundred and twenty.

This stepp of Barabin, N. W. of Omsk, is about four hundred miles in length, and three hundred in breadth, containing a few salt lakes, but in general of a good black soil, interspersed with forests of birch.

Mineralogy.] The mineralogy of Siberia displays many singular and interesting objects.

The chief gold mines of Siberia are those of Catherinenburg, or Ekaterinenburg, on the east of the Uralian mountains, about lat. fifty-seven degrees, where an office for the management of the mines was instituted in 1719. The mines of various sorts extend to a considerable distance on the N. and S. of Catherinenburg; and the foundries, chiefly for copper and iron, are computed at one hundred and five. But the gold mines of Beresof, in this vicinity, were of little consequence till the reign of Elizabeth. The mines of Nershinsk, discovered in 1704, are principally of lead, mixed with silver and gold; and those of Kolyvan, chiefly in the Schlangenberg, or mountain of serpents, so called by the German miners, began to be worked for the crown in 1748.

The gold is sometimes found native, but generally mingled with various substances, particularly silver.

Besides the copper mines in the Uralian mountains, there are also some in those of Altai.

The CHINESE EMPIRE.

THE utmost extent of the Chinese empire may be considered as four thousand nine hundred British miles long, and nearly two thousand and thirty British miles broad.

China Proper extends from the Great Wall in the north, to the Chinese Sea in the south, about one thousand one hundred and forty geographical, or one thousand three hundred and thirty British miles. The breadth, from the shores of the Pacific to the frontiers of Tibet, may be computed at eight hundred and eighty-four geographical, or nearly one thousand and thirty British miles. In square miles the contents have been estimated at one million two hundred and ninety-seven thousand nine hundred and ninety-nine, and in acres at eight hundred and thirty millions, seven hundred and nineteen thousand, three hundred and sixty. On the east and south the boundaries are maritime, and to the north they are marked by the Great Wall and the desert of Shamo.

Antiquities.] Among the remains of Chinese antiquity may be mentioned the pagodas, or ornamented towers, sometimes erected in commemoration of great events; many temples, which are low buildings of a different construction from the pagodas; and some triumphal arches, which boast considerable antiquity.

But the chief remain of ancient art in China is that stupendous wall, extending across the northern boundary. This work, which is deservedly esteemed among the grandest labours of art, is conducted over the summits of high mountains, some of which rise to the height of five thousand two hundred and twenty-five feet, across the deepest vales, over wide rivers by means of arches; and in many parts is doubled or trebled to command important passes, and at the distance of almost every hundred yards is a tower or massy bastion. The extent is computed at one thousand five hundred miles; but in some parts of smaller danger it is not equally strong nor complete, and towards the N. W. is only a rampart of earth. Near Koopeko the wall is twenty-five feet in height, and at the top about fifteen feet thick: some of the towers, which are square, are forty-eight feet high, and about fifty feet wide. The stone employed in the foundations, angles, &c. is a strong grey granite; but the greatest part consists of blueish bricks, and the mortar is remarkably pure and white.

Religion.] According to Du Halde the ancient Chinese worshipped a supreme being, whom they stiled Chang Ti, or Tien, which is said to imply the spirit which presides over the heavens; but in the opinion of others, is only the visible firmament. They also worshipped subaltern spirits, who presided over kingdoms, provinces,

cities, rivers, and mountains. Under this system, which corresponds with what is called Shamanism, sacrifices were offered on the summits of hills.

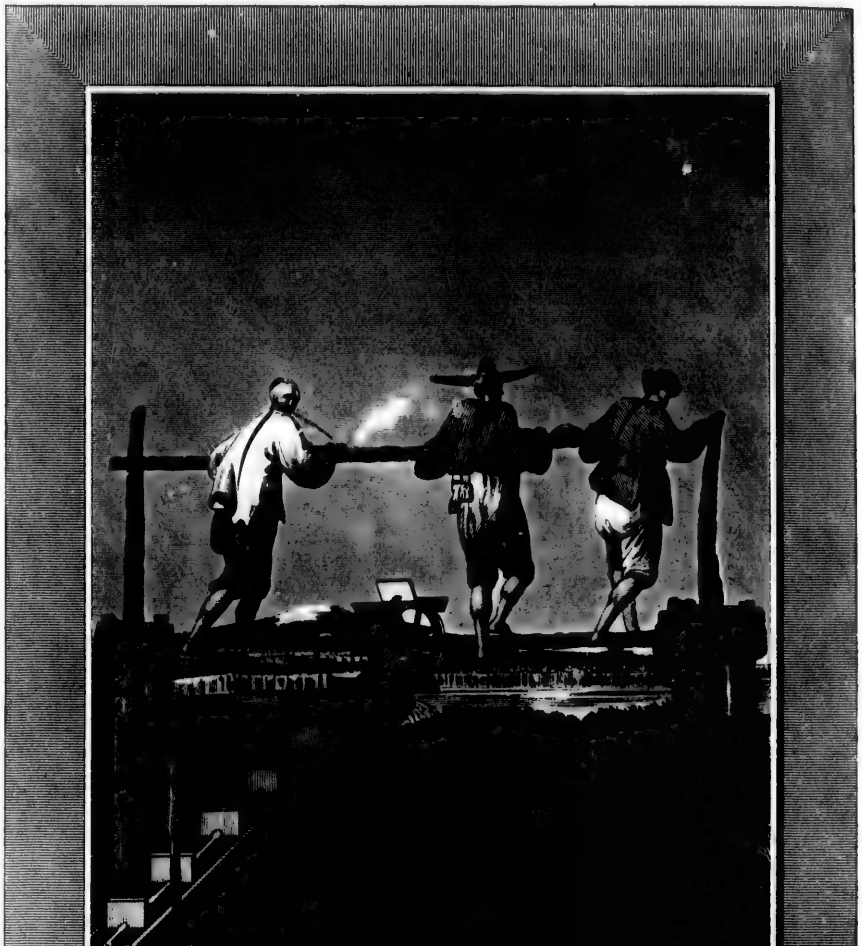
About A. D. 65, the sect of Fo was introduced into China from Hindostan. The name was derived from the idol Fo, (supposed to be the Boodh of Hindostan,) and the chief tenets are those of the Hindoos, among which is the metempsichosis, or transition of souls from one animal to another. The priests are denominated Bonzes, and Fo is supposed to be gratified by the favour shown to his servants. Many subordinate idols are admitted; but as the Jesuits found the followers of Fo the most adverse to Christianity, they have absurdly enough called them Atheists.

Population.] The population of China has been a topic of considerable debate; but it is probable, from the calculation in Neuhoff's Travels, that the population is about two hundred and thirty millions; and not three hundred and thirty three millions, as calculated by Sir George Staunton.

Manners and Customs.] In visiting the sea ports of China, foreigners have been commonly impressed with the idea of fraud and dishonesty; but it is to be supposed that these bad qualities are not so apparent where there are fewer temptations. The indolence of the upper classes, who are even fed by their servants, and the nastiness of the lower, who eat almost every kind of animal, in whatever way it may have died, are also striking defects, though the latter may be occasioned by necessity in so populous a country. To the same cause may be imputed the exposition of infants. On the other hand, the character of the Chinese is mild and tranquil, and universal affability is very rarely interrupted by the slightest tincture of harshness or passion. The general drink is tea, of which a large vessel is prepared in the morning for the occasional use of the family during the day. Marriages are conducted solely by the will of the parents, and polygamy is allowed. The bride is purchased by a present to her parents, and is never seen by her husband till after the ceremony. It is not permitted to bury in cities or towns, and the sepulchres are commonly on barren hills and mountains, where there is no chance that agriculture will disturb the bones of the dead. The colour of mourning is white, that personal neglect or forgetfulness may appear in its squalor; and it ought on solemn occasions to continue for three years, but seldom exceeds twenty-seven months. The walls of the houses are sometimes of brick, or of hardened clay, but more commonly of wood; and they generally consist only of a ground floor, though in those of merchants there be sometimes a second story, which forms the warehouse. The houses are ornamented with columns, and open galleries, but the articles of furniture are few. The dress is long, with large sleeves, and a flowing girdle of silk. The shirt and drawers vary according to the seasons, and in winter the use of furs is general, from the skin of the sheep to that of the ermine. The head is covered with a small hat in the form of a funnel, but this varies among the superior classes, whose rank is distinguished by a large bead on the top, diversified in colour according to the quality. The dress is in general simple and uniform; and on the audience given to Lord Macartney, that of the emperor was only distinguished by one large pearl in his bonnet. The chief amusement of the Chinese seem to be dramatic exhibitions, fire-works, in which they excel all other nations: and feats of deception and dexterity.

Language.] The language is esteemed the most singular on the face of the globe. Almost every syllable constitutes a word, and there are scarcely one thousand five hundred distinct sounds; yet in the written language there are at least eighty thousand characters, or different forms of letters, so that every sound may have about fifty senses. The leading characters are denominated keys, which are not of difficult acquisition.

Cities and Towns.] The chief cities of China are Pekin and Nankin, or the northern and southern courts, the former being the Cambula, or city of the Chan, in writings of the middle ages, the capital of Cathay, as Nankin was of Mangi. Pekin occupies a large space of ground; but the streets are wide, and the houses seldom exceed one story. The length of what is called the Tatar city is about four miles, and the suburbs are considerable. By the best information which the recent embassy could procure, the population was computed at three millions. The houses indeed are neither large nor numerous; but it is common to find three generations, with all their wives and children, under one roof, as they



CHINESE method of Working the CHAIN PUMP.

A.W. Warren sc.

they eat in common, and one roof contains many beds. The neatness of the houses, and various repletion of the shops, delight the eye of the visitor.

Nankin, which was the residence of the court till the fifteenth century, is a yet more extensive city than Pekin, and is reputed the largest in the empire. The walls are said to be about seventeen British miles in circumference. The chief edifices are the gates, with a few temples; and a celebrated tower clothed with porcelain, about two hundred feet in height. Such towers were styled pagodas by the Portuguese, who supposed them to be temples; but they seem to have been chiefly erected as memorials, or as ornaments, like the Grecian and Roman columns.

Edifices.] The most striking and peculiar edifices in China are the pagodas or towers, already mentioned, which sometimes rise to the height of nine stories, of more than twenty feet each. The temples, on the contrary, are commonly low buildings, always open to the devout worshippers of polytheism. The whole style of Chinese architecture is well known to be singular, and is displayed with the greatest splendour in the imperial palace at Pekin.

Inland Navigation.] The canals of China have long excited the wonder of other nations. As the two grand rivers Hoanho and Kianhu bend their course from west to east, the chief object was to intersect the empire from north to south; which was in a great measure accomplished by the imperial canal. This wonderful work, which in utility and labour exceeds the enormous wall, is said to have been begun in the tenth century of the Christian era, thirty thousand men having been employed for forty-three years in its completion.

To enumerate the other canals of China would be infinite, as there is a large canal in every province, with branches leading to most of the towns and villages.

Manufactures and Commerce.] The manufactures of China are so multifarious as to embrace almost every article of industry. The most noted manufacture is that of porcelain, and is followed in trade by those of silk, cotton, paper, &c. The porcelain of China has been celebrated from remote ages, and is chiefly prepared from a pure white clay called kaolin; while the petunsi is understood to be a decayed feltspar. Some writers add soap, rock, and gypsum.

The internal commerce of China is immense, but the external trade is unimportant, considering the vastness of the empire; a scanty intercourse exists with Russia and Japan: but the chief export is that of tea, which is sent to England, to the value of about one million yearly.

Mineralogy.] Among the metals, lead and tin seem to be the rarest. China possesses mines of gold, silver, iron, white copper, common copper, and mercury, together with lapis lazuli, jasper, rock crystal, load stone, granite, porphyry, and various marbles. According to some, rubies are found in China; but others assert that they come from Ava.

In many of the northern provinces coal is found in abundance. The common people generally use it pounded with water, and dried in the form of cakes. Pekin is supplied from high mountains in the vicinity, and the mines seem inexhaustible, though the coal be in general use.

Mines of silver are abundant, but little worked, from an apprehension of impeding the progress of agriculture. The gold is chiefly derived from the sand of certain mountains, situated in the western part of the provinces of Sechuen and Yunnan, towards the frontiers of Tibet. That precious metal is seldom used except by the gilders, the emperor alone having solid vessels of gold.

Tutenag, which is a native mixture of zinc and iron, seems to be a peculiar product of China, and in the province of Houquang there was a mine which yielded many hundred weight in the course of a few days.

The copper of Yunnan, and other provinces, supplies the small coin current through the empire; but there is a singular copper of a white colour, called by the Chinese *petong*, which deserves particular notice. This metal must not be confounded with the tutenag, an error not unfrequent. It is indeed sometimes mingled with tutenag to render it softer.

CHINESE ISLANDS.

Numerous isles are scattered along the southern and eastern coast of China, the largest being those of Taiwan, also called Formosa, and that of Hainan. Formosa is a recent acquisition of the Chinese in the latter end of the seventeenth century; the natives being

being by the Chinese accounts little better than savages. It is divided from north to south by mountains, and the chief Chinese possessions are in the western part.

The southern part of Hainan is mountainous, but the northern more level, and productive of rice. In the centre there are mines of gold; and on the shores are found small blue fishes, which the Chinese esteem more than those which we call gold and silver fish; but they only survive a few days when confined to a small quantity of water.

CHINESE TATARY.

Extent.] This wide and interesting portion of Asia, which has repeatedly sent forth its swarms to deluge the arts and civilization of Europe, extends about three thousand one hundred geographical miles. The breadth, from the northern frontier of Tibet, to the Russian confines, is about one thousand and eighty geographical miles.

Religion.] The religion most universally diffused in this part of Asia is what has been called Shamanism. The kalkas were accustomed to acknowledge a living Lama.

Manners and Customs.] The Mandshurs are little distinguishable in their manners from the Monguls. By the account of the jesuits they have no temples, nor idols, but worship a Supreme Being, whom they style Emperor of Heaven. But probably their real creed is Shamanism, or a kind of rational polytheism.

Languages.] The three languages of the Mandshurs, Monguls, and Tatars, radically differ from each other; the former of which appears to be the most learned and perfect of the Tataric idioms.

Climate.] Though the parallel of central Asia corresponds with that of France, and part of Spain, yet the height and snows of the mountainous ridges occasion a degree and continuance of cold little to be expected from other circumstances. In climate and productions it is however far superior to Siberia.

Mountains.] The vast ranges of mountains which intersect central Asia have never been scientifically described, and few of them have even received extensive and appropriate appellations. On the west the great chain called Imaus by the ancients, the Belar Tag, or Dark Mountains of the natives, runs from N. to S.

Mineralogy.] The mineralogy of central Asia has been little explored. Gold is found both in the eastern and western regions, and the former are also said to produce tin. As Russian Daouria exhibits so many valuable substances, it is reasonable to conclude that they equally abound in the Chinese territory, if similar skill and industry were exerted in their detection. The mineral waters, and uncommon appearances of nature, have been little investigated.

TIBET.

The account of this interesting country must unfortunately be limited in the topics, as the materials are far from being ample. The recent narrative of Captain Turner's journey shall be selected as the most authentic: but it only embraces a small part, and for the general geography recourse must be had to more antiquated authorities. Tibet, with its numerous independencies, may in fact be still arranged among the *undiscovered* countries in the centre of Asia.

Extent.] According to the most recent maps, Tibet may be about one thousand three hundred and fifty geographical miles long; and its breadth may be about four hundred and eighty geographical miles. The original population has not been accurately examined; but as the people of Bootan, which is regarded as a southern province of Tibet, are said to differ essentially and radically from the Hindoos, and somewhat to resemble the Chinese, it may perhaps be concluded that they belong to that grand race of men which approaches the Tataric, though they cannot be regarded as Manshurs, Monguls, or Tatars Proper.

Religion.] The religion of Tibet seems to be the schismatical offspring of that of the Hindoos. It is reported to have received its earliest admission in that part of Tibet bordering upon India, (which from hence became the seat of the sovereign lamas;) to have traversed over Mantchieux Tatary, and to have been ultimately disseminated over China and Japan. It still bears a very close affinity with the religion of Brahma in many important particulars, but differs materially in its ritual, or ceremonial worship. Tibetians assemble in chapels, and unite together in prodigious numbers to perform their religious service, which they

they chaunt in alternate recitative and chorus, accompanied by an extensive band of loud and powerful instruments. There are also numerous monasteries, containing crowds of *gylongs*, or monks, with a few *annees*, or nuns.

CHARACTER, &c.] Mr. Turner represents the character of the Tibetians as extremely gentle and amiable. The men are generally stout, with something of the Tataric features, and the women of a ruddy brown complexion, heightened like the fruits by the proximity of the sun, while the mountain breezes bestow health and vigour.

The ceremonies of marriage are neither tedious nor intricate in Tibet. Their courtships are carried on with little art, and quickly brought to a conclusion. The priests of Tibet, who shun the society of women, have no share in these ceremonies, or in ratifying the obligation between the parties, which, it seems, is formed indissoluble for life.

It is a remarkable characteristic of the country, that polygamy here assumes a different form from that of other oriental regions: the women being indulged in a plurality of husbands, instead of the reverse. It is the privilege of the elder brother to select a wife, who stands in an equal relation to his other brothers, whatever may be the number.

Such is the respect paid to the lama, that his body is preserved entire in a shrine; while those of the inferior priests are burnt, and their ashes preserved in little hollow images of metal. But in general the dead bodies are exposed to the beasts and birds of prey, in walled areas; and an annual festival is held, as in Bengal and China, in honour of the dead.

A curious idea of the manners and customs of the Tibetians may be formed from Mr. Turner's account of his interview with the lama, then an infant not capable of speech; for in the spirit of the eastern metempsychosis, they suppose that the soul of the lama passes from his late body into another, which they discover by infallible marks.

Upon the whole, the Tibetians appear to have made a considerable progress in civilization; but the sciences continue in a state of imperfection; the year, for instance being lunar, and the month consisting of twenty-nine days.

CITIES AND TOWNS.] Of the cities and towns of Tibet little is known. The capital is Lassa; and several other names in the southern part assume the character of towns in the maps, though probably mere villages. There being little commerce, there is no middle class of people; but the transition is rapid, from the miserable hut to the stone palace or monastery.

CLIMATE.] The climate of Bootan may be said to be temperate, when compared with that of Tibet Proper; yet the winters are very severe even in the former country. The spring is marked, from March to May, by a variable atmosphere; heat, thunder storms, and occasionally with refreshing showers. From June to September is the season of humidity, when heavy and continued rains fill the rivers to their brim, which run off from hence with rapidity to assist in inundating Bengal. From October to March a clear and uniform sky succeeds, seldom obscured either by fogs or clouds. For three months of this season a degree of cold is felt, far greater perhaps than is known to prevail in Europe. Thus the distinguishing characteristic of the climate is that extreme dry, and parching cold which, under the latitude of twenty-six degrees, rivals that of the Alps in latitude forty-six degrees.

RIVERS.] The chief river of Tibet is, beyond all comparison, the Sampoo or Burhampooter, which rising in the western region, from the same lofty mountains that give source to the Ganges, proceeds in an E and S. E. direction for about the space of one thousand English miles, to the confines of Tibet and Asam, where it bends S. W. and flows into the estuary of the Ganges, after a farther course of about four hundred British miles.

LAKES.] These Alpine regions contain, as usual, many lakes, the most considerable being represented under the name of Terkiri, about eighty British miles in length, and twenty-five broad.

MINERALOGY.] The mineralogy is better known from the account appended to Mr. Turner's Journey in 1783, from which it appears that Bootan does not probably contain any metal except iron, and a small portion of copper; while Tibet Proper, on the contrary, seems to abound with rich minerals. Gold is found in great quantities, sometimes in the form of dust, in the beds of rivers, sometimes in larger masses, and irregular veins. There is a lead mine, two days journey

from Teshoo Lumboo, the ore being galena. Cinnabar, rich in quicksilver, is also found; and there are strong indications of copper. Rock salt is another product of Tibet. But in general the metals cannot be worked, as there is a complete deficiency of fuel; and coal would be far more precious than gold.

JAPAN.

The Japanese islands may in some measure be compared with Great Britain and Ireland, forming a grand insular power near the eastern extremity of Asia, like that of the British isles near the western extremity of Europe.

Extent.] The length of Kiufiu from N. to S. is about two degrees, or one hundred and forty British miles; the greatest breadth about ninety. Sikokf is about ninety British miles in length by about half the breadth. The grand isle of Niphon is in length, from S. to N. E. not less than seven hundred and fifty British miles; but is so narrow in proportion, that the medial breadth cannot be assumed above eighty, though in two projecting parts it may double that number. These islands are divided into provinces and districts, as usual in the most civilized countries.

To the N. of Niphon is another large isle, that of Jesso, or Chicha, which having received some Japanese colonies, is generally regarded as subject to Japan; but being inhabited by a savage people, is rather considered as a foreign conquest than as a part of the civilized empire.

Religion.] The established religion of Japan is a polytheism, joined with the acknowledgment of a Supreme Creator. There are two principal sects, that of Sinto and that of Budsdo. The first acknowlege a Supreme Being, far superior to the little claims and worship of men, whence they adore the inferior deities as mediators, the idea of a mediator being indispensable in almost every form of religion. They abstain from animal food, detest bloodshed, and will not touch any dead body.

The priests are either secular or monastic; the latter alone being entrusted with the mysteries. The festivals and modes of worship are cheerful, and even gay; for they regard the gods as beings who solely delight in dispensing happiness. Besides the first day of the year, and three or four other grand festivals, the first day of the month is always kept as a holiday. There are several orders of monks and nuns, as in the Roman Catholic system; but human nature is every where the same.

The sect of Budsdo was imported from Hindostan, being the same with that of Budha or Budh, reported to have been in Ceylon about one thousand years before the birth of Christ. Passing through China and Corea it has been mingled with foreign maxims, but the tenet of the metempsychosis remains; wicked souls being supposed to migrate into the bodies of animals, till they have undergone a due purgation.

Laws.] The superiority of the laws of Japan over those of Europe has been loudly proclaimed by Kæmpfer. The parties themselves appear, and the cause is determined without delay. Thunberg informs us that the laws are few, but rigidly enforced, without any regard to persons, partiality, or violence. Most crimes are punished with death, but the sentence must be signed by the privy council at Jeddo. Parents and relations are made answerable for the crimes of those whose moral education they ought to have superintended. The police is excellent, there not only being a chief magistrate of each town, but a commissary of each street, elected by the inhabitants to watch over property and tranquillity. Two inhabitants in their turn nightly patrole the street to guard against fire. The best proof that the laws are salutary is that few crimes are committed, and few punishments are inflicted. The brief code is posted up in every town and village, in large letters, in a spot surrounded with rails.

Manners and Customs.] The people of this nation are well made, active, free and easy in their motions, with stout limbs, although their strength is not to be compared to that of the northern inhabitants of Europe. They are of a yellowish colour all over, sometimes bordering on brown, and sometimes on white. Ladies of distinction, who seldom go out in the open air, without being covered, are perfectly white. It is by their eyes, like the Chinese, these people are distinguishable. These organs have not that rotundity which those of other nations exhibit; but are oblong, small, and are sunk deeper in the head, in consequence of which these people have almost the appearance of being pink eyed. Their eyes

eyes are dark brown, or rather black; and the eye-lids form in the great angle of the eye a deep furrow, which makes the Japanese look as if they were sharp sighted, and discriminates them from other nations. The eyebrows are also placed somewhat higher. Their heads are in general large, and their necks short: their hair black, thick, and shining, from the use they make of oils. Their noses, though not flat, are yet rather thick and short.

This highly civilized people display great diversity of character, but the virtues far preponderate over the vices: and even their pride is useful, as it prevents them from stooping to the mean tricks of the maritime Chinese. The Japanese use great varieties of food and sauces. The master or mistress of the house is not harassed with the trouble of carving, the meat being previously cut into small pieces, served up in basons of porcelain, or japanned wood. The general drink is sacki, or beer made of rice: which last article also supplies the place of bread. They use many kinds of vegetables and fruits. The use of tea is also universal; but wine and spirituous liquors are unknown.

The houses of the Japanese are of wood, coloured white, so as to resemble stone; and though roomy and commodious, never exceed two stories in height, the upper serving for lofts and garrets, and seldom being occupied. Each house forms but one room, which may be divided into apartments at pleasure, by movable partitions sliding in grooves. They use neither chairs nor tables, sitting on straw mats, the meal being served apart to each on a small square wooden salver. In Jeddo the houses are covered with tiles; but the general fabric is a frame work of wood, split bamboos, and clay.

The dress consists of trowsers: and what we call night gowns, or loose robes of silk or cotton, are universally worn by both sexes. These are fastened by a girdle; the number being increased according to the coldness of the weather. Stockings are not used; and the shoes are commonly of rice straw. The men shave the head from the forehead to the nape, but the hair on the sides is turned up, and fastened at the crown of the head: conical hats made of grass are worn on journies, but the fashion of wearing the hair forms the economical covering of the head.

Climate and Seasons.] The heat of summer is in Japan extremely violent, and would be insupportable, were not the air cooled by the sea breezes. Equally severe is the cold in the winter, when the wind blows from the north or north-east. The weather is changeable throughout the year; and there are abundant falls of rain, especially in the satsuki, or rainy months, which begin at midsummer. This copious moisture is the chief cause of the fertility of Japan, and its consequent high degree of population.

Volcanoes.] Near Firando there is a volcanic island, nor are others unknown in the surrounding seas. In the province of Figo there is a volcano which constantly emits flames; and another, formerly a coal mine, in the province of Tsikuser.

THE BIRMAN EMPIRE,

COMPRISING THE KINGDOMS OF AVA AND PEGU.

BEFORE the appearance of a recent interesting publication, scarcely any thing was known concerning this new empire; and geographers were constrained to detail the old accounts, which are little satisfactory; but since we have given an account of Mr. Symes's embassy above, p. 547, nothing remains to be said in this place. The Birman empire derives its name from the Birmahs, who have been long known as a warlike nation in the region formerly styled India beyond the Ganges; the capital city of their kingdom being Ava. Pegu is by the natives styled Bagoo; being the country situated to the south of the former, and justly inferred to have been the Golden Chersonese of the ancients.

MALACCA.

THE peninsula of Malacca is situated on the south of the Birman empire. The Portuguese are regarded as the first discoverers of it, in 1509, to which they were led by the vain idea of finding the golden Chersonese of the ancients. In 1511 the Portuguese conquered the peninsula.

Extent.] Malacca is about five hundred and sixty British miles in length, by about one hundred and fifty miles of medial breadth, a territory sufficiently ample for a powerful monarchy, had its native productions corresponded with its extent.

Language.] The Malayan language has been justly,

justly called the Italian of the east, from the melody of frequent vowels and liquids. The Arabic character is made use of; and an influx of words of that language has followed the adoption of the Mohammedan religion. They write on paper, using ink of their own composition, and pens made of the twigs of a tree. The purest Malay is still supposed to be spoken in the peninsula, and has no inflection of nouns or verbs.

Character.] The Malays are restless, fond of navigation, war, plunder, emigration, colonies, desperate enterprises, adventures, and gallantry. They talk incessantly of their honour and their bravery, whilst they are universally considered by those with whom they have intercourse as the most treacherous, ferocious people on the face of the globe; and yet they speak the softest language of Asia. This ferocity is so well known to the European companies who have settlements in the Indies, that they have universally agreed in prohibiting the captains of their ships, who may put into the Malay islands, from taking on board any seamen of that nation, except in the greatest distress, and then on no account to exceed two or three. It is nothing uncommon for a handful of these savages suddenly to embark, attack a vessel by surprize, poignard in hand, massacre the people, and make themselves masters of her. Malay barks, with twenty-five or thirty men, have been known to board European ships of thirty or forty guns, in order to take possession of them, and murder with their poignards great part of the crew. The Malay history is full of such enterprises, which mark the desperate ferocity of these barbarians.

SIAM.

Extent and Boundaries.] THE extent of the Siamese dominions has been recently restricted by the encroachments of the Birmans, nor can some of the limits be accurately defined. The length of the kingdom is about seven hundred British miles; but of this about one half is not above seventy miles in medial breadth.

Religion.] The religion of the Siamese, like that of the Birmans, resembles that of the Hindoos; and the transmigration of souls forms an essential part of the doctrine; but they imitate the Chinese in their festival of the dead, and in some other rites of that singular nation.

Navy.] The navy is composed of a number of vessels of various sizes, some of which are richly decorated. Hence, as in the Birman history, naval engagements are not uncommon; and the large rivers of exterior India are often reddened with human gore. Both the Birman and Siamese vessels frequently display a singular fantastic elegance.

Manners and Customs.] There is a considerable similitude in the manners and customs of all the states between the vast countries of China and Hindostan. The women are under few restraints, and are married at an early age. The espousals are concluded by female mediation; and on the third visit the parties are considered as wedded, after the exchange of a few presents, without any further ceremony civil or sacred. Polygamy is allowed; but is rather practised from ostentation than any other motive, and one wife is always acknowledged as supreme.

The Siamese funerals considerably resemble those of the Chinese. The body is inclosed in a wooden bier or varnished coffin; and the monks called Talapoins, (perhaps from their *talapan*, or peculiar umbrella,) sing hymns in the Bali tongue. After a solemn procession the body is burnt on a funeral pile of precious woods, erected near some temple; and the spectacle is often rendered more magnificent by the addition of theatrical exhibitions, in which the Siamese excel. The tombs are in a pyramidical form, and those of the kings large and lofty. Mourning is not prescribed by the laws, as in China; and the poor are buried with little ceremony.

The common nourishment of the Siamese consists in rice and fish, both which articles are abundant. They also eat lizards, rats, and several kinds of insects.

The houses are small, and constructed of bamboos upon pillars, to guard against inundations, so common in this country. They are speedily destroyed and replaced; and a conflagration, if a common, is at the same time a slight calamity. Even the palaces only exceed the common habitations by occupying a more extensive space, and being constructed of timber, with a few ornaments; they are also of a greater height, but never exceed one floor.

Produce.] The productions of the country are prodigious quantities of grain, cotton, benjamin; sandal, aguallo, and sapan woods; antimony, tin, lead, iron, load-stone, gold, and silver;

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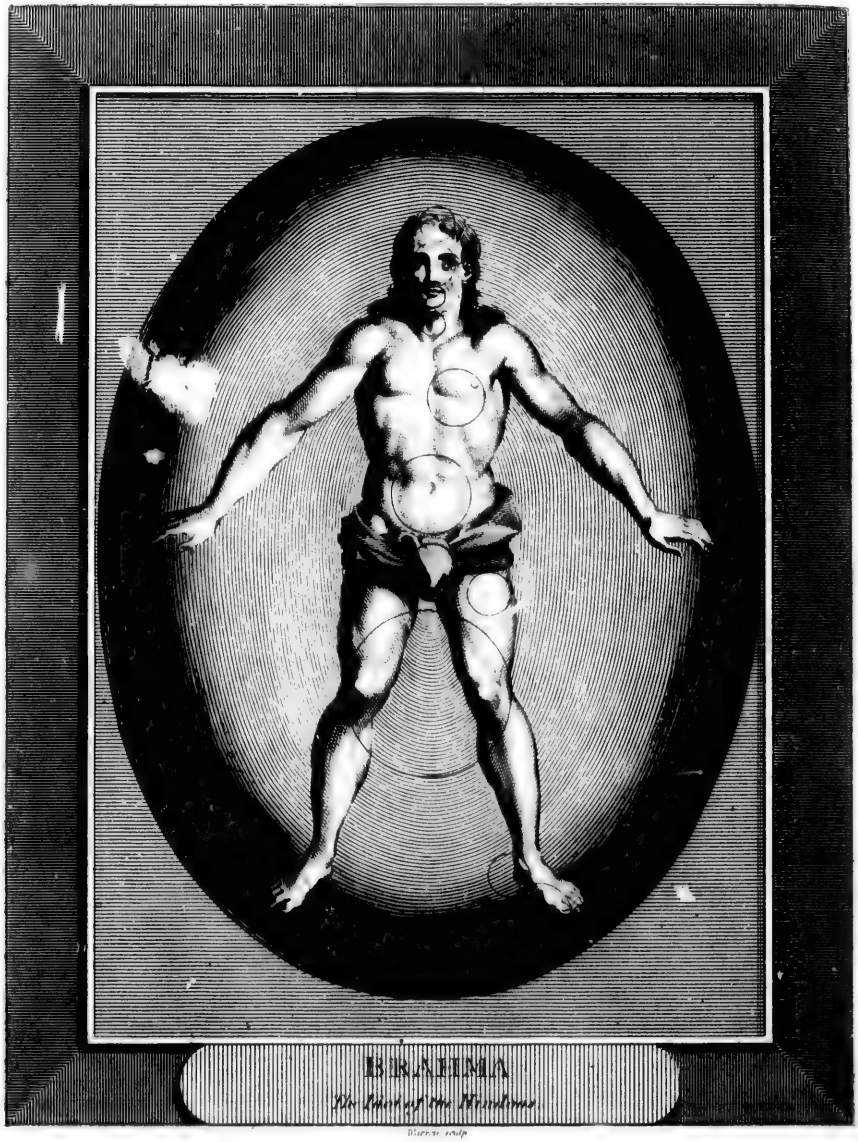

BRAHMA
The Creator of the Hindoos

silver; sapphires, emeralds, agates, crystal, marble, and tombac.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.] The two first months of the Siamese year, which correspond with our December and January, form the whole winter of this country; the third, fourth, and fifth, belong to what is called their little summer; the seven others to their great summer. Being on the north of the line, their winter of course corresponds with ours; but is almost as warm as a French summer. The little summer is their spring; but autumn is absolutely unknown in their calendar. The winter is dry; the summer is moist; the former is distinguished by the course of the wind, which blows almost constantly from the north, refreshed with cold from the snowy mountains of Tibet, and the bleak wastes of Mongolia.

RIVERS.] The grand river Meinam, which signifies the *mother of waters*, reigns supreme among the Siamese streams. It is very deep and rapid, always full, and, according to Kæmpfer, larger than the Elbe. He adds, that the inhabitants suppose its source to be in the mountains which give rise to the Ganges, and that it branches through Cambodia and Pegu. The inundations are in September, after the snows have greatly melted in the northern mountains, and the rainy season has commenced. In December the waters decline, and sink by degrees to their former level. The water, though muddy, is pleasant and salutary.

The other states of exterior India, are Laos, Cambodia, Siampa, Cochin-China, and Tunquin; countries unimportant in themselves, and concerning which the materials are so very imperfect, that no European could give a just account of them.

HINDOSTAN.

NAME.] THE native name of this celebrated country is said to be, in the ancient Sanscrit language, Bharata. That of Hindostan seems to have been imposed by the Persians, and derived from the great western river, with the Persian termination *Stan*, which signifies a country *.

BOUNDARIES.] This portion of Asia extends from Cape Comorin, in the south, to the mountains of Cashmir, in the north; being nearly equal to one thousand eight hundred and ninety British miles. From the river Araba, on the west of the province of Sinde, to the mountains which divide Bengal from Cassay and the Birman dominions, its breadth is about one thousand six hundred British miles.

RELIGION.] The religion of the Hindoos is artfully interwoven with the common offices of life; and the different casts are supposed to originate from Brahma, the immediate agent of creation under the Supreme Power, in the following manner: *Brahmin* from the mouth (wisdom): To pray, to read, to instruct. The *Chehteree*, from the arms (strength): To draw the bow, to fight, to govern. The *Brice*, from the belly or thighs (nourishment): To provide the necessaries of life by agriculture and traffic. The *Sooder*, from the feet (subjection): To labour, to serve.

POPULATION.] The population of this extensive part of Asia is supposed to amount to sixty millions, of which the British possessions may now perhaps contain a quarter, especially as frequent recent conflicts have thinned the population in many other parts of Hindostan.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] The manners and customs of the Hindoos are intimately blended with their religion, and are universally similar, with a few exceptions in mountainous and other districts. One of the most singular begins to expire, that of giving the living widow to the same flames with her husband's corpse. The ancients represent the Bramins as accustomed to terminate their own lives on funeral piles lighted by themselves. But by what refinement of cruelty this custom was extended to involuntary and helpless females has not appeared; perhaps the cause was to enforce the preservation of their husband's health by making their life depend on his.

As soon as a child is born, it is carefully registered in its proper cast, and astrologers are consulted concerning its destiny; for the Hindoos, like the Turks, are strict predestinarians. A Bramin imposes the name. The infant thrives by what we would call neglect; and no where

* The term Hindostan, however, seems to be wholly Persian; for *Hindoo*, in that language, signifies *Black*, and *Stan*, *a country*; so that, if this derivation be exact, *Hindostan* signifies *The Country of Blacks*; which perfectly describes the people, especially if compared with the natives of Persia.

are seen more vigour and elegance of form. The boys are generally taught reading and writing by Bramins, but the girls are confined at home till their twelfth year. Polygamy is practised, but one wife is acknowledged as supreme. It is well known that the Hindoos are extremely abstemious, and wholly abstain from animal food and intoxicating liquors; yet if we judge from the fanatic penances, suicides, and other superstitious frenzies, no where on earth is the mind so much disordered. The houses are built of earth or bricks, covered with mortar, and sometimes with excellent cement, having small apertures, which serve for windows. There is generally only a ground floor, inclosing a court, with a small gallery supported by slight wooden pillars. The amusements consist of religious processions; but though dancing girls abound, yet theatrical exhibitions do not seem so common as in the countries farther to the east.

Languages.] The general ancient language of Hindostan is believed to have been the Sanscrit, an original and refined speech, compared by Sir William Jones with the Greek and Latin. The more common dialects are chiefly the following: 1. That of Kandi, in the interior of Ceylon. 2. The Tamulic, used in the Deccan. 3. The Malabar language. 4. The Canarin. 5. The Marashda language. 6. The Talenga. 7. The Bengallee; a wretched dialect. 8. The Devanagaric or Hindostanee. 9. The Guzaratic. 10. The Nepaulic.

Manufactures.] The manufactures of Hindostan have been celebrated from early antiquity, particularly the muslins and other fabrics from cotton. Piece goods, as we call them, are mentioned by the author of the Periplus, and other ancient writers, who praise the manufacture and and the beautiful colours with which it was dyed. The Hindoos, in the time of Strabo, were also noted for elegant works in metals and ivory. Nor is Hindostan celebrated at this day for any manufacture, except those of muslins and calicoes, the other exports consisting of diamonds, raw silks, with a few wrought silks, spices, drugs, &c. The shawls of Cashmir are also deservedly esteemed; being there woven from a material chiefly supplied by Tibet. Painting is in its infancy; and they are strangers to shade and perspective. Sculpture is as little advanced as painting, the design and execution being alike bad; yet the temples are sometimes majestic and solemn. In most trades very few tools are employed. The simple loom is reared in a morning under a tree, and carried home in the evening.

Climate and Seasons.] The climate and seasons are considerably diversified by difference of latitude and local situation. Yet in general, though the northern Alps of Tibet be covered with perpetual snow, there is some similarity of climate through the wide regions of Hindostan. In Bengal the hot, or dry season, begins with March, and continues to the end of May, the thermometer sometimes rising to one hundred and ten degrees: this intense heat is sometimes interrupted by violent thunder storms from the north-west, the seat of the grand Alps of Asia. The rainy season continues from June to September: the three last months of the year are generally pleasant: but excessive fogs often prevail in January and February. The periodical rains are also felt in Sindetic Hindostan, except in Cashmir, where they seem to be excluded by the surrounding mountains. In the rest of Hindostan they almost deluge the country, descending like cataracts from the clouds, and the Ganges and other rivers spread to a wide extent, the inundation ceasing in September. By the latter end of June the Ganges has risen fifteen feet and a half, out of thirty-two, which is the total of its overflow. In the mountains the rainy season begins early in April; but rarely in the plains till the latter end of June. By the latter end of July all the lower parts of Bengal, contiguous to the Ganges and Burrampooter, are overflowed, and form an inundation of more than one hundred miles in width; nothing appearing but villages and trees, excepting very rarely the top of an elevated spot (the artificial mound of some deserted village) appearing like an island.

In the southern division, the chain of the Gauts, or mountains of Malabar and Coromandel, supporting the high table land in the centre, intercept the great mass of clouds; and the alternate S. W. and N. E. winds, called the Monsoons, occasion a very rainy season on one side of the mountains only, that is on the windward side. Yet it appears that during the first part of the rainy monsoon, in May and June, on the coast of Malabar, a considerable quantity of rain falls in the upper region, or table land of Mysore. The monsoon is from the N. E. from October to April;

April; and from May to September in the opposite direction. The rainy season on the coast of Coromandel is with the N. E. monsoon; and on that of Malabar with the S. W.: in general, March, April, May, and June, are the dry months. Hence, in the whole extent of Hindostan, except in Cashmir, there can hardly be said to be a vestige of winter, except the thick fogs of our November; and excessive rains, or excessive heats, form the chief varieties of the year.

Rivers.] The Ganges must be considered as the sacred sovereign of the Hindoo rivers, an attribute not infringed by the recent discovery of the Burrampooter. It receives such a number of important tributary streams, that its magnitude exceeds what might have been expected from the comparative length of its course; which may, however, be estimated at about fourteen hundred British miles, while the Hoan ho of China has been computed at two thousand, and the Kian ku at two thousand two hundred. The source of the Ganges remains a curious object of investigation; nor can much reliance be placed on its delineation in the map of Tibet by the Chinese Lamas, published by Du Halde, and followed by all succeeding geographers. Tieffenthaler has lain down the latitude of the noted Gangoutra, or Cow's mouth, in lat. thirty-three degrees, being a celebrated cataract, where the Ganges is said to pass through a vast cavern in a mountain, falling into a large bason which it has worn in the rock. At Hudwar, about two hundred and eighty miles to the south of the Cow's mouth, (if this last be not a dream of the fabling Hindoos), the Ganges enters the wide plains of Hindostan; and pursues a south-east direction by the ancient city of Canoge, once the capital of a kingdom, by Allahabad, Benares, Patna, &c. till dividing into many grand and capacious mouths, it forms an extensive delta at its egress into the gulf of Bengal. The extreme mouths of the Ganges are intersected with isles, called the Sunderbunds, overgrown with tall bamboos and other luxuriant vegetation, the impenetrable haunts of the royal tiger, and other beasts of prey. On the westernmost outlet of the Ganges, called the Hoogley, stands Calcutta, the capital of British Hindostan. This, and the most eastern, which receives the Burrampooter, are the widest and most important branches.

The noblest tributary stream of the Ganges is the Burrampooter, being the Sampoo of the Tibetans. The course of the river, and its junction with the Ganges, was first ascertained by Major Rennell. This noble river runs for four hundred miles through the British territory; and for the last sixty miles before its junction with the Ganges is from four to five miles wide. On their union before Luckipour, they form a body of running fresh water, resembling a gulph of the sea, interspersed with islands, some of which rival in size and fertility our Isle of Wight. In the mouths of the Ganges, and the Burrampooter, the sudden influx of the tide will rise instantaneously to the height of from five to twelve feet.

The Indus is by the natives called Sindeh. It is also called Nilab, or the Blue River. The source, like that of the Ganges, remains unknown.

The Kistna, a sacred river, rises at Balisore not far to the south of Prona, and forms a delta near Masulipatam, after a course of about five hundred British miles. This river rivals any Indian stream in the fertility diffused by its inundations; and the richest diamond mines in the world are in the neighbouring hills to the north. The chief tributary streams in that quarter are the Beema; passing near the diamond mines of Visiapour, and the Muzi, or Moussi, by those of Golconda.

Mountains.] The mountains chiefly celebrated by the Hindoos may be said to be only visible from their country, being the northern chain of the Tibetian Alps, covered with perpetual snow. Hence they are called Himmala, from a word denoting snow.

The sandy desert of Agimere, on the east of the Indus, extends in length between four and five hundred British miles, and in breadth from sixty to a hundred and fifty.

Forests.] Of this extensive portion of Asia a great part remaining in primitive wildness, there are large forests in different quarters, particularly near the mouth of the Ganges, and in the wide unexplored regions on the west of the Sircars. These forests surpass in exuberance of vegetation any idea which Europeans can imagine; creeping plants of prodigious size and length, extended from tree to tree, forming an impenetrable gloom, and a barrier, as it were, sacred to the first mysteries of nature.

Zoology.] The numerous cavalry which form

form the armies of the Hindoo princes imply great numbers of horses; and the breeds most celebrated are those of Lahore and Turkistan, but the grandees are supplied from Persia and Arabia. The inferior breeds, though ugly, are active. The horses of Tibet, generally pyed, are often used in Gangetic Hindostan. The animal called the wild mule, and the wild ass, sometimes pass in herds to the northern mountains, from the centre of Asia, and the desert of Cobi.

The Arabian camel, or that with a single hunch, is not unfrequent about Patna. The elephant has been frequently described; the usual height of this intelligent animal is about ten feet. Apes and monkeys abound in various regions of Hindostan; and the orang outang is said to be found in the vast forests on the west of the Sircars. The other animals are wild boars, bears, wolves, foxes, jackalls, hyenas, leopards, panthers, lynxes: in the north, musk weasels, and many other quadrupeds of inferior size.

The royal tiger of Bengal is a far more terrible animal than the stoutest lion. Such is their size and strength that they are said to carry off bullocks, the height of some being said to be five feet, and the length in proportion *.

Mineralogy.] The mineralogy of Hindostan may be opened by its most distinguished and peculiar product, celebrated in all ages of the world, that of diamonds, which are indeed also found in Brazil, but of far inferior quality †.

The chief and most celebrated diamond mines are those near Visiapour and Golconda, both near streams that flow into the Kistna, Golconda being in the territory of the Nizam, while Visiapour belongs to the Mahrattas ‡.

Next in value to the diamond are the sapphire and the ruby, which are chiefly found in the Birman territories; but the ruby also occurs in Ceylon, which likewise produces an inferior kind of sapphire, the topaz, and other precious stones.

Among the metals gold is found in the rivers which flow from Tibet into the Ganges and Indus; but no gold mines seem ever to have been known in Hindostan, which has rather been celebrated for attracting this metal in commerce from other countries.

Cities and Towns.] The chief city of Bengal, and of all the British possessions in Hindostan, is Calcutta. The latitude is 22° 33′ north, and the longitude 88° 28′ east from Greenwich §.

In Calcutta, the quarter inhabited by the English is composed entirely of brick buildings, many of which have more the appearance of palaces than of private houses; but the remainder of the city, and by much the greater part, is built as described in the note. Calcutta is the emporium of Bengal, and the seat of the Governor-General of India. It is a very extensive and populous city, being supposed at present to contain at least five hundred thousand inhabitants. Calcutta is situated on the western arm of the Ganges, at about one hundred miles from the sea; and the river is navigable up to the town for the largest ships that visit India. It is a modern city, having risen on the site of the village of Govindpour, about ninety years ago. The citadel is superior in every point, as to strength and correctness of design, to any fortress in India; but on too extensive a scale to answer the useful purpose intended, that of holding a post incase of extremity. In this grand capital of British Asia the mixture of people and manners presents a picturesque and interesting scene. The black Hindoo, the olive-coloured Moor or Mohammedan, con-

* Parties of pleasure on the isles at the mouth of the Ganges, have often been shockingly interrupted by the sudden appearance of the tiger, prepared for his fatal spring, which is said to extend a hundred feet, not improbable when compared with that of the cat. Such is the nature of the animal, that if disappointed in this first leap, he couches his tail and retreats.

† This substance is the most hard, transparent, and brilliant of all minerals; and is commonly colourless, but is found occasionally of a citron yellow, grey brown, or black. It is found in beds of torrents, or in yellow ferruginous earth, under rocks of quartz or sand stone.

‡ Colore, another diamond mine, is on the southern bank of the Kistna, not far from Condavir.

§ "Generally speaking," says Major Rennell, "the description of one Indian city is a description of all; they being all built on one plan, with exceedingly narrow, confined, and crooked streets; with an incredible number of reservoirs and ponds, and a great many gardens interspersed. A few of the streets are paved with brick. The houses are variously built, some of brick, others with mud, and a still greater proportion with bamboos and mats: and these different kinds of fabrics, standing intermixed with each other, form a motley appearance: those of the latter kind are invariably of one story, and covered with thatch. Those of brick seldom exceed two floors, and have flat terraced roofs. The two former classes far outnumber the last, which are often so thinly scattered, that fires, which often happen, do not sometimes meet with the obstruction of a brick house through a whole street."

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trasted with the fair and florid countenances of the English; and the charms of the European damsel receive a foil from the dark Hindoo beauties. To the luxuries of the Asiatic are added the elegance and science of the English life.

Patna is the capital of the province of Bahar, situated about four hundred miles N. W. from Calcutta.

Benares is a rich, populous, and compact city, on the northern bank of the Ganges, about four hundred and sixty miles from Calcutta. Benares, anciently called Kasi, was the most early seat of Braminical knowledge in the north.

Allahabad, in the province so called, at the confluence of the Jumma and the Ganges, a city belonging to the Nabob * of Oude, but of little consequence. Not far to the S. W. of Allahabad are the diamond mines of Penna, in the small detached province of Bundelcund.

Lucknow is the present capital of Oude, having superseded Fyzabad, a city on the Gogra.

The chief city of Guzerat is Amedabad.

ISLAND OF CEYLON.

Extent and Name.] This island approaches to the size of Ireland, being about two hundred and sixty British miles in length, by about one hundred and fifty in breadth; but in the wide continent of Asia, territory is on so large a scale, that what in Europe would constitute a kingdom is here scarcely a province.

This island is important in a commercial view, from its celebrated products of cinnamon and gems. The harbour of Trincomalee on the east, is to us of great consequence, because there is none on the eastern coast of Hindostan: and it has even been suggested that in case any revolution should expel us from the continent of Hindostan, this island might afford an extensive and grand asylum, where the British name and commerce might be perpetuated.

Manners and Customs.] The natives of Ceylon, called Singalese, either from a native or Portuguese term, are not so black as those of Malabar, and have a few manners and customs distinct from other Hindoos. It is said that several brothers may have one wife in common, but the polygamy of males is also allowed. In general chastity is little esteemed in the oriental countries; and the morality of many nations is so lax in this respect, that the intercourse of the sexes is considered as far more indifferent than the use of certain foods. The language is rather peculiar; but some of the natives understand both the Tamulic and that of Malabar.

Towns.] The native town Kandi, in the centre of the isle, seems to be of small size and consequence, and probably only distinguished by a palisade and a few temples.

Climate.] The climate and seasons correspond in some degree with the adjacent continent; yet the exposure on all sides to the sea renders the air more cool and salubrious. High mountains, prodigious forests, full of aromatic trees and plants, and many pleasant rivers and streams diversify this country, which by the Hindoos is esteemed a second paradise. The vales are of a rich fat soil; and, when cleared, amazingly fertile in rice, and other useful vegetables.

Mountains.] The chains of mountains run N. and S. They seem granitic; and are peculiarly rich in precious stones, imbedded in primitive quartz. What the Mohammedans have termed Adam's Peak, is esteemed the highest.

Pearls.] The pearl fishery commonly begins on the N. W. shore about the middle of February, and continues till about the middle of April, when the S. W. monsoon commences †.

IRAN or PERSIA.

Name.] The general name of Persia spread from the province of *Pars* or *Fars*; but the natives, both in ancient and modern times, have termed their country *Iran*, under which denomination were included all the wide regions to

* The term *Nabob* is a corruption. *Naib* is a *viceroy*, in the singular: *nawaub* is *viceroys*, in the plural.

† The village of Condatchey is then crouded with a mixture of thousands of people of different colours, countries, casts, and occupations; with numerous tents and huts, and bazars, or shops; while the sea presents many boats hastening to the banks, or returning with the expected riches. The divers are chiefly Christians or Moslems, who descend from five to ten fathoms, and remain under water about two minutes, each bringing up about a hundred oysters in his net. These pearls are always formed like the coats of an onion, around a grain of sand, or some other extraneous particle. The yellow, or gold coloured, are most esteemed by the natives; and some are of bright red lustre, but the dull grey and blackish are of no value.

the S. and W. of the river Oxus, or Jihon, the Amu of the Russians and Tatars; while the countries subject to Persia beyond that celebrated river were in antient times styled *Aniran*.

EXTENT.] Persia extends more than one thousand two hundred miles in length, and about one thousand in breadth.

PROVINCES.] 1. Georgia, or more properly Gurgestan, in which may be included Daghistan and Shirvan. 2. Erivan. 3. Aderbijan. 4. Ghilan. 5. Mazenderan. 6. Irac Ajemi. In this province is Ispahan, the modern capital of Persia. 7. Kushestan. 8. Pars, Fars, or Persia Proper. 9. Kerman. 10. Laristan. 11. Mekran. 12. Segistan. 13. Khorasan *.

ANCIENT MONUMENTS.] Of these the ruins of Persepolis are the most celebrated and remarkable. They are situated at the bottom of a mountain, fronting S. W. about forty miles to the north of Shiraz. They command a view of the extensive plain of Merdasht; and the mountain of Rehumut encircles them in the form of an amphitheatre; the nature of those ruins may be seen in the plates; and it would be an idle attempt to describe in few words the grand portals, halls, and columns, and numerous relievos and devices. There are many inscriptions in a character not yet explained, the letters of which resemble arrow heads, disposed in various directions; and although we be able to make out the Persepolitan alphabet, yet the language of that remote period appears to be locked up in impenetrable obscurity.

RELIGION.] The religion of Persia is the Mohammedan, which was introduced by the sword, and has been followed by its usual effects, the destruction and depopulation of the country. Yet the Persians adopt a milder system of this creed than is followed by the Turks and Arabs †.

The priests of the Mohammedan religion, or Mullas, are in Persia often styled *Akonds*, which signifies readers: and they not only preach in the mosks, but are often schoolmasters. The Pechnamas are superior Mullas, or vicars of the Imams ‡. The Fakirs and Calenders are wandering monks, or rather sturdy beggars; who, under the pretext of religion, compel the people to maintain them in idleness.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] The manners and customs of the Persians, in the seventeenth century, have been amply detailed by Chardin, Thevenot, Sanson, and other travellers. More modern ideas of Persian manners may be derived from the travels of Gmelin in Ghilan §.

Marriages

* Besides these provinces, and exclusive of Asiatic Turkey on the W. the ancient Persian empire comprised Bactriana or Balk, which may be termed a wide and well-watered kingdom of between three hundred and four hundred British miles square; and on the other side of the Oxus, Sogdiana, or the country on the river Sogd, which passes by modern Samarkand. This province adjoined on the west to Khawaresm, with the small territory of Khiva.

† Of the Parsees, or ancient worshippers of fire, there seem to be no remains in Persia, except perhaps a few visitors at the fiery eruptions of naphtha near Baku, on the western shores of the Caspian. These innocent idolators have been almost extirpated by Mohammedan fanaticism, which has propagated every scandal that malice could invent, representing them as devourers of children, and familiar with other atrocities. Mr. Hanway informs us that these Guebers, or infidels, particularly worship the everlasting fire near Baku, an emblem of Ormuzd, or the Supreme Ineffable Creator; while the evil principle, believed to have sprung from matter, was styled Ahriman. But the chief worshippers of the fire of Baku came from Hindostan, to which the Parsees retreated when Shah Abbas expelled them from his empire; and they still abound near Bombay, where their singular mode of sepulture excites attention, as they expose their dead in inclosed areas to be devoured by birds of prey, a custom which has been propagated to some other oriental nations. Mr. Hanway says that there were still some worshippers of fire at a place thence styled Guebera-bad, near Ispahan; and that there are still fire worshippers in the neighbourhood of Surat is clear, from Anquetil du Perron, whose instructor in the Zend and Pehlavi was a person of that description.

‡ The chief prelate is styled Sheikas Salhaum, or head of the faith; also Sa'a Cassa, or High Priest.

§ The Persians still pride themselves in universal politeness, and are hospitable, not however without the expectation of presents in return. They seem to consider themselves as more wise and sagacious than other nations, yet are passionate; and the recent commotions have imparted a taint of cruelty to the national character. Of a sanguine temperament, both rich and poor are generally gay: and immoderate mirth will succeed the most violent quarrels. They are extremely attached to the fair sex, and not averse to wine. The general complexion is fair, somewhat tinged with olive; but those in the south about Shiraz of Candahar, and the provinces towards India, are of a dark brown. They are commonly fat, with black hair, high forehead, aquiline nose, full cheeks, and a large chin, the form of the countenance being frequently oval. The men are generally strong and robust, and inclined to martial exercises, but they are particularly subject to disorders of the eyes. They generally shave the head, and wear high crimson bonnets; but the beard is sacred, and tended with great care. They often wear three or four light dresses, one above the other, fastened with a belt and sash; and they are fond of large cloaks

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Marriages are conducted by female mediation; and the pomp and ceremonies somewhat resemble the Russian. Polygamy is allowed; but the first married is the chief wife. The tombs of the rich are often grand, as are the cenotaphs of the twelve Imams, or vicars of the prophet, regarded by the Chias as his only lawful successors.

Language.] The language of Persia is perhaps the most celebrated of all the Oriental tongues, for strength, beauty and melody. In general the Persian literature approaches nearer to the European in solid good sense, and clearness of thought and expression, than that of any other Asiatic nation.

Cities.] The capital city of modern Persia is Ispahan. Including the suburbs, its circuit is computed by Chardin at about twenty-four miles, and the inhabitants at six hundred thousand. The walls are of earth, and ill repaired, with eight gates, and the streets narrow, devious, and badly paved. The suburb of Yulfa, is very large, and possessed by the Armenians.

The second city, at least in fame, is Shiraz. This capital of Farsistan is situated in a fertile valley; the circuit of the city is about four miles, surrounded with a wall twenty-five feet high, and ten thick, with round towers at the distance of eighty paces. The city is built of brick. The mosk of the late Kerim Khan is splendid but unfinished. The climate of this celebrated city is delicious, particularly in the spring, when numerous flowers perfume the air; and the Bulbul, or oriental nightingale, the gold-finch, linnet, and other warblers, delight the ear.

The celebrated Persian gulph has been always more remarkable for the factories of foreigners, than for native establishments. Bender Abassi was a port opposite to the isle of Ormus; or rather on the coast between Ormus and Kishmish, or Kishma, and is now more commonly known by the name of Gombroon.

Climate.] Persia has been said to be a country of three climates; but even in the south the high mountains contribute to alloy the extreme heat.

Rivers.] The noble streams of the Euphrates* and the Tigris can scarcely at any period be considered as strictly Persian, though Ctesiphon, the capital of the Parthian monarchy, and Seleucia, stood on the latter river. The river of Ahwaz rises in the mountains of Elwend, and pursues a southern course till one branch enters the Tigris above its junction with the Euphrates, while the main stream flows into the estuary of these conjunct rivers.

In the N. E. the large river of Jihon, rather belongs to Independent Tatary, with its numerous tributary streams.

Zoology.] According to Chardin, the Persian horses are the most beautiful even in the east; but in speed they yield to the Arabian, which are less distinguished by elegance of form. The Persian steeds are rather taller than the saddle horses in England; the head small, the legs delicate, and the body well proportioned; of a mild disposition, very laborious, lively, and swift. The camel is also common, but not admitted into the province of Mazenderan, where they eagerly eat the leaves of box, though to them a rank poison. The Persian cattle resemble the European, except towards Hindostan, where they are marked by the hunch on the shoulders. Swine are scarce, save in the N. W. provinces. Of the large tailed sheep that appendage sometimes weighs more than thirty pounds, enlarging at the bottom in the form of a heart.

Natural Curiosities.] Among the chief natural curiosities must be named the fountains of naphtha, or pure rock oil, in the neighbourhood of Baku, on the western coast of the Caspian, particularly in the adjoining promontory of Ashberon. The land is dry and rocky, and there are several small ancient temples, in one of which, near the altar, a large hollow cane is fixed in the ground, and from the end issues a blue flame, seemingly more pure and gentle than that produced by ardent spirits. From an horizontal gap in an adjoining rock there also issues a similar flame.

cloaks of thick cloth. The women wrap around their heads pieces of silk of different colours; and their robes are rather shorter than those of the men. The Persians eat twice or thrice a day, dining about noon, but the chief repast is the supper. The most usual dish is boiled rice variously prepared. The meat is boiled to excess, and the meal is enlarged with pot-herbs, roots, and fruits, cakes, hard eggs, and above all sweetmeats, of which they are extremely fond. They are remarkable for cleanliness, both in their persons and habitations.

* The Forat of the Arabians and Persians.

INDEPENDENT

INDEPENDENT TATARY.

NAME.] The title of Independent Tatary is now confined to the bounds of Uzbeks and Kirguses; for their country must still be regarded as independent of the great neighbouring powers, China, Russia, and Persia.

EXTENT.] The extent of territory possessed by these tribes may be measured from the Caspian Sea to the mountains of Belur, a space of not less than eight hundred and seventy British miles. From the mountains of Gaur, in the south, to the Russian boundaries on the north of the desert of Issim, may be near one thousand five hundred British miles; but of this length a great part is desert.

RELIGION.] The prevailing religion is the Mohammedan, for the Kalmuk conquerors, though they retained their idolatry, were tolerant.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] They are said to be polite and benevolent. The dress of the men does not reach below the calf of the leg, with girdles like the Polish. The female raiment is similar, with long ear-rings; the hair is also worn in very long tresses, decorated with ribbons. They tinge their nails with hinna. Both sexes wear trowsers, with light boots of Russia leather. The head-dress resembles the Turkish. The houses are generally of stone, decorated with Chinese articles. They are cleanly in their food, which often consists of minced meat; and, like the Russians, they preserve their victuals frozen for a considerable time. Tea is the general drink. The wives are purchased; and the ceremonies of marriage, &c. differ little from those of other Mohammedans, the mullahs or priests having great influence. They have small copper coins; but weigh gold and silver like the Chinese. They are not warlike, but use the lance, sabre, and bow, while the rich have coats of mail. The country is very productive of many kinds of fruits and particularly wine.

KIRGUSES.] About one half of Independent Tatary is occupied by the Kirguses in the north, a people of undoubted Tataric origin, and the Uzbeks in the south. They are considered as faithless, pusillanimous, yet restless; but the Great Hord, defended by mountains on the S. and E. asserted their independence in repeated contests with the Kalmuks of Soongaria. The Middle and Little Hords have acknowledged the Russian sovereignty; but this subjection is merely nominal, for the Russians are obliged to fortify themselves against these allies.

The manners of the Kirguses are common to the Tatars. Their tents are of a kind of felt; their drink kumiss, made of acidulated mare's milk. They lead a wandering life, from the borders of the Upper Sirr, or Syrt, near Tashkund, to the stepp of Issim.

As the Kirgusians regard each other as brethren, they are obliged to employ slaves, being captives whom they take in their incursions. Their dress is the common Tataric, with large trowsers, and pointed boots. The ladies ornament their heads with the necks of herons, disposed like horns. They appear to be Mohammedans, though rather of a relaxed creed. They are extremely fond of the Kalmuk women, who long retain their form and charms; and often marry them if they will adopt the Mohammedan religion. There is an annual festival in honour of the dead.

KHWAREZM.] This country extends from the Jihon or Amu, to the Caspian Sea, bounded on the N. and S. by wide deserts, the chief town being now Khiva. This country is about three hundred and fifty British miles in length and breadth, and in the time of Jengis Khan, was a powerful kingdom, but at that time included Khorasan, and a part of Great Bucharia. At present this state is almost restricted to the district of Khiva, the circuit of which may be performed on horseback in three days: but there are five walled cities, or rather towns, within half a day's journey of each other.

GREAT BOKHARA.] By far the most important part of Independent Tatary, is comprised under the name of Great Bokhara, generally supposed to have originated from the city of Bokhara, the first which the Persian merchants entered on visiting the country. It is part of the Touran of the ancient Persians.

EXTENT AND BOUNDARIES.] Great Bokhara extends more then seven hundred British miles in length, from N. to S. by a medial breadth of about three hundred and fifty.

RELIGION. The religion of the Uzbeks and Bokharians, is the Mohammedan, of the Sunni sect, and the government of the khans is despotic.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] The manners and customs of the Usbeks are similar to those of the other

other Tatars: but they are supposed to be the most spirited and industrious of these barbarians. Though many reside in tents in the summer, yet in winter they inhabit the towns and villages.

CITIES.] The chief city of Great Bokharia is Samarkand, on the southern bank of the river Sogd, which, at the distance of above a hundred miles, after washing the walls of Bokhara, passes through a considerable lake, and is supposed to join the Oxus.

CLIMATE.] The climate in general appears to be excellent, the heat even of the southern provinces being tempered by the high mountains capped with perpetual snow; and though situated in the parallel of Spain, Greece, and Asiatic Turkey, the proximity of the Siberian deserts, and the lofty alps, render the summer more temperate.

LAKES.] The most considerable lake is the sea of Aral, or of eagles. The lake Tengris, Balcash, or Palkati, is near one hundred and forty British miles in length, by half that breadth being the largest lake in Asia, after the seas of Aral and Baikal.

ARABIA.

BOUNDARIES. The boundaries on the W. and S. are marked by the Red Sea, or Arabian Gulf, and the Indian Ocean: while the Persian Gulf extends a considerable way on the E. and this boundary is considered as continued by the deserts to the west of the Euphrates. The northern limits are less strongly marked; but both in ancient and modern times rise to an angle about one hundred miles to the E. of Palmyra, which is not included in Arabia. Thence the line proceeds S. W. to the S. E. angle of the Mediterranean, a northern boundary of Arabia Petræa.

From the cape of Bab el Mandeb to the extreme angle on the Euphrates, the length is not less than one thousand eight hundred British miles; while the medial breadth is about eight hundred.

POPULATION.] The population is original and indigenous, the Arabians being the same race with the Assyrians of remote antiquity, the probable fathers of the Syrians, Egyptians, and Abyssinians, whose languages are intimately allied, as is that of the Hebrews; being totally different in form and structure, from that of the Persians, their powerful neighbours in the E. By all accounts, sacred and profane, the Assyrians were the most ancient civilized and commercial people *.

RELIGION.] The religion of Arabia is Mohammedan. Besides the Sunnis, there is here a considerable sect called the Zeidites, who in most points agree with the former, but seem rather more lax in their faith and practice.

MANNERS AND CUSTOMS.] The manners and customs of the inhabitants are for the most part similar to those of the other Bedouins, so frequently described by the numerous travellers. Those of the country of Yemen have been accurately delineated by Niebuhr; and this province will probably, after the utmost discovery, continue to be regarded as the most interesting portion; representing the Arabia Felix of antiquity. In Yemen murder is punished with death, but more often left to private revenge, which occasions family feuds, that pest of society †.

DRESS.]

* This early civilization will excite the less surprise, when it is considered that even the modern Arabians are a most sagacious and intelligent race of men, remarkable also for spirit and valour, whose country alone has never been subdued by any invader, and who alone, of all Asiatic nations, have preserved the sacred flame of freedom, which their progenitors kindled in their inaccessible mountains. In comparatively modern times they have vindicated the fame of their ancient pre-eminence, by giving religion and laws to half of Asia and Africa, and a great part of Europe. The Arabian khalifs in Spain, Africa, and Egypt, as well as at Baghdad, cultivated the arts and sciences; and shewed a great superiority to the barbarous powers of Europe at that period. From Samarkand to the centre of Africa, the Arabian language and manners are held in veneration.

† In politeness the Arabs vie with the Persians, and there are still remains of their ancient hospitality. The common salutation is the *Salam Alekum*, or Peace be with you: in pronouncing which words they raise the right hand to the heart, but this form is seldom addressed to Christians. On meeting in their wide deserts, the salutations are multiplied; and the hand of a superior is kissed in token of respect. The houses, though of stone, are meanly constructed; the apartments of the men being in front, those of the women behind. Of a middle stature, thin, and dried as it were by the sun, the Arab is moderate in his food, the common people seldom exceeding a repast of bad bread made from durra, a kind of millet, mixed with camel's milk, oil, butter, or grease, the only drink being water. This bread of durra, custom has taught them to prefer to that of barley, which, though pleasant, they think

Dress.] The dress, like that of the Turks and Hindoos, is long, often with large trowsers, a girdle of embroidered leather, and a knife, or dagger. Over the shoulder is worn a large piece of fine linen, originally designed to keep off the sun. The head-dress seems oppressive, consisting of several bonnets, from ten to fifteen, some of linen, others of cotton and woollen, the outmost being often richly embroidered with gold; and around this multitude of bonnets is wrapped what they call a sash, being a large piece of muslin, with fringes of silk or gold, which hang down behind. The women stain their nails red, and their feet and hands of a yellowish brown, with hinna: the eye lashes are darkened with antimony, as in many other oriental countries; and every art is exerted to render the eyebrows large and black. Polygamy is confined to the rich; and throughout the whole Mohammedan regions, is far less general than is commonly supposed in Europe.

Language.] The language of the Arabs was, even in ancient times, divided into several dialects, as may be suspected from its wide diffusion. Even in Yemen there are subdivisions; and polite people use a different enunciation from the vulgar. The language of the Koran is so different from the modern speech of Mecca, that it is taught in the colleges there, as the Latin is at Rome.

Cities and Towns.] The most celebrated cities are Mecca and Medina; but being sacred ground, the infidels are not permitted to approach; and we are obliged to trust to the inaccuracy and exaggeration of oriental writers. Mecca has not, in the most flourishing period, exceeded the size and populousness of Marseilles. The government of this holy city is vested in a sheref, who is a temporal prince; and his revenue is increased by the donations of Mohammedan sovereigns.

Medina stands about two hundred British miles N. of Mecca, being, as well as the latter, about a day's journey from the shores of the Red Sea. It is, according to Niebuhr, a small town, surrounded with a paltry wall, little remarkable except for the tomb of Mohammed.

Edifices.] Among the chief edifices of Arabia must be named Kaaba, or temple of Mecca, which is an open square, encompassed with a colonade, and ornamented with minarets. In this open space there are five or six houses of prayer, or chapels; while in the centre is a small square edifice, peculiarly styled the Kaaba, in which is fixed a black stone, the early object of Arabian adoration.

Climate and Seasons.] In the mountains of Yemen there is a regular rainy season, from the middle of June to the end of September: but even then the sky is rarely covered with clouds for twenty-four hours at a time; and during the remainder of the year a cloud is scarcely to be seen. At Maskat, and in the eastern mountains the rainy season extends from the middle of November to the middle of February; and in Omon there is rain from the middle of February to the middle of April. In the plains of Yemen rain is sometimes unknown for a whole year; and in July and August the thermometer will be 98°, while at Sana in the mountains it is 85°. In general the wind from the sea is moist, and that from the interior deserts is dry, in the northern parts of which are chiefly perceived the disastrous effects of the burning wind called Samiel.

Rivers.] In the defect of rivers strictly belonging to Arabia, the Euphrates and Tigris, which pass through Irak Arabi, have been claimed by some geographers; and the Euphrates may be considered as an Arabian river. But in Arabia Proper what are called rivers are mere torrents, which descend from the mountains during the rains, and for a short period afterwards. The most important river is probably that which rises near Sana, and joins the Indian sea below Harjiah.

Mountains.] In the division called Arabia Petræa, is the celebrated Mount Sinai, which presents two sublime summits of red granite.

Deserts.] From Omon to Mecca, the greater part of Nejd is one prodigious sandy desert, interrupted towards the frontiers of Hejaz and

think unsubstantial. Meat is little used, even by the rich, who deem it unhealthy in a hot climate. The orientals in general being water-drinkers they are very fond of pastry. The most noted drink is coffee, which they prepare like the Turks, by burning it in an open pan, and then bruising in a stone or wooden mortar. In Yemen it is rarely used, as in their opinion it heats the blood; but of the shells, or husks of the coffee, they prepare a liquor in the manner of tea. Spirituous liquors, though forbidden, are not absolutely unknown; and they sometimes smoak a plant, resembling hemp, which produces intoxication; nor is tobacco neglected, which is smoaked either in the Turkish or Persian manner.

Yemen

Yemen by Kerjé, containing the district of Surfa, and some fertile spots and towns. The N. W. part of Nejd presents almost a continued desert, a prolongation as appears of the other, with an *oasis* Ared on the W. of Lahfa, including Jabrin, and some other places mentioned by the same author. In this desert there is also the *oasis* of mount Schamer.

Zoology.] The horse is the glory of Arabian zoology. According to Zimmerman this animal is found wild in the extensive deserts on the N. of Hadramaut. They are here divided into two great classes, the *Kadishi*, or common kind, whose genealogy has not been preserved: and the *Kochlani* *, or noble horses, whose breed has been ascertained for two thousand years, proceeding, as they fable, from the stalls of Solomon. These will bear the greatest fatigues, and pass whole days without food, living on air, to use the Arabian metaphor. There is also in this country a superior breed of asses, approaching in form and qualities to the mule, and sold at high prices. There are also antelopes, and wild oxen, with wolves, foxes, and wild boars, and the large and small panther. The tiger seems utterly unknown; and the lion only appears beyond the Euphrates. A little slender serpent, called baetan, spotted with black and white, is of a nature remarkably poisonous, the bite being instant death.

This region, or Africa, seems also the native country of the camel, emphatically styled by the orientals the ship of the desert; being, by the expansion of its feet, the faculty of bearing thirst and hunger, and other qualities, peculiarly adapted by the Author of nature to perambulate the sandy wastes which would otherwise remain unpassable.

Isles.] Socotra, about two hundred and forty British miles from the southern coast of Arabia, appears in all ages to have belonged to that country, and to have been celebrated for the production of aloes, still esteemed superior to any other. The inhabitants are clearly of Arabian extract. There are two bays, and some secure harbours; and the isle is also said to produce frankincense, while ambergris and coral are found in the neighbouring seas.

The isle of Bahrein is in the Persian gulf, near the Arabian coast, and remarkable for the great pearl fishery in its neighbourhood.

* The Kochlani are neither large nor beautiful, nor is their figure at all regarded; their race and hereditary qualities being the sole objects of estimation. They are chiefly reared by the Bedouins, in the northern deserts between Persia and Syria. The preservation of the breed is carefully and authentically witnessed; and the offspring of a Kochlani stallion with an ignoble mare, is reputed *Kadishi*. The Arabian steeds are sometimes bought at excessive rates by the English at Mocha.

ASIATIC ISLANDS.

THE ISLES OF SUNDA.

Sumatra is a large island, being about nine hundred and fifty English miles long, and two hundred broad. The English settlement of Bencoolen, in the S. E. part of this island, is a valuable possession. A chain of mountains runs through the whole island, the ranges being in many parts double and treble; but their height is not so considerable as to retain snow. Mount Ophir, immediately under the equinoctial line, is thirteen thousand eight hundred and forty-two feet above the level of the sea. There seem to be many mines of gold, though mostly neglected; and the copper is mingled with that metal. There are excellent ores of iron and steel; and that rare mineral, tin, is one of the chief exports, but principally found near Palimbang. The gold found near Bencoolen is of inferior quality. Mr. Marsden says, there are inland races, of whom the Googoo, are covered with long hair, and are little superior to the Ourang Outangs of Borneo. The most abundant article of trade is pepper, the object of the British settlement; it is produced by a climbing plant resembling a vine. The white pepper is procured by stripping the outer husk from the ripe grains. Laws are unknown, the chief rendering judgement according to custom. Most crimes are compensated by money, murder not excepted. The kingdom of Acheen, in the N. W. extremity of the island, carries on a considerable trade with the coast of Coromandel.

Java is about six hundred and fifty English miles long, and one hundred broad. This island is remarkable for the city of Batavia, long the capital of the Dutch possessions. Batavia is strongly fortified with walls, and a citadel to-

wards the sea. The town is large and well built. In this town are an assemblage of people of all nations. The air is extremely unwholesome from fetid fogs and other causes; so that dysentries and putrid fevers destroy prodigious numbers. The existence of the Upas, or Poison Tree, is now sufficiently refuted.

Borneo, long reputed the largest island in the world, is about nine hundred miles long, and six hundred broad. The interior parts of this great island are but little known, and the greater part of the northern side next the sea, consists of swamps covered with forests of trees of numberless species, and great sizes, which penetrate for scores of miles towards the centre of the island. The natives in the interior are blacks, with long hair, of a middle stature, feeble and inactive; but their features are superior to those of negroes. European settlements have been unsuccessful, the adventurers having generally been massacred. Pepper abounds in the interior, with the gum called Dragon's blood, camphor, and sandal wood. Gold is found in this island, and also diamonds, but these are inferior to those of Golconda. The Ourang Outang abounds. The natives, who bring the gold dust down to the coast, are tatooed blue, with a small wrapper about the loins. The chiefs extract one or two of the fore teeth, substituting others of gold; and strings of the teeth of tigers, a real badge of courage, are worn round the neck. The town called Borneo, on the N. W. consists of about three thousand floating houses. The Chinese frequent this town for the sake of trade.

THE MANILLAS, OR PHILIPPINE ISLES,

Were discovered by Magelhaens in 1521, who called them the Archipelago of St. Lazarus: they were afterwards styled Philippines, in honour of Philip II. of Spain.

Luzon, the largest, is about five hundred miles long, by one hundred broad. Spanish jealousy has hitherto prevented much knowledge of this island. Gold, copper, and iron, are among the certain products; and the soil is reported to be uncommonly fruitful. The natives, who are of a mild character, are called Tagals, and seem of Malay origin. The houses are of bamboo, covered with palm leaves, raised on pillars to the height of eight or ten feet. The chief food is rice and salted fish. There are several volcanoes, and earthquakes are not unknown. The city of Manilla is well built and fortified. The Manilla ships, or galleons, were formerly of great size; but latterly smaller vessels have been used.

Next in size is Mindanao, a beautiful and fertile island, of large extent.

The other chief Philippines are Pulawin, Mindora, Pani, Buglas, or Isles of Negroes, Zebu, Leita, and Samar.

THE CELEBEZIAN ISLES.

Celebez is about six hundred miles long, but on account of its various indentions cannot be reckoned above sixty miles broad. This island is lofty and mountains; and the natives, called Macassars, often degrade themselves by acts of piracy, attacking vessels with surprising desperation.

THE SPICE ISLANDS AND THE MOLUCCAS:

Gilolo, the largest of the Spice Islands, is about two hundred and thirty miles long, but variously indented by bays of the sea, so that its breadth seldom exceeds forty miles. The bread-fruit tree is frequent here, together with the jago. The natives are industrious, particularly in weaving.

Ceram is about one hundred and ninety miles long, by forty broad. Here are vast quantities of clove trees, and whole forests of jago, which form a considerable article of export.

Bouro is about ninety miles long, and fifty broad. The interior mountains are so lofty as to be sometimes descried at the distance of twenty-eight leagues. Green ebony, and a kind of iron wood, are mentioned among the trees. The other Spice Islands are Mortray, Mysol, and Oubi; but of these little is known.

The Moluccas, strictly so called, are in the western extremity of this groupe, and Amboyna and Banda in the south. The Moluccas are Ternat, Tidore, Motir, Makian, and Batchian. The Dutch and English formerly shared the produce of these islands, the former having two-thirds, and the latter one-third of the trade; but the Dutch, not liking a competitor in the benefits arising from the sale of the commodities, forged a plot of the English against their lives and liberties, and put them to death by the most exquisite tortures that hell itself could invent. The clove abounded in Makian, but the growth

was

was afterwards confined by the Dutch to Amboyna. The islands of Amboyna and Banda were taken without resistance in February and March, 1796, by the English admiral Rainier; when it was found that the annual produce was about one hundred and sixty-three thousand pounds of nutmegs, and forty-six thousand pounds of Mace *.

NEW HOLLAND.

This amazingly large island, if it be so, is about two thousand seven hundred and thirty English miles long, from E. to W. and one thousand nine hundred and sixty miles broad, from N. to S. The eastern coast having been carefully explored by Captain Cook, and justly appearing of great importance, was formally taken possession of in the name of the king of Great Britain in 1770. On the close of the American war, it being difficult to select a proper place of transportation for criminals sentenced to that punishment by the laws of their country, this new territory was at length preferred, in 1786, and the first ship sailed from Spithead, on the 30th of January, 1787, and arrived on the 20th of the same month in the following year. Botany Bay being found to be a station of inferior advantages to what were expected, and no spot appearing proper for the colony, it was immediately resolved by Governor Philip to transfer it to another excellent inlet, about twelve miles farther to the north, called Port Jackson, on the south side of which, at a spot called Sidney Cove, this settlement is now fixed. Port Jackson is one of the noblest harbours in the world, extending about fourteen miles in length, with numerous creeks or coves. Difficulties with regard to subsistance, and some unexpected misfortunes, attended the new colony, the sheep being stolen, and the cattle wandered into the woods. A space of about fifty miles around the colony had been explored, and two rivers called Nepean and Hawkesbury, and some mountains, had been discovered. The cattle were found grazing in a remote meadow, in 1795, after they had been lost for seven years, and had increased to a surprising degree. The most recent accounts seem to authenticate the flourishing state of the colony. The mode of cultivation has been improved, coal and rock salt discovered; and there is room to expect that this wide territory will not be found deficient in the usual riches of nature. From the account of the various navigators, there is room to infer that this extensive tract is peopled by three or four races of men, those oberved in the S. W. being described as different from those in the N. and both from those in the E. with whom alone we are intimately acquainted. These are perhaps in the most early stage of society which has yet been discovered in any part of the globe. They are merely divided into families, the senior being styled Be-ana, or Father. Each family or tribe has a particular place of residence, and is distinguished by adding *gal* to the name of the place; thus the southern shore of Botany Bay is called Gwea, and the tribe there Gwea-gal. Another tribe, numerous and muscular, has the singular prerogative of extracting a tooth from young men of other families, the sole token of government or subordination. No religion whatever is known, though they have a faint idea of a future existence, and think their people return to the clouds, whence they originally fell. They are of a low stature, and ill made; the arms, legs, and thighs being remarkably thin, perhaps owing to their poor living on fish, the only food of those on the coast, while a few in the woods subsist on such animals as they can catch, and climb trees for honey, flying squirrels, and opossums. The features of the women are not unpleasant, though approaching to the negro. The black bushy beards of the men, and the bone or reed which they thrust through the cartilage of the nose, gives them a disgusting appearance; which is not improved by the practice of rubbing fish oil into their skins, as a protection from the air and muskitos, so that in hot weather the stench is intolerable. They colour their faces with white or red clay. The women are marked by the loss of the two first joints of the little finger of the left hand, as they were supposed to be in the way when they coiled their fishing lines. It is however not improbable that this practice, and the extraction of a tooth from the boys, may be

* From 1796 to 1798, the English East-India company imported eight hundred and seventeen thousand three hundred and twelve pounds of cloves, ninety-three thousand seven hundred and thirty-two pounds of nutmegs, and forty-six thousand seven hundred and thirty pounds of mace, besides private trade, amounting to about a third part of the above statement.

mere initiations, rude lessons, that they may learn to bear pain with apathy. The children are seldom disfigured except by accidents from fire; and their sight is surprisingly acute. Some are nearly as black as African negroes, while others exhibit a copper or Malay colour, but the hair is long, not woolly like the African. Their noses are flat, nostrils wide, sunk eyes, thick brows and lips, with a mouth of prodigious width, but the teeth white and even.

Other large islands are PAPUA, or NEW GUINEA, about one thousand two hundred miles long, and three hundred broad; NEW BRITAIN, NEW IRELAND, the SOLOMON ISLES, NEW CALEDONIA, the NEW HEBRIDES, NEW ZEALAND. Besides these are, 1. The PELEW ISLES. 2. The LADRONES, so called because the natives manifest great propensity to thieving. 3. The CAROLINES. 4. The SANDWICH ISLES. 5. The MARQUISAS. 6. The SOCIETY ISLES, so called in honour of the Royal Society of London. 7. The FRIENDLY ISLES.

AFRICA.

THIS Continent is, after Asia and America, the third in size; but in political estimation, is the last and meanest of the four great divisions of the earth. From the southern extremity to the Mediterranean, are about four thousand two hundred geographical miles, and the breadth, at the equator, is about four thousand one hundred and forty geographical miles. The actual population of Africa does not, according to the most authentic accounts, exceed thirty millions. In the central parts on the south, the population appears to be indigenous and peculiar, these being the native regions of the negroes, whose colour, features, and hair, distinguish them from all the other races of mankind. In the northern parts the Egyptians and Abyssinians are of Arabian extract. The original inhabitants of the northern parts appear to have been, in all ages, radically distinct from the negro race, from whom they were divided by the Desert of Zaara; and in the eastern parts the latter were still farther repelled by the Arabian colony which settled in Abyssinia. Africa has the Mediterranean on the N. the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean on the E. and the Atlantic on the W.

The chief river hitherto discovered is the Nile, which rises in the Jeoel el Keemr, or mountains of the Moon, in a district called Donga, N. lat. 8°. Its comparative course is about two thousand British miles. In its course the Nile forms some considerable cataracts, the principal being that of Geanadil in Nubia, before it gains the level of Egypt, after passing some rapids to the S. of Syene. The water is muddy; when it overflows, of a dirty red; and cloudy even in April and May. The river begins to rise about the 19th of June, the Abyssinian rains having began in April, and it ceases in October. It abounds with fish. The crocodile is at present restricted to the south of Assiyut. The other chief rivers are the Niger and the Gir, the course of each being about one thousand English miles. That of Senegal is also considerable. In the southern parts Zahiror Barbela of Congo, and the Zambezi of Mocaranga, are the most considerable yet knowu.

The mountains of Atlas attracted the particular observation of the ancients, who fabled that they supported the firmament; and derived from them the celebrated appellations of the Atlantic Ocean, and the Atlantic Isles. From the accounts of some French mineralogists, who have visited the Atlantic range, the structure is granitic and primitive. The mountains of the Cape of Good Hope seem principally of blue slate, siliceous sand-stone, and granular quartz, interspersed with large masses of granite.

But the most striking feature of Africa consists in the immense deserts which pervade many parts of that continent. Of these the chief is that called Zaara, or the Desert, and stretches from the Atlantic Ocean, with few interruptions, to the confines of Egypt, a space of about two thousand five hundred geographical miles, by a breadth of seven hundred and twenty.

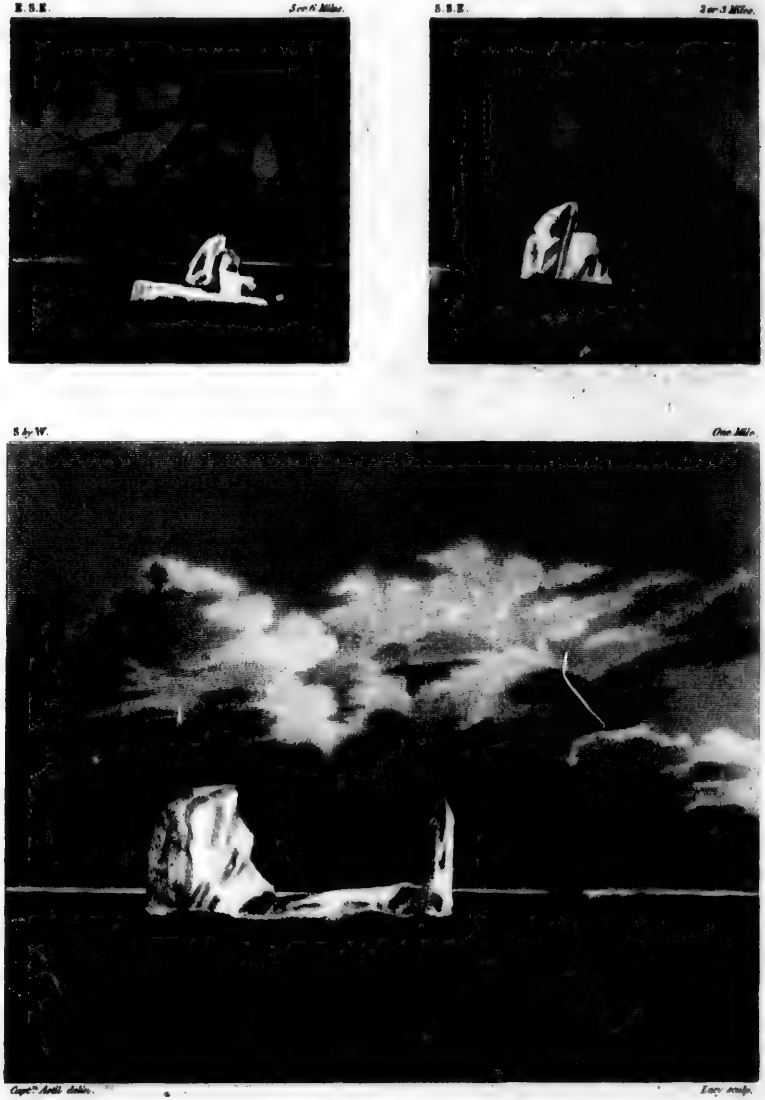
The principal states of Africa have been described in a former part of this work*; so that little remains, but that we give a description of the Cape of Good Hope, the islands of Madagascar, Bourbon, Mauritius, and a few others.

THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

Little was known by the English of the extent of the territory belonging to this colony, till their recent conquest of it, when it was found to be five hundred and fifty English miles long, and

* See Sonini's Travels, vol. i. p. 1, and those of Mungo Park, p. 73.

SOUTH AMERICA.



Capt.n Ansell delin.

Lacy sculp.

Island of Ice, seen by the Ship ÆOLUS, *July 9th 1809. Lat. 51.36. S. Long. 130. W.*

Published by J. Stratford, 112, Holborn Hill, Nov.r 1st 1810.

and two hundred and thirty-three broad. To the S. E. of Cape Town are some small vineyards, which yield the noted wine called Constantia; and even in remote districts there are plantations of various kinds: but large tracts are irrecoverably barren. The country is more fertile towards the Indian Ocean, than towards the Atlantic, a character which seems to apply to Africa in general. The chief resorts of trading vessels are False Bay, on the S. and Table Bay, on the N. W. which opens to Cape Town. There are some wolves and Hyenas, and various kinds of antelopes; and, among birds, eagles, vultures, kites, crows, turtle doves, &c. More inland are all the wild and ferocious animals of Africa, and hippopotami abound in the rivers.

MADAGASCAR.

This noble island is about eight hundred and forty geographical miles long, by about two hundred and twenty broad, being esteemed one of the largest islands in the world. The scenery is strikingly grand and picturesque, diversified with precipices, cataracts, and immense forests. Many of the most valuable minerals occur, among which are beds of pure rock crystal, often used for optical purposes, and erroneously called Brazil pebble; and it is said three kinds of gold ore, with topazes, sapphires, emeralds, and spotted jaspers, commonly called blood stones. The French settlement of Fort Dauphin is in the S. E. extremity of the island, and the French are chiefly acquainted with the southern part. Almost all the villages are built upon eminences, and surrounded by two rows of strong palisades, within which there is a parapet of earth, four feet in height, and sometimes there is a ditch, ten feet broad, and six deep. Their chiefs are only known by their red caps, worn by the common Moors. Their authority is inconsiderable, yet they are sometimes regarded as proprietors of the land, and receive a small quit rent.

MAURITIUS, OR ISLE OF FRANCE.

The island of Mauritius, long known as a French settlement, is situated to the E. of Madagascar, and is well known in the commercial world. It has a tolerable port, and is the centre of the oriental force and commerce of the French. It was first possessed by the Dutch, who abandoned it in 1712, and the French settlement began to acquire some stability under Bourdonnais, in 1734. There are two crops every year of wheat and Indian corn, but manioc is the food of the negroes.

ISLE OF BOURBON.

This island, colonized in 1654, is likewise on the E. of Madagascar, and is about one hundred and fifty miles in circumference, of a circular form, rising to high mountains in the centre. There is a noted volcano, difficult of access, at the summit of a mountain a league from the sea: the eruptions are frequent and continual. It produces sugar canes, and the cattle are numerous. In 1766, M. Poivre was governor of the isles of Mauritius and Bourbon: he was of great benefit to the settlement, by the introduction of the bread-fruit tree, and also of the nutmeg and cinnamon. The isle of Bourbon was, since the French Revolution called Reunion; but of late has been called the Isle of Bonaparte. This island was taken by the English in July, 1810, with one hundred and twenty pieces of cannon, besides a large quantity of shot, shells, cartridges, and powder.

AMERICA.

The length of America, from the 72d degree of N. latitude, to Cape Horne*, the southern point of land in Terra del Fuego, or the 56th degree of S. latitude, is a space of one hundred and twenty eight degrees, or seven thousand six hundred and eighty geographical miles, or about eight thousand eight hundred and ninety-six English miles. The breadth of North America is about three thousand eight hundred and forty geographical miles, or four thousand four hundred

* An Ice Island was seen from the ship Æolus, at 3 P. M. July 9, 1809, in lat. 51° 36′. S. and lon. 130°. W. The island was between two and three hundred feet above the level of the sea, and about three miles in circumference. Although at the time it blew a violent gale of wind, with a tremendous hollow sea, it seldom broke over the lowest part of it, the island was therefore about five hundred feet under the water. It had a grand, though awful appearance.

dred and fifty English miles; and that of South America is about two thousand eight hundred and eighty geographical miles, or three thousand three hundred and forty English miles *.

NORTH

* The first discovery of America is generally ascribed to Christoval Colon, or, as he is commonly called, Christopher Columbus. In 1492 he sailed from Spain, in quest of the new world, on Friday the 3d of August. On the 1st of October he was, by his reckoning, seven hundred and seventy leagues W. of the Canaries. His men began to mutiny, and he was forced to promise to return in three days, if land did not appear. Fortunate presages arose, as land birds, a cane newly cut, a carved piece of wood, and the branch of a tree with fresh red berries. These and other symptoms induced Colon to order the ships to lie to in the evening of the 11th of October, in the certainty of seeing land on the approach of day-light. The night was passed in gazing expectation; and a light having been observed in motion, the cry of *land! land!* resounded from the head-most ship. With the dawn of Friday, October 12, a beautiful isle appeared, two leagues to the north. *Te Deum* was sung with shouts of exultation, and every mark of gratitude and veneration to the admiral. Colon was the first who landed, to the great amazement of the natives, who regarded their visitors as children of the sun, the astonishment on both sides being indescribable. This first discovery of Colon he called San Salvador, but it is now better known by the native name of Guanahani (the Cat island of our mariners) being one of the groupe called the Bahama isles. Colon soon afterwards discovered Cuba and St. Domingo. After visiting the Azores on his return, he arrived at Lisbon on the 4th of March, 1493.

1493. The *second* voyage of Colon, 25th September. Steering more southerly, he discovered several of the Caribbee islands, founded a town in St. Domingo, being the first European settlement in the new world, and did not return till 1496.

1498. *Third* voyage of Colon toward the south-west, where he expected to find the Spice Islands of India. On the 1st of August he discovered an island, which he called Trinidad, not far from the mouth of the river Oroonoko. From the estuary of this river he judged that it must flow through a country of immense extent; and he landed in several places on the coast of the continent now called Paria. He then returned to Hispaniola, or St. Domingo: and in October, 1500, was sent back to Spain in chains!

1499. Ojeda, an officer, who had accompanied Colon in his second voyage, sails to America with four ships, but discovered little more than Colon had done. One of the adventurers was Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine man of science, eminently skilled in navigation, who perhaps acted as chief pilot. On his return, Amerigo published the first description that had yet appeared of any part of the new continent: and the caprice of fame has assigned to him an honour above the renown of the greatest conquerors, that of indelibly impressing his name upon this vast portion of the earth.

1500. On his voyage to the East Indies, Cabral, the Portuguese admiral, discovered Brazil.

1502. Fourth voyage of Colon, in which he discovers a great part of the continent, and particularly the harbour of Porto-bello.

1513. Vasco Nugnez de Balboa descried, from the mountains of the isthmus, the grand Pacific Ocean; and he afterwards waded into the waves, and took possession of it in the name of the Spanish monarch. This discovery seems to have terminated the vain expectation that America formed part of Asia.

It seems unnecessary to trace with minuteness the other epochs of discovery in this quarter. In 1515 the continent was explored as far as Rio de Plata; but even in 1518 little was known concerning its western parts; and twenty-six years had elapsed since the first voyage of Colon, before the existence was rumoured of the empires, or kingdoms of Mexico and Peru. Hispaniola and Cuba still continued to be the chief seats of the Spanish power. In 1519 Cortez, with eleven small vessels, containing six hundred and seventeen men, proceeded to the conquest of Mexico, which was accomplished in 1521. Magalhaens, at the same time having explored the Pacific Ocean, the discovery of the western coast of America became a necessary consequence. After many reports concerning the riches of Peru, that country was at length visited in 1526 by Pizarro, in a vessel from Panama. In 1530 the conquest of Peru was begun by Pizarro, at the head of thirty-six cavalry, and one hundred and forty-four infantry: and in ten years that empire was divided among his followers. In 1543 the first Spanish viceroy appeared in Peru.

In North America the epochs of discovery were more slow.

1497. Giovanni Gaboto, a Venetian, called by the English John Cabot, who had received a commission from Henry VII. in 1495, in the view of tracing a nearer passage to India, discovered Newfoundland, so called by his sailors; and inspected the American shore as far as Virginia: but, this land forming merely an obstacle to his wishes, he returned to England.

1500. Corte de Real, a Portuguese captain, in search of a north-west passage, discovered Labrador.

1513. Florida was discovered by Ponce, a Spanish captain.

1534. Francis I. sending a fleet from St. Maloes, to establish a settlement in North America, Cartie the commander, on the day of St. Laurence, discovered the great gulph and river, to which he gave the name of that saint. In the following year he sailed about three hundred leagues up this noble stream to a great cataract, built a fort, and called the country New France.

1578. Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a patent for settling lands in America. In 1583 he discovered and took possession of the harbour of St. John, and the country to the south, but was lost on his return.

The voyage of Drake round the world served to kindle the enthusiasm of the English; and Raleigh obtained a patent similar to that of Gilbert.

1584. Two small vessels dispatched by Raleigh unfortunately bent their course to that country now called North Carolina, instead of reaching the noble bays of Chesapeak or Delawar. These vessels returned to England, with two of the natives; and Elizabeth assigned to this region the name of Virginia, an appellation which became lately applied to the British settlements in North America, till it was confined to a different country from the original Virginia.

1585. Raleigh

NORTH AMERICA.

THE UNITED STATES.

THE territories of the United States are classed under three grand divisions, the Northern, the Middle, and the Southern.—The Northern States are, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and the small province of Rhode Island. The district of Main, in this quarter, belongs to the province of Massachusett's Bay.—The Middle States are, New-York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delawar, and the territory on the N. W. of the Ohio.—The Southern States are, Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, North Carolina, Georgia, and Tennassee, or the country south of Kentucky.—Louisiana is now regarded as a part of the United States.

The United States are bounded on the E. by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the W. by the Mississippi. On the N. an ideal line, pervading the great lakes of Canada, is continued along the river St. Lawrence to lat. 45°. not far S. of Montreal, when it passes due E. and follows a chain of mountains N. E. and afterwards diverges S. E. to the river St. Croix. On the S. an arbitrary line, about lat. 31°. divides the United States from West and East Florida. The greatest length of the United States, (not including Louisiana) is about one thousand three hundred English miles, and its breadth about one thousand. The square acres are computed at six hundred and forty millions, and those covered with water being supposed fifty-one millions, so that there remains five hundred and eighty-nine millions of acres of land.

The religion of the United States is Christianity, and every sect is universally tolerated. It would be useless to enumerate the various denominations; but about four-fifths are moderate independents.

The government, by the constitution of 1789, is vested in a president and two councils. The president is chosen for the term of four years; and the senate or superior council consists of two senators from each state, chosen every six years. The president commands the army and navy, and can pardon offences, except in cases of impeachment.

The population was estimated in 1790, at three millions nine hundred and thirty thousand, exclusive of the inhabitants N. W. of the Ohio, supposed to be then twenty thousand. The population is supposed to be doubled every twenty years, in which case it now (1810) amounts to upwards of seven millions.

Their manners and customs differ little from those of their British ancestors, except in a few particularities. They are, however, generally reserved.

The language of the United States is English, with the admixture of some words from other languages, brought in by people who have migrated from different countries. The American writers sometimes adopt expressions and idioms

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1583. Raleigh sent a small colony, under the command of Sir Richard Grenville, who settled in the isle of Roanoke, a most incommodious and useless station, whence they returned in 1586. Raleigh made several unsuccessful attempts to colonize the country, and afterwards resigned his patent to some merchants, who were contented with a petty traffic. At the death of Elizabeth, 1603, there was not one Englishman settled in America; and the Spaniards and Portuguese alone had formed any establishment on that vast continent.

The venerable Hakluyt, anxious that his countrymen should partake of the benefit of colonies, procured an association of men of rank and talents for this purpose; and a patent was granted by James I. April 10, 1606. The bay of Chesapeak was discovered in 1607, and the first lasting settlement was founded at James Town, in modern Virginia. Captain Smith, who afterwards published an account of his voyages, displayed remarkable spirit and enterprize; yet the colony was about to return to England when Lord Delawar arrived in 1610; and though he remained only a short time, yet his prudent conduct firmly established the settlement.

In 1585, John Davis, an experienced navigator, visited the western coast of Greenland, and explored the narrow sea, called Davis's Strait. On another voyage he proceeded as far north as the island of Disko, and the opposite shores of Greenland, which he named London coast. He also discovered Cumberland Strait; and upon the whole the three voyages of this navigator are of great consequence. His farthest point of discovery appears to have been Sanderson's Hope, lat. 72°; whence turning to the west, he was impeded by fields of ice.

In 1607, Hudson made his first voyage; and is said to have proceeded along the coast of Greenland as far as lat. 82°. On the voyage of 1610 Hudson discovered the Straits which bear his name; and that inland sea, which has been called Hudson's Bay.

In 1616 some public spirited gentlemen sent Captain Bilot to attempt a N. W. passage. William Baffin sailed with him as pilot: and this voyage is one of the most singular in the whole circle of geography. Far exceeding the utmost stretch of Davis, they discovered Horn Sound, Cape Dudley Digges, Hakluyt Island, Sir Thomas Smith's Sound, Cary's Islands, Alderman Jones's Sound, and Sir James Lancaster's Sound; all of them totally unknown to any preceding or succeeding navigator; so that he was suspected to be an impostor.

unknown to the British classics; and it is supposed that in the course of eighty or one hundred years, it will be a different language.

The manufactures of the United States may be considered as still in their infancy, as the people were accustomed to be supplied from Great Britain; but the recent commotions in Europe have driven many able manufacturers to America, where machinery is particularly valuable, as the price of labour is very high, it is presumed they are rapidly advancing in the arts.

The climate is remarkable for sudden transitions from heat to cold, and the contrary. In the northern states the winter is longer and more severe than in England, but the summer heat more intense.

There are several large rivers, particularly the Mississippi, Ohio, Illinois, Wisconsin, Chipawy, St. Croix, the Great and Little Miami, the Wabash, the Great Kennaway, the Kentucky, the Green River, the Cumberland, the Tenassee, the Penobscot, Kehnebec, Saco, Merimac, Connecticut; the Delaware, the Susquehanna, the Chesapeak, the Potomac, and James River.

There are many great lakes, particularly those which form the northern boundary: and several of less extent. The forests are so numerous and large, that they do not appear to have distinguished them by particular names.

In the province of Vermont is a curious stalactitic cave, in which, after a descent of one hundred and four feet, there opens a spacious room about twenty feet in breadth, and one hundred in length, with a circular hall at the farther end, at the bottom of which boils up a deep spring of clear water. Near Durham in New Hampshire, is a rock so poised on another, as to move with one finger; a natural remain of a ruined hill, though in England it would be called Druidical.

In the province of New York a rivulet runs under a hill about seventy yards in diameter, forming a beautiful arch in the rock; and there is a stalactitic cave, in which was found the petrefied skeleton of a large snake. In the territory on the N. W. of the Ohio, the savannas, or rich plains, extend for thirty or forty miles without any tree; they are crouded with deer, wild cattle, and turkeys, and often visited by bears and wolves: but this district is chiefly remarkable for a number of old forts, of an oblong form, with an adjoining tumulus or tomb. As the Mexicans have a tradition that they passed from the north, these forts may perhaps be remains of their first residence, or of some nation which they subdued. The natural bridge is a sublime and striking curiosity, being a rock covered with soil and trees, across a chasm, appearing to have been opened in the course of ages by a brook, which now runs between two and three hundred feet beneath. The breadth of this bridge is about sixty feet; and the thickness of the mass about forty.

The chief islands belonging to the United States are Long Island, (the province called Rhode Island, being continental, with two or three small islands attached *,) and a few insular strips of land near the shores of North Carolina. The others, scattered along the coast, and in the various bays and lakes, are of little consequence.

British Possessions.

These are Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Newfoundland, and the Bermudas.

Those parts of North America which still belong to Great Britain, are extensive, and of considerable importance, though so thinly peopled as not to contain above two hundred thousand souls, of which by far the greater part are French and natives, and in such a disadvantageous climate, that they sink into insignificance, when compared with the Spanish colonies, or with the United States.

Canada is computed to be one thousand two hundred geographical miles long, by two hundred medial breadth. Its capital, Quebec, was conquered by Wolfe, in 1759, and Canada was ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Paris, in 1763. The manners and customs of the settlers in Canada are considerably tinctured with the French gaiety and urbanity. The principal exports are furs and peltries, with some fish, potash, and American ginseng. Coal abounds in the island of Cape Breton, but this valuable mineral has not been discovered in Canada. The chief natural curiosities seem to be the grand lakes, rivers, and cataracts. Among the latter, the celebrated Falls of Niagara are chiefly on

* Rhode Island, which gives name to the state, is about thirteen miles in length, by four in breadth, with a considerable town called Newport: before the American war it was a beautiful and highly cultivated district.

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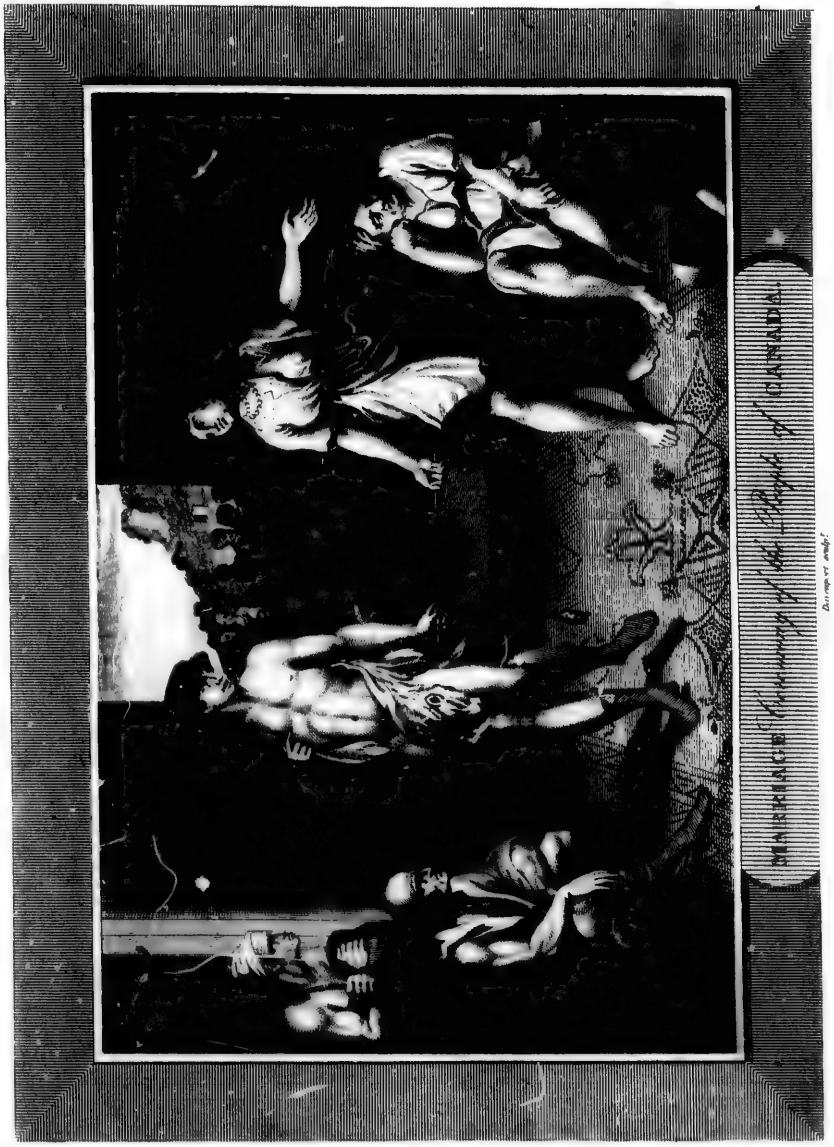

the side of Upper Canada, the river being there six hundred yards wide, and the fall one hundred and forty-two feet. A small island lies between the falls: and that on the side of the United States is three hundred and fifty yards wide, while the height is one hundred and sixty-three feet. From the great fall a constant cloud ascends, which may sometimes be seen at an incredible distance; and the whole scene is truly tremendous.

New Brunswick formed part of Nova Scotia till 1784, when that province was divided into two parts, of which New Brunswick was the largest portion. The river of St. John affords navigation for vessels of fifty tons, about sixty miles, and for boats about two hundred. Its capital is Frederick-town. The chief products are timber and fish.

Nova Scotia, is about three hundred miles long, by eighty of medial breadth. There are several considerable rivers, among which that of Annapolis is navigable fifteen miles for ships of one hundred tons. The bay of Fundi, between New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, extends fifty leagues inland; the ebb and flowing of tide being from forty-five to sixty feet. The capital is Halifax, on the Bay of Cheburto, well situated for the fishery. During a great part of the year the air is foggy and unhealthy; and for four or five months intensely cold.

The Island of Cape Breton, is attached to the province of Lower Canada, though divided from Nova Scotia by a strait of one mile in breadth. It is about one hundred miles long. The climate is cold and foggy. The chief towns are Sidney and Louisburg; and the number of inhabitants do not exceed one thousand upon the whole island. The fur trade is inconsiderable, but the fishery very important, this island being esteemed the chief seat; and the value of this trade, while in the possession of the French, was computed at 1,000,000l. sterling.

The Island of St. John is at no great distance from Cape Breton, being about sixty miles long, and thirty broad. It is attached to Nova Scotia.

Newfoundland, an island discovered by Sebastian Cabot, in 1496. It is about three hundred and twenty miles long, by as many broad, and as scarcely been penetrated above thirty miles from the shore. The great fishery on its banks begins about the 10th of May, and continues till the end of September. The cod is either dried for the Mediterranean, or barrelled up in a pickle of salt for the English market. The fishery is computed to yield about three hundred thousand pounds per annum, from the cod sold in the Catholic countries. The chief towns are St. John, in the S. E. with Placentia in the S. and Bonavista in the E.

The Bermudas, or Somer Isles, are four in number, viz. Bermuda, St. George's, St. David's, and Somerset, with several islets, and numerous rocks. The inhabitants are chiefly occupied in building light ships of their cedars, in which they trade to North America, and the West Indies. They are also frequented by whale fishers,

Spanish Dominions in North and South America.

The extent of the Spanish possessions in North America is very great, being about one thousand nine hundred and twenty geographical miles long, by about four hundred of medial breadth. Of this wide empire the chief part is distinguished by the name of Mexico, or New Spain; the provinces, in ascending from the south to the north, being Veragua*, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Honduras, (with the Musquito shore, claimed by the English,) Guatimala, and Verapaz, Chiapa, Tabasco, and the peninsula of Yucatan, Guaxaca, Mexico Proper, New Gallicia, Biscay, and Leon. The provinces farther to the north are Cinaloa and others on the gulf of California, with that large Chersonese itself. Louisiana† and the Two Floridas complete the chief denominations.

The Spanish possessions in South America are of prodigious extent, from the Caribbean Sea to the most southern promontory, according to the Spanish Geographers; but the English do not allow them so great an extent; so that what remains to the Spanish government, is about three thousand three hundred and sixty geographical miles long, by about nine hundred medial breadth. The whole length of the Spanish possessions in America may therefore be computed

* On the coast of Veragua is Conception Bay; where the dresses of the inhabitants are light and airy; the women wearing large bell hoops, form a curious contrast between the females of Old and New Spain.

† Louisiana was lately restored to France; and by France transferred to the United States.

puted at more than five thousand geographical miles. The grand divisions are, the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres; that of Peru, which includes Chili; and that of New Granada, in the north. The number of mines at work in the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres alone, amounts to thirty of gold *, twenty-seven of silver †, seven of copper, two of tin, and seven of lead ‡.

The ancient Mexicans worshipped the sun, but they had no image of that luminary in their temples: they had, however, a great many idols, among whom Haloch, or Tescalipuca, held a distinguished place. He seems to have been their god of war. They are said to have offered human sacrifices to their idols; and the dress of their chief priest was a long robe and a crown; and when about to perform a sacrifice, he was always accompanied by a priest of an inferior order.

At the commencement of a century the Mexicans manifested the greatest joy; and dances were exercised all over the country, in which the rejoicings exceeded every thing that the Europeans were acquainted with.

The Peruvians acknowledged one Almighty Being, whom they called Pacha-Camac; but as they did not see him, they seldom erected temples, or offered sacrifices to him: they worshipped him in their hearts as the unknown God. They offered sacrifices to the sun; and these sacrifices consisted of lambs, and other sorts of cattle, fowls, and corn, and even their best and finest cloathes; all which they burned in the place of incense. One of their great feasts, called Raymi, was held in the month of June, immediately after the summer solstice. This was also held in commemoration of their feast Inca, called Manca Capac, and Coya Mama Ocla, his wife and sister. At this festival all the viceroys, generals, governors, and other officers, were assembled, and the emperor, or Inca, officiated as high priest. So fond were the Peruvians of consecrated vessels, that the Inca never drank out of a vessel which had not been presented to the sun, and was thus supposed to have been blessed by that luminary; the performance of the ceremony of consecrating the Inca's vessel being attended with great solemnity.

Portuguese Possessions.

The dominions in South America held by the Portuguese, extend from the frontier of Dutch Guiana to Port St. Pedro, a space of two thousand one hundred geographical miles; and the breadth, from Cape St. Roque to the farthest Portuguese settlement on the river of Amazons, called St. Paul de Omaguas, equals that extent. This vast territory, rivaling the empires of antiquity, is still more unknown than the Spanish possessions, partly from the want of science and curiosity, partly on account of the thick forests which cover the extensive plains of the Maranon, and its auxiliary streams. Though long in al-

* The celebrated mountain of Potosi has presented, for two centuries and a half, inexhaustible treasures of silver; while the gold seems thinly scattered by nature, and has no where been discovered in such enormous masses. This mountain, of a conic form, is about twenty English miles in circumference, and perforated by more than three hundred rude shafts, through a firm yellow argillaceous schistus. There are veins of ferruginous quartz, interspersed with what are called the horn and vitreous ores. Of a peculiar dark reddish colour, this mountain rises void of all vegetation, blasted by the numerous furnaces, which in the night form a grand spectacle. This surprising mine was discovered 1545, by Hualpa a Peruvian, who in pursuing some chamois goats, pulled up a bush, and beheld under the root that amazing vein of silver afterwards called *la rica*, or the rich. He shared this discovery with his friend Huanca, who revealed it to a Spaniard his master; and the mine was formally registered 21st April, 1545.

† Another celebrated mine is that of mercury, indispensable in amalgamating the precious metals. While Mexico is supplied from Spain, Peru has the native product of Guancavelica, a district and town not far to the S. W. of Lima, near the great bend of the old Maranon. The cinnabar had been used by the Peruvians as a red paint; and the quicksilver was first detected about 1567.

‡ Platina is chiefly found in the mines of Choco and Barbacoas, in the vice royalty of New Grenada. Tin, according to Helms, is found at Chayanna and Paria; and there are also several mines of copper and lead. The chief copper mine was at Aroa; but the colonies are mostly supplied from the mines at Cuba. In the time of the Incas, emeralds were also common, chiefly on the coast of Manta, and in the government of Atacames, where it is said that there are mines which the Indians will not reveal, as they must encounter the labour of working them. The river of Emeralds flows from the Andes to the north of Quito; and others of inferior quality are found near Santa Fé de Bogota, where are the chief modern mines of Peruvian emeralds, justly preferred to all others, since those of Egypt have been neglected. Those found in the tombs are worked into spheres, cylinders, cones, and other figures, and pierced with great precision; but in what manner this was accomplished remains unknown. According to Ulloa, rubies have also been observed in the jurisdiction of Cuença.

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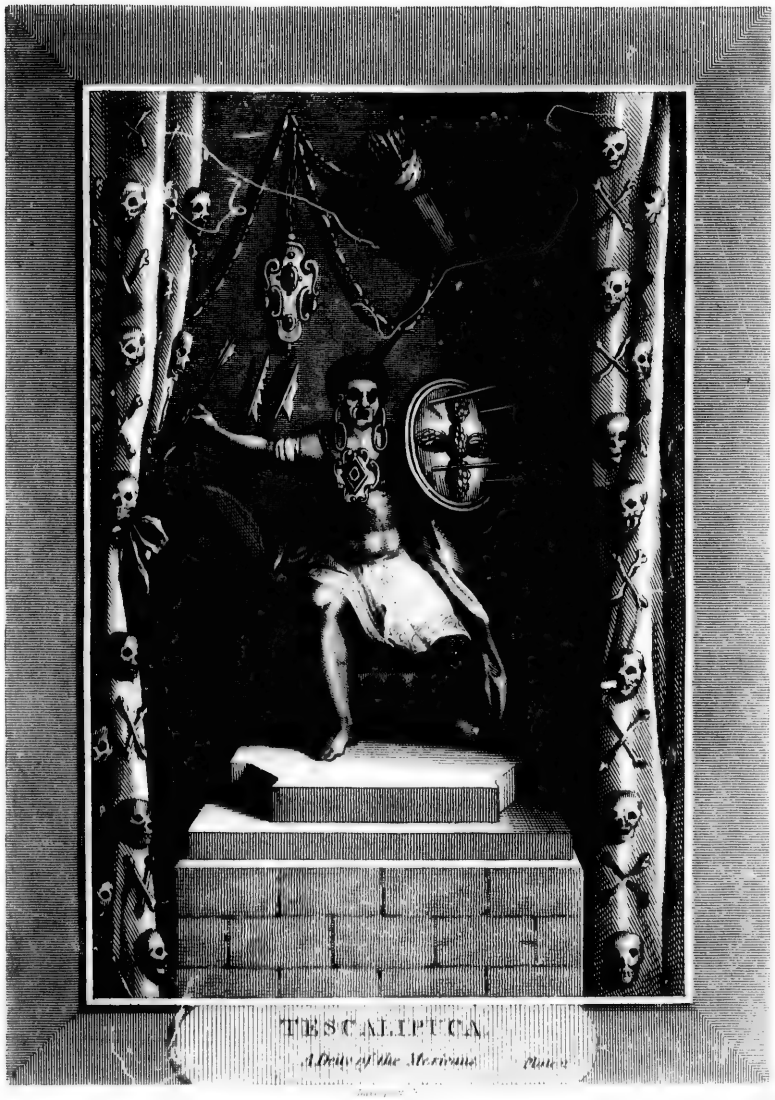
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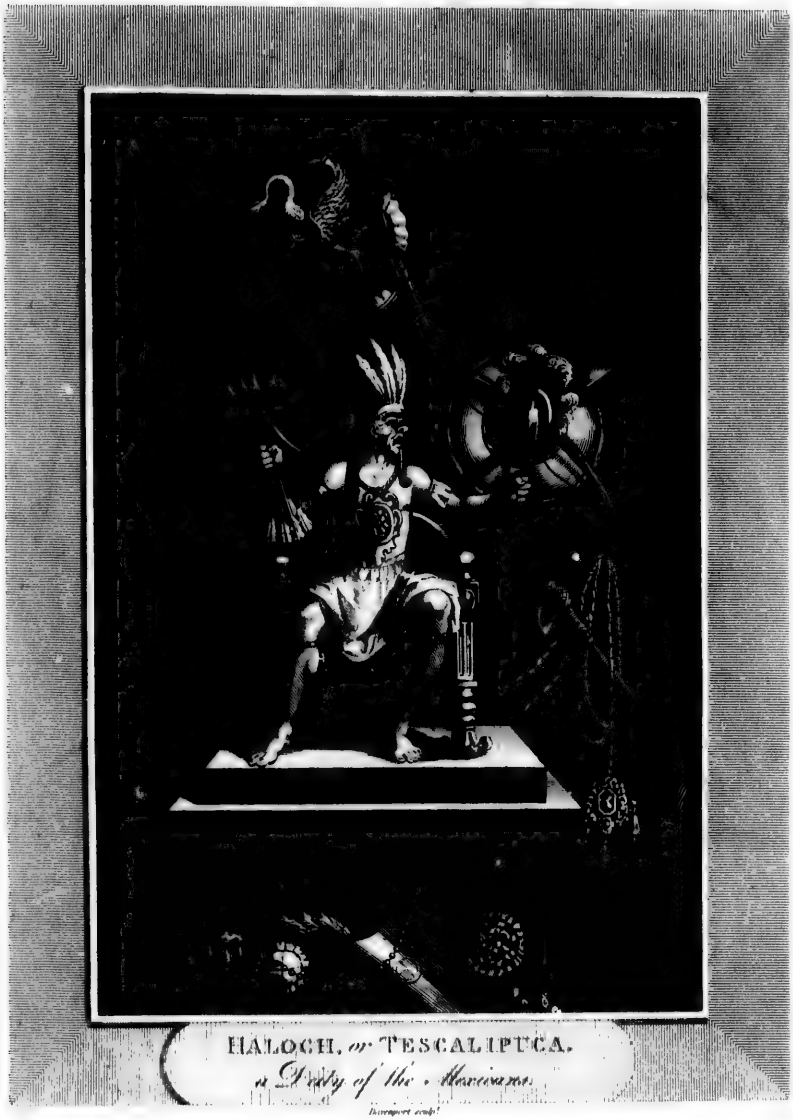
A Deity of the Mexicans



HALOCH, or TESCALIPUCA.
a Deity of the Mexicans.

Basire sculp.

MEXICAN PRIESTS.
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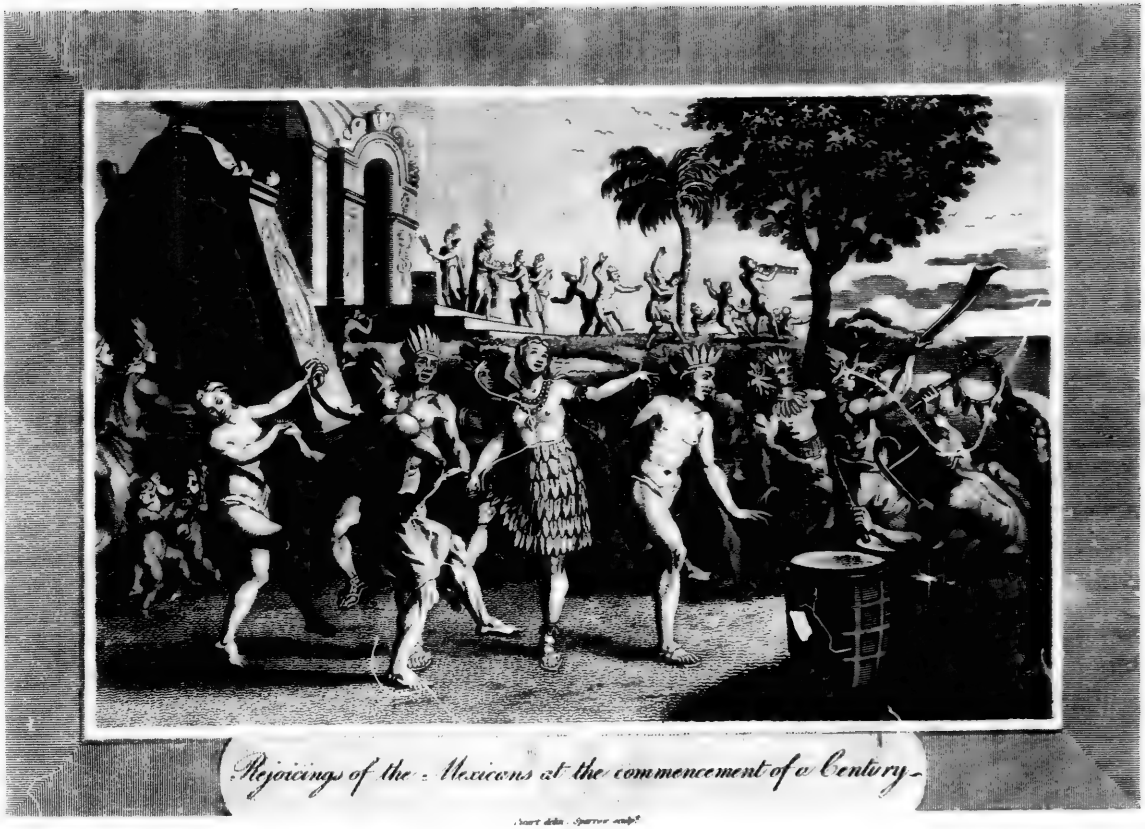
Then he put his hand upon the head of the goat, and slew it, and cast the blood thereof upon the altar round about.



Rejoicings of the Mexicans at the commencement of a Century.

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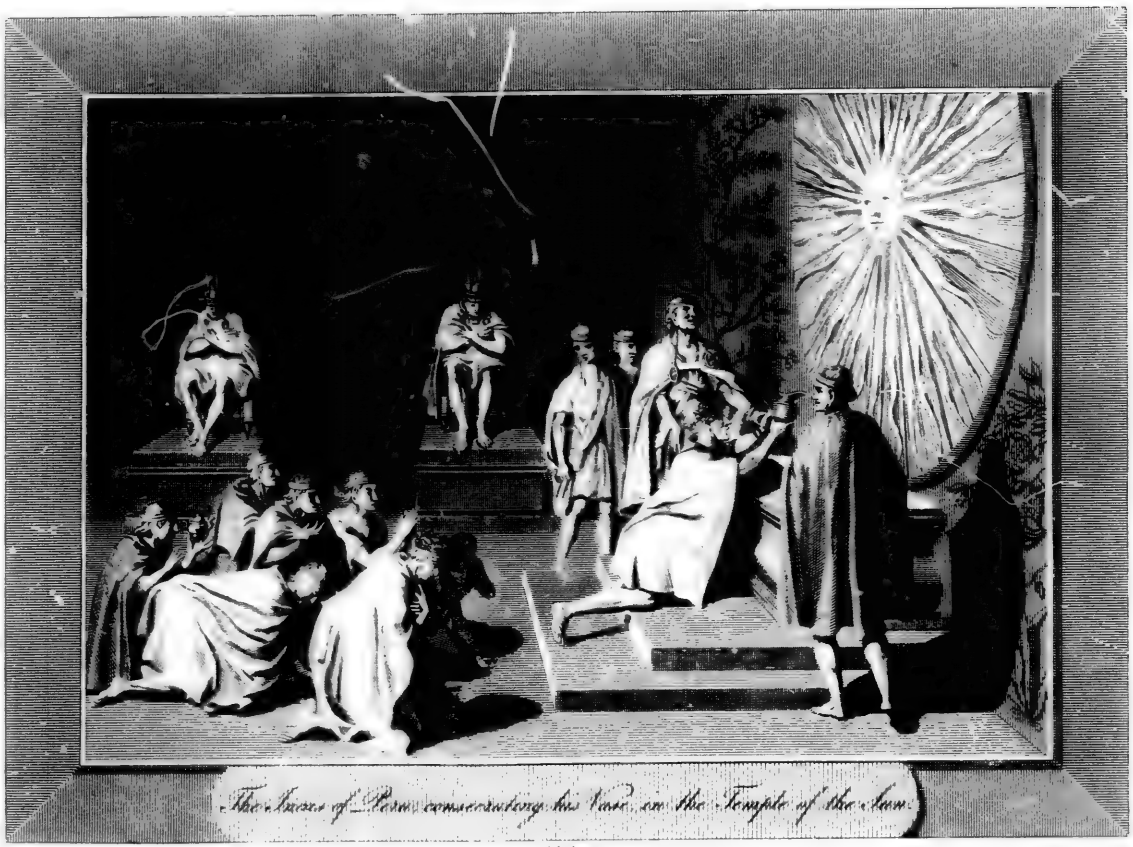


The Incas of Peru commemorating the Year on the Temple of the Sun.

Man of Otaheite
Woman of Otaheite

liance with Portugal; we have little precise knowledge of Brazil, and still less of the interior country called Amazonia. The chief city of Brazil was formerly Bahia, or San Salvador, which has since yielded to Rio Janeiro *.

West Indian Islands.

These islands, so important to commerce, are Cuba, St. Domingo, Jamaica, and Porto Rico, all of considerable extent; and followed by the distinguished groupe called the Antilles, Caribbee, or Leeward Islands. To the south of this groupe is Trinidad, a recent English acquisition. In the N. E. are the Bahama Islands, which are narrow and barren strips of land, formerly frequented by pirates, till subjected by England.

Cuba is not less than seven hundred English miles long, but the medial breadth does not exceed seventy. Such is the fertility of Cuba, that it may be regarded as a most important and flourishing possession. The quantity of sugar is considerable; and the tobacco is esteemed of more exquisite flavour than that of any other part of America. Among the products must also be reckoned ginger, long pepper, mastic, cocoa, manioc, and aloes. There are mines of excellent copper, and gold is not unknown in the rivers. The forests abound with wild cattle and swine; and among the trees are green ebony and mahogany. Havanna is the capital.

St. Domingo, or Hispaniola, or Hayti. This island is about four hundred English miles long, by one hundred broad. Under the name of Hispaniola it was the first Spanish settlement in the New World. The French colony derived its origin from a party of buccaneers, mostly natives of Normandy, towards the middle of the seventeenth century: and the western part was formally ceded to France by the peace of Ryswic. So flourishing a state was the French colony in before the Revolution, that its exports amounted to four millions seven hundred and sixty-five thousand one hundred and thirty pounds sterling. The National Assembly of France passed some decrees concerning the mulattoes, or people of colour, which gave them great offence; and after many absurd struggles between the whites and the mulattoes, three thousand negro slaves, supported by the mulattoes, entered the city of Cape François, on the 21st of June, 1793, and perpetrated an universal massacre of the white men, women, and children. At length the people of colour obtained so great advantages, that they proclaimed the island the empire of Hayti, and Christophe has been declared emperor; but at present, (October, 1810,) the affair is not terminated, and Petion is still master of a part of the island.

Jamaica, the third island in size in this archipelago, is about one hundred and seventy English miles long, and sixty broad. In 1655, during the protectorate of Oliver Cromwell, it was taken by the English, by whose industry it has become one of the most flourishing of the West India settlements. It is divided into three countries, viz. Cornwall, in the W. Middlesex in the centre, and Surrey in the E. St. Jago, or Spanish Town, is regarded as the capital; while Kingston is the chief sea port. The principal exports are to Great Britain, Ireland, and North America, in sugar, rum, coffee, indigo, ginger, and pimento, valued in 1787 at two millions sterling. The climate, though tempered by the sea breezes, is extremely hot; and the days and nights are nearly of equal duration. What is called the Blue Mountain Peak, rises seven thousand four hundred and thirty-one feet above the level of the sea; and the precipices are interspersed with beautiful savannas. The bread fruit tree has been introduced by the exertions of

* To this place the royal family of Portugal, assisted by the English, migrated, when the French made their appearance in great force at Lisbon, at the close of 1807.

The harbour of Rio Janeiro is capacious and excellent; and surrounded by a fertile country. It is protected by the castle of Santa Cruz, erected on a huge rock of granite. On the west is the city of St. Sebastian, commonly called Rio de Janeiro, built on a tongue of land, the hills and rocks behind being crowned with woods, convents, houses, and churches. On a small isle are a dock yard, magazines, and naval store-houses; and there are several other isles in the harbour behind the town. The streets are generally straight and well paved. Water is supplied by an aqueduct on the Roman plan. Yet the situation of this beautiful city is said to be unhealthy, owing to the exhalations from the primitive inland forests. There are manufactories of sugar, rum, and cochineal; and several districts produce cotton, indigo, coffee, cacao or chocolate, rice, pepper, and the noted Brazilian tobacco. The red or Brazil wood, is the property of the crown. The natural history has been little explored: the circumjacent rocks are granitic, white, red, or deep blue, the last being of a close and hard texture.

Sir Joseph Banks, than which none can be more beneficial, or worthy of applause.

Porto Rico is about one hundred and twenty English miles long, and forty broad. It is a fertile, beautiful, and well watered island; the principal trade of which is in sugar, ginger, cotton, hides, with some drugs, fruits, and sweat-meats. In the northern part are said to be mines of gold and silver.

The Caribbee Islands. This range extends from Tobago, in the south, to the Virgin Islands, in the north. The Caribbees are of remarkable fertility and commercial advantage. Their names are, Barbadoes, Antigua, St. Christopher's, St. Vincent, Dominica, Grenada, Montserrat, Nevis, Martinique, Guadaloupe, St. Lucie, Tobago, St. Croix, St. Thomas, St. John, St. Bartholomew, and St. Eustatius. The products and exports of all these islands are similar, consisting, generally, of sugar, rum, coffee, cocoa, indigo; and cotton.

The Bermudas, or Somer Islands.

These islands are situated in thirty-two degrees, twenty minutes, north latitude, and sixty-five degrees, west longitude from London. Their distance from the Land's End in Cornwall, is computed at one thousand five hundred leagues; from the Madeira's, about one thousand two hundred; and from Carolina, in North America, three hundred. They are difficult of access, being, as Waller says, "walled with rocks;" they lie in a cluster, nearly in the shape of a shepherd's crook, and contain about twenty thousand acres. No part of the world enjoys a purer air, or more temperate climate, or is more remarkable for health, and for plenty of flesh, fish, poultry, fruits, herbs, and roots. This groupe of islands received their name from John Bermudas, a Spaniard, who discovered them in 1503; and were afterwards called the Somer Islands, from Sir George Somers, who lost his ship on their rocks, in the year 1609, in his passage to Virginia.

The Lukayo's, or Bahama Islands.

The Bahama Islands are situated to the south of Carolina, between seventy-three and eighty-one degrees of west longitude, and twenty-one and twenty-seven degrees of north latitude. They are very numerous, and twelve of them are pretty large. These were the first lands which Columbus discovered in America, in the year 1492. Some of them, however, are mere rocks.

The island of Providence has been planted and fortified by Great Britain some years, and is situated in the seventy-eighth degree of West longitude, and the twenty-fifth degree of North latitude: it is two hundred miles east of the continent of Florida. None of the other islands are inhabited; but the English have plantations upon some of them. The soil exactly resembles that of Carolina.

These islands, as above-mentioned, were the first fruits of Columbus's discoveries; but the English were unacquainted with them till Captain Seyle was driven among them, in his passage to Carolina, in 1667. He then gave his own name to one of them; and when he was afterwards driven upon it a second time, he called it Providence. This island, for a long time, was the resort of American pirates, after the English had made a fruitless attempt to plant it, and the rest of the Bahamas, in the reign of Charles II. In 1718 these pirates were dislodged by Captain Woodes Rogers, who was sent out by government, and who erected a fort, and made a settlement in Providence, which has since improved very considerably. The Bahamas were taken by the Spaniards in the American war, but were restored to the English at the treaty of peace, in 1783. Before the articles, indeed, were signed, Colonel Devaux had fitted out two privateers at his own expence, and had exerted himself so vigorously, that he compelled the island to surrender. The returns of his captures were five gallies, eighteen pieces of artillery, and five or six hundred troops.

Brief

Brief View of Voyages of the principal Navigators not already mentioned.

As we have before, p. 846, given an account of the voyages of Christopher Columbus, we refer our readers to that page, and shall proceed with

Sebastian Cabot's Voyage to America.

Sebastian Cabot, who was born at Bristol, in 1467, was employed by Henry VII. of England, together with his brother John, to make a voyage for the discovery of a N. W. passage to India. They sailed from Bristol in the Spring of 1494, and saw Newfoundland, to which they gave the name of Prima Vista, or First Seen. Going ashore on a small island on the coast, they gave it the appellation of St. John's, from its being discovered on the day dedicated to St. John the Baptist. They then returned to England with three of the natives on board, made a report of their discoveries, and met with a gracious reception.

Sebastian Cabot set sail again on the 4th of May, 1497, and sailed as high as 67° 30′ N. latitude, proceeding from thence down as low as 56°, and then explored the coast of America as low as 38°. This part of the continent, he expressly says, was afterwards named Florida. His provisions beginning to fail him, he sailed back; and, touching at Newfoundland *, returned to England with a full cargo of the productions of the countries he had visited.

Voyage of Americus Vesputius.

Americus Vesputius was born at Florence, in 1454, and was employed by the king of Spain to sail on a voyage of discovery. He set sail from Cadiz on the 20th of May, 1497. He arrived on the coast of Paria, and sailed along it as far as Terra Firma and the Gulf of Mexico: and, after an absence of eighteen months, he returned to Spain. Claiming to himself the honour of having discovered the continent, he gave name to the New World, which of right belonged to Columbas.

After a lapse of some months Vesputius sailed on a second voyage. He proceeded to the Antille Islands, and thence to the coasts of Guiana and Venezuela; and returned safely to Cadiz in November, 1500; bringing back with him many precious stones, and other valuable commodities, discovered in the course of this voyage. He was ungratefully treated by the Spanish court.

Emanuel, king of Portugal, afterwards took him into his service, and Vesputius set sail from Lisbon in May, 1501. In this voyage he discovered the Brazils, and explored the coast as far as Patagonia to the south. He then returned to Lisbon, after a voyage of sixteen months.

His Portugueze majesty was so elated with this success, and so grateful to its author, that he gave him the command of six ships, and sent him again to prosecute his discoveries. His intention was to find a passage by the west to the Molucca Islands, but being detained five months on the coast of America by contrary winds, and his provisions beginning to grow short, he was obliged to return to Portugal. He died at Tercera, in 1514.

Voyage to the East Indies, By Vasquez de Gama.

Don Vasquez de Gama, a Portugueze nobleman, was employed by the king of Portugal to sail on a voyage for the discovery of the East Indies. He therefore sailed from Belem on the 8th of July, 1497. After encountering various storms, in which they frequently despaired of being saved, they entered a large bay on an island, to which they gave the appellation of St. Helena, from its being discovered on the day dedicated to that saint †.

From St. Helena they sailed on the 16th of November, and in two days came within sight of the Cape of Good Hope, which they doubled on the 20th. Having run seventy leagues beyond the Cape, the admiral entered a bay, to which he gave the name of Angra de San Blas. The

* Newfoundland was certainly the first of the English plantations; and the spirit of enterprize, to which the discoveries of Cabot gave rise, paved the way to the naval power, the commerce, and the glory of this kingdom.

† The inhabitants of this island were small in stature, ill-favoured, and black. When they spoke, they fetched their breath as it were sighing; they were clothed in the skins of wild beasts; and armed with stakes hardened in the fire, and pointed with the horns of beasts.

country

country in the vicinity of this bay appeared very fertile, and abounded with elephants and buffaloes.

On leaving this place, they were soon overtaken by a violent storm. On Christmas-day they saw land, to which they gave the name of Terra de Natal. They then proceeded to a river called De los Reyes. They prosecuted their voyage along a low flat coast, covered with large and lofty trees, as far as Cape Corientes; missing a sight of Sofala, which lay in their way. On the 24th of January they visited the country now called Cuama: to a large river on the coast, he gave the name of the River of Good Signs; because from the calico they produced for sale, he apprehended he should soon reach the treasures of the East. Prosecuting their voyage about a month longer, they discovered four islands, the inhabitants of which spoke Arabic; they informed him that their island was called Mosambique, and was subject to the king of Quiloa; and that it contained a town peopled with merchants who traded to India, and imported its valuable productions. After encountering various dangers, from the treachery of the Mohammedan natives, he arrived at Melinda, where he found some Christians, and met with a more favourable reception. On the 22nd of April he left Melinda, and instead of sailing along the coast, as he had hitherto done, resolved to trust himself to the ocean. He crossed a sea of seven hundred leagues in twenty-three days; and, on the 17th of May the coast of India opened to his view. This was the grand object of his pursuit; and the hills of Calicot were pointed out by the pilot. De Gama was soon introduced to the zamorin of Calicut, and a good understanding prevailed between them for some time, and a treaty of commerce was on the point of being agreed upon; but by the machinations of the Mohammedans the scheme was frustrated. After this he was visited by a person who said he was an Italian, and spoke the Italian language. This person being represented as a pirate, De Gama ordered him to be whipped, in order to obtain a confession of his situation and intentions. This punishment having no effect, he inhumanly ordered him to be hoisted up by a pully, in a most indecent and excruciating form. After he had been lifted up in this manner the fourth time, he confessed that he was a Polish Jew; and that Sabay, the sovereign of Goa, meditating an attack on the Portugueze ships, had sent him to learn their strength and mode of fighting. He then carried him to Portugal, and he afterwards rendered essential services to the Portugueze.

On the 5th of October, De Gama left the coast of India, and directed his course for Melinda, where he experienced the same friendly reception as he had done in his passage out. Nothing happened worthy of remark till the 26th of April, when they again doubled the Cape of Good Hope, that grand barrier which had hitherto been regarded as the *ne plus ultra* of navigation. De Gama at length arrived safely at Belem in Portugal, in September, 1499, after a long voyage of two years and two months, with the loss of more than half his men. On his landing, every mark of honour was paid him, every demonstration of joy attended his discoveries: he was permitted to quarter the royal arms, and had an annual pension of three thousand ducats assigned him.

De Cabral's Voyage to the East Indies.

Pedro Alvarez de Cabral was shortly after employed by the king of Portugal to undertake a voyage to the East Indies, the way by sea being now discovered by De Gama. Accordingly, on the 9th of March, 1500, he set sail from Portugal with a fleet of thirteen vessels. Prosecuting his voyage, to avoid the coast of Guinea, he sailed towards the Brazils, where he staid a short time, and then sailed towards the Cape of Good Hope; but in his passage had the misfortune to be overtaken by a violent storm, by which he lost four of his vessels, and all hands on board. On the 13th of September he cast anchor near Calicut. The admiral De Cabral, on his admission to the zamorin, was seated in a chair next his majesty, which was the highest honour that could be shewn him. He then delivered his letters of credence, written in Arabic, which being read, he next communicated his message, importing, that the king of Portugal was anxious to cultivate a friendship with the zamorin, and to be permitted to settle a factory at Calicut, which should be constantly supplied with European commodities; and requested that, either by way of exchange, or for money, he might be allowed to lade his ships with spices. The terms

of this embassy appeared highly flattering to the zamorin; and he informed the admiral that his master should be welcome to whatever his city supplied. In consequence a factory was established, and the Portugueze flag, by the emperor's direction, was placed on the top of it. In consequence of the jealousy of the Arabian merchants, however, hostilities commenced, and many lives were lost. De Cabral then left Calicut, and proceeded to Cochin, a city nineteen leagues south of Calicut, where his ships were laden with dispatch. Leaving Cananore, he proceeded to cross the sea that separates India from Africa, doubled the Cape of Good Hope on the 22nd of May, and arrived at Lisbon on the 31st of July, 1501.

De Cabral, on his return to Europe, impressed the king with an idea, that without the application of force, it would be impossible to form settlements in India: the king, therefore, sent out three squadrons in March, 1502; the first of these consisted of ten ships, and was placed under the guidance of Vasquez de Gama; the second of five, under Vincent de Sodre; and the third of as many, under Stephen de Gama. The three fleets, however, were to be under the command of Vasquez de Gama, to whom the king delivered the flag with great solemnity in the cathedral at Lisbon, and conferred on him the title of Admiral of the Eastern Seas. Having been joined by the other vessels, and having reached the coast of India, he fell in with a large vessel belonging to the sultan of Egypt, which was richly laden, and had many principal Moors on board, who were going on a pilgrimage to Mecca *.

After committing many depredations on the shores of India, and destroying the town of Calicut, De Gama obtained a house for the erection of a factory at Cananore; and having regulated the price of spices, according to the standard fixed on at Cochin, he left twenty-four men to superintend the trade. He then sailed for Europe, leaving De Sodre with six ships to assist the king of Cochin, in case the zamorin of Calicut made war against him. De Gama arrived at Cascais on the 1st of September, and was graciously received by king Emanuel, who conferred on him the title of Count Videgueyra. Thus we perceive, that it was by treachery, piracy, war, and cruelty, that the Portugueze first gained a settlement in India.

* This ship he attacked, and took after a vigorous resistance; and on going on board, commanded the Moors to produce their merchandize, on pain of being thrown into the sea. They pretended that all their effects were left at Calicut; but one of them having been bound hand and foot, and thrown overboard, the rest were so intimidated at this dreadful example, that they produced their property. The children were then carried into the admiral's ship, and the remainder of the plunder distributed among the soldiers. Not satisfied with this, the vessel, with all her passengers, was ordered to be set on fire. But the Moors having broken up the hatches, under which they were confined, and quenched the flames, which began to rage around them, Stephen de Gama was ordered to lay them on board. Desperate with the imminence of their danger, the passengers received him with great resolution, and even attempted to burn the other ships. Night coming on, gave a respite to the work of horror; but so inveterate was the rage of De Gama, that he ordered the ship to be closely watched, that none might, by the favour of the darkness, escape to the shore, and elude his vengeance. During this dreadful night, the poor Moors, with unavailing prayers, invoked the assistance of the prophet. The morning found the Admiral relentless and unpitying. His brother boarded the vessel, and setting fire to it, drove the Moors, who still made an ineffectual struggle, into the poop. Some of the sailors disdained to quit the ship till she was half consumed, and the Moors, when the flames were rapidly approaching them, leaped into the sea with hatchets, and swimming, attacked their inhuman pursuers. To finish this melancholy tale, of three hundred persons, among whom were thirty women, not one escaped the fire, the sword, or the waves. Can humanity read this without a tear! can Christianity hear it without a blush! Yet by such cruel and base transactions did the Europeans first gain their settlements on the shores of Hindostan.

Voyage of Magelhaens round the World.

The voyage of Ferdinand Magelhaens round the world deserves to be particularly noticed. He was a native of Portugal, born a gentleman, and bred a soldier; in which capacities he had been employed in those expeditions which succeeded De Gama's discovery, and which terminated at length in the reduction of Malacca, Goa, and Ormuz, under the dominion of Portugal. Columbus went in search of a passage he never found, and found what he little expected. The passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean was still a desideratum in navigation; and Vasquez de Nunez de Balboa having discovered the last mentioned sea from the mountains of Panama, Magelhaens conceived the idea of the circumnavigation of the globe, which at that period was not generally allowed to be round. Not meeting with sufficient encouragement at the court of Portugal, he applied to Charles the Fifth, king

of Spain, who, entering into his views of discovering the Banda and Molucca Islands by a western navigation, ordered a squadron of five ships to be fitted out, with the utmost expedition, and gave the command of it to Ferdinand Magelhaens. He set sail from Cadiz on the 10th of August, 1517, and after touching at Teneriffe, he sailed for Rio Janeiro, on the coast of Brazil. While on the coast of Brazil, he met with some chagrin from the dissatisfaction of some of his officers; but by an act of severity he allayed the mutinous disposition of the crews, and proceeded on his voyage. At length he fell in with the passage he had been so long in search of, in lat. 52° S. and entered those straights which will make his name immortal. In a transport of joy, he named the point of land, from which he had his agreeable prospect, Port Desire. Much was now accomplished, but much remained to be done. It required all his caution and skill to sail through the newly discovered passage, and before they could enter the great South Sea, which was on the 28th of December, one year, four months, and eighteen days had elapsed, since their departure from Spain. On this amazingly wide ocean they wandered between three and four months, without seeing land, except two desert islands. Here they were reduced to a state of famine, and driven to the miserable expedient of eating the hides that covered the ships' rigging. From the gentleness of the breezes, and placidness of the sea, they gave it the name of the Pacific Ocean. On the 6th of March, they fell in with the Ladrones, or Isles of Thieves. Leaving the Ladrones, they landed at Zamul, about thirty leagues distant; from which place they sailed to Humuna, a pleasant island, inhabited by a humane race of people. After sailing among several islands, the fleet arrived at Zubut on the 7th of April. Leaving Zubut, he proceeded to the isle of Mathan. From the two kings who governed this island the Spaniards demanded tribute, which was justly refused, and an open rupture ensued. Magelhaens was wounded by a poisoned arrow, and pierced in the head with a lance, which terminated his life and exploits: even his body was never recovered. After the death of Magelhaens, they held on their course towards the Moluccas, of which the admiral had received some intelligence before his catastrophe. The y then proceeded to Borneo: thence they proceeded to the Moluccas, and reached Tiridore on the 8th of November. Thus one object of the voyage was accomplished, to sail to the Moluccas by the west. At length they reached the port of St. Lucar, on the 7th of September, under the conduct of John Sebastian Cano, after circumnavigating the globe in three years and thirty-seven days. Of the whole squadron, only one ship returned to Spain, and of two hundred and thirty-four officers and seamen, the complement at setting out, only thirteen Spaniards reached their native land.

Voyage round the World, By Sir Francis Drake.

Sir Francis Drake was the first English circumnavigator. Having once had a prospect of the great South Sea, he formed the project of sailing round the world, but it was not till the year 1577, that he had collected a force sufficient to man five vessels, and, by a pretended royal authority, appeared as admiral of the squadron. The fleet consisted of the Pelican, the flag ship, of one hundred tons burden; the Elizabeth, John Winter, vice-admiral; the Marygold, commanded by captain Thomas; the Swan, of fifty tons, captain John Chester; and the Christopher, of fifteen tons, which was committed to the charge of one of his carpenters. These ships, partly fitted out at his own risk, and partly at the expence of others, and manned with one hundred and sixty-four chosen seamen, sailed from Plymouth on the 15th of November, 1577. On the 5th of April, 1578, they descried the coast of Brazil, and sailing southward, he entered the Straights of Magelhaens on the 20th of August. In this intricate and dangerous navigation, they discovered an island, to which they gave the name of Elisabeth, in honour of the queen. On the 6th of September, after a passage of sixteen days, Drake entered the great South Sea, intending to hold his course towards the equinoctial line. At length, after having sailed to different parts of the Pacific Ocean, and taking a great deal of plunder, he espied the Moluccas on the 3d of November. The desires of the people were now for returning home, and he was compelled to steer for the Cape of Good Hope, which he doubled on the 15th of June, and

and entered Plymouth harbour on September 26, 1580. Drake had spent two years, ten months, and a few days, in this undertaking, and returned with immense riches. The queen paid him a visit on board his ship at Deptford, and conferred on him the honour of knighthood *.

Voyage round the World, By Thomas Cavendish.

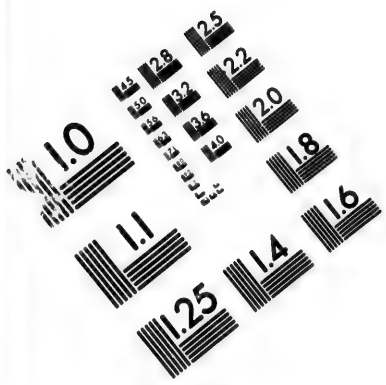
Captain Thomas Cavendish was the second English circumnavigator. Cavendish fitted out three ships, and having procured her Majesty's commission, left London on the 10th of July, 1586; he embarked at Harwich, arrived at Plymouth on the 18th, and three days after sailed on his intended voyage. Cavendish, like Drake, was a voyager of fortune; but as it is not within our plan to relate the numberless piracies committed by our early navigators, we shall content ourselves with remarking only the principal discoveries they made. He entered the great South Sea on the 24th of February, 1587, and then sailed from one part of the western coast of America to another, committing innumerable acts of piracies on the seas, and burning the towns, and plundering the inhabitants on the shore. Having coasted along Manilla, where he found it impracticable to carry on his predatory excursions, he sailed for Java, and obtained some information relative to the policy, manners, and customs of the people of that island. He left Java on the 16th of March, 1588, and sailed for the Cape of Good Hope. He made St. Helena on the 8th of April, where he took in wood and water; after which he set sail for England, and arrived at Plymouth on the 9th of September, 1588.

Not satisfied with the riches he had acquired by plunder, Cavendish meditated another voyage, in which he hoped to amass greater wealth. Accordingly he again set sail from Plymouth on the 26th of August, 1591, and held his course towards the Brazils: here he did much damage on the coast, without much benefit to himself, and then proceeded towards the Straights of Magelhaens. On attempting a passage through the Straights, they experienced all the calamities of cold and hunger; and while the passage remained doubtful, all the sick were put on shore in the woods, to remove useless incumbrances, an instance of inhumanity that would have reflected disgrace on savages. The general voice of the seamen was now to return to Brazil; and Cavendish was compelled to submit to their desires. One calamity now followed another in quick succession. He lost several of his ships, and thirty of the crew of one of them going ashore, were attacked by the Portugueze and Indians, and massacred to a man. He afterwards thought of taking the town of Spirito Santo, but found several obstacles: his men, however, landed, and went forward to attack the town in the face of an enemy well prepared for their reception. Disgrace and defeat were inevitable, and captain Morgan, with two-thirds of the party, were put to death. He then set sail again, still wishing to visit the South Seas, where he had committed so many robberies on his first voyage; but the men declared they would sail for England; whither it appears Captain Cavendish never reached.

Commodore Anson's Voyage round the World.

Towards the close of 1739, a war with Spain appearing inevitable, the English government wisely conceived, that the most effectual step it could take to distress the enemy was to attack them in their distant settlements, and thus cut off their supplies of money, which are the principal sinews of war. Accordingly George Anson, Esq. was appointed commodore of the intended expedition, and set sail from St. Helen's on the 18th of September, 1740. The squadron under his command consisted of the Centurion, of sixty-four guns, and four hundred men, George Anson, Esq. commander and commodore; the Gloucester, of fifty guns, and three hundred men, captain Norris; the Severn fifty guns, and three hundred men, the hon. captain Legg; the Pearl, of forty guns, two hundred and fifty men, captain Mitchel; the Wager, twenty-eight guns, one hundred and sixty men, captain Kidd; and the Tryal sloop, of eight guns, and one hundred men, the hon. captain Murray. Two victuallers, one of them

* This ship was preserved many years at Deptford, as a singular curiosity; and when almost entirely decayed, a chair was made out of its materials, and presented to the university of Oxford, where it is still to be seen.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of four hundred, and the other of two hundred tons, attended them.

He reached Madeira in thirty-seven days, where he remained about a week, taking in water, wine, and other refreshments. Sailing westward, they discovered the coast of Brazil about the middle of December, and two days after anchored off the island of St. Catharine. On the 18th of January, 1741, the expedition proceeded from the last amicable port it was intended to touch at, to encounter the danger of boisterous seas. On the 4th of March they came in sight of Cape Virgin, and on the 7th began to open the Straights, when Statenland appeared in view. It seemed entirely composed of inaccessible rocks, terminating in ragged points, rising to an amazing height, and every where enveloped in snow. Here they experienced the most dreadful tempests, which were rendered more mischievous from the manner of their approach; for, if at any time a momentary calm tempted them to spread their sails, so sudden was the return of the wind, that it tore the sails to pieces before they could be furled. To increase the calamity, great quantities of snow and sleet generally accompanied these storms, which freezing on the rigging, made the cordage brittle and insecure; at the same time that the limbs of the seamen were numbed by the intensity of the cold, and not a few had their toes and fingers mortified. After encountering a variety of violent storms, in which the fleet suffered materially, they reached Cape Noir, though they imagined they were ten degrees more westerly. The currents had deceived them so much, that they had not advanced more than half the way they reckoned. They then steered to the southward, and again had the misfortune to encounter the most dreadful storms. Three days before the discovery of land, the Severn and Pearl had separated, and were never seen afterwards; whence they concluded they must have dashed on the shore in the night. On the 24th of April, the wind again blew a perfect storm, and four other ships of the squadron separated, nor did any of them rejoin the commodore till his arrival at Juan Fernandez. In this tempest the Centurion had her sails rent to pieces, and most of her rigging broke. Their evils seemed to be increasing till the 22d of May, when the fury of all the storms they had hitherto experienced, seemed to be united, and to have conspired for their destruction. A boisterous sea gave her such a prodigious shock, that the ballast and stores shifting, threw her on one side, and they were in dread of immediately foundering; but the wind abating, they were driven ashore on the island of Chiloe. This was the last storm they met with in this climate. At length they again saw the island of Juan Fernandez, but there were not more than ten foremast-men in a watch that were capable of doing their duty. Between seventy and eighty men fell martyrs to this protracted course at sea; and it was with the utmost difficulty a sufficient strength could be mustered to bring the ship to anchor. Three months before, the Centurion had between four and five hundred men in health and full vigour; but, by the distresses they had undergone, scarcely enough remained to man the ship *.

It was not long after the Centurion had been secured in her destined station, before they discovered the Tryal sloop, and the commodore sent some hands to assist her in coming to anchor. Her commander informed him, that he had lost thirty-four men out of his small complement, and that only himself, his lieutenant, and three men were able to stand by the sails. He now erected tents on shore for the reception of the sick, when one hundred and sixty-seven persons were landed, besides twelve or fourteen who died in the boats before they could reach the shore. For the first ten or twelve days, they seldom buried fewer than six daily. On the 26th of June they descried the Gloucester, and as there could be no doubt of her distressed situation, a boat laden with refreshments, was sent to her assistance. Never, indeed, was a crew in more forlorn circumstances. Already had they committed to the deep two-thirds of their complement, and scarcely one was capable of duty, save the officers and servants. The captain was under the necessity of detaining the boat's crew, as he had not sufficient strength to navigate the ship; yet, with all their exertions they were a fortnight in attempting to come in, without being able to fetch the road. On the 9th of July she was observed sailing to

* When the miserable victims of disease saw the vegetables and water, for which they panted, within their view, it is impossible to describe the transports they expressed. Even grass was now esteemed a delicacy, and eagerly devoured.

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the east, and did not again appear for a week, and it was apprehended she had foundered. On the 16th she was again seen making signals of distress, when the long boat was sent off with water and refreshments, with positive orders to return immediately; but the weather proving stormy, it was three days before they had a sight of her again, when with difficulty she was towed into harbour by the cutter. The commodore now received the affecting news that the Gloucester had scarcely a man in health on board, except the few he had sent at first sight of her, and that the mortality was extreme. The Gloucester, however, was unable to fetch the bay, and she once more disappeared. At last, on the 23d of July, she was seen advancing towards the bay with a flowing sail; when the commodore dispatching all his boats to her assistance, she was within an hour anchored by the Centurion. Her crew was by this time reduced to eighty, and the greater part of those were deplorably ill.

On the 16th of August, after giving her wholly up for lost, the Anna Pink, their victualler, was discovered coming in. Each ship's company was immediately restored to a full allowance of bread, which had been suspended, from a presumption that they had no resources of this kind to expect. Only three ships were now missing, the Severn, the Pearl, and the Wager store-ship. The Wager was wrecked.

On the 12th of September, a sail came in sight, which proved to be the Nuestra Senora del Monte Carmelo, laden with sugar, cloth, cotton, and tobacco; besides some trunks of wrought plate, and a considerable quantity of specie in dollars. This was captured by the Centurion on the first fire. On the 25th, the Centurion saw two sail to the eastward, and giving chace, came close up to one, and hailed the chace in Spanish, on which Mr. Hughes, lieutenant of the Tryal, answered in English; and informed him that this vessel was a prize to the Tryal, taken some days ago; that she was about six hundred tons burden, and had nearly the same kind of lading as the Carmelo. The Tryal sprung her main-mast, and was in other respects in great distress. The Tryal being looked upon as incapable of being repaired, her crew was put on board the Spanish prize, and the stores and valuables being likewise put on board her, the Tryal was scuttled and sunk. This new accession to the squadron was called the Tryal's Prize.

On the 5th of November, they captured the Santa Teresa de Jesus, a vessel of three hundred tons, bound from Guiaquil to Callao. Her cargo was not valuable to the English. On the 10th of November, the commodore being off Lobos, saw a sail, and sent Lieutenant Brett to attack her: she struck on the first volley of small shot, and proved to be the Nuestra Senora del Carmin, deeply laden with steel, iron, cedar, pepper, cinnamon, and other valuable commodities, the prime cost of which was more than four hundred thousand dollars. From the passengers they learned that a considerable quantity of money was in the custom-house at Paita, which was to be shipped and sent off with all expedition. He therefore determined to surprise that place the same night *. He selected fifty-eight men to act against the force the Spaniards might bring to oppose them. Having landed, they marched to the governor's house and fort; and the vociferation of the sailors, the noise of the drums, and the darkness of the night, all served to make the enemy think their force much greater than it was: they therefore sought refuge in flight; and the English sailors, in less than a quarter of an hour from their first landing, were in possession of the place, with the loss of only one man killed, and two wounded. The next morning some of the treasure was sent on board the Centurion, and every exertion was made to collect and secure the whole. Many warehouses were likewise filled with rich commodities, which could not be received on board. On the fourth morning they conveyed the remainder of the treasure on board, together with several valuable effects; after which lieutenant Brett set fire to the town, and retired with his detachment on ship board. The commodore immediately prepared for sailing. At coming out of the bay he found six of the enemy's vessels at anchor, one of which being reputed a prime sailor, he resolved to take with him. The rest were scuttled and sunk. The command of the new vessel was given to Mr. Hughes, the lieutenant of the Tryal. The squadron, now augmented to six sail, weighed and stood out for sea. The wrought plate and

* Paita was defended by an inconsiderable fort, and a garrison, which consisted of only one weak company; and the town was not able to arm above three hundred men.

coin amounted to thirty thousand pounds sterling, besides rings, bracelets, and jewels, whose value could not be determined. The plunder that became the property of the immediate captors, was also very great; and, on the whole, this was the most important acquisition they had made. Soon after they fell in with the Gloucester, whose captain informed them, that during his absence he had taken only two prizes, one of which had about seven thousand pounds in specie on board, while the other, though no more than a launch, carried treasure to the amount of twelve thousand, in double doubloons and dollars, curiously concealed in cotton.

After this they resolved to proceed to the north, to cruise for the Manilla galleon, which was known to be at sea, which they did not doubt of being able to intercept. Two of the prizes which had been added to the squadron, proving heavy sailors, were ordered to be stripped and burned.

Commodore Anson left Quibo, where he took in wood and water, on the 9th of December, and next day took a small bark, laden with rock salt and oakum. The squadron then endeavoured to get to the northward of the harbour of Acapulco, and at ten at night, on the 28th of January, the Tryal's Prize made a signal for seeing a sail; but this proved an illusion. He likewise learned that the Manilla ship he had been in quest of, was got into harbour at Acapulco on the 18th of January, but that her departure was fixed for the 14th of March. Some time after, the Gloucester having lost her main-mast, sailed so heavily, that it was found impossible to keep her company without risking the lives of all. It was therefore determined to transfer her crew and treasure on board the Centurion, and then set the former on fire. She blew up when the commodore was about four leagues distant, and with her an immense quantity of valuable goods was lost, which could not be carried off.

At length, after encountering the most imminent dangers from storms, and various other circumstances, for many months, they discovered Cape Espiritu Santo, on the 20th of May in the following year, near which it was the commodore's intention to cruise, in expectation of meeting with the Manilla ships. He cruised on this station for about six weeks without being able to discover the object of his search; however, on the first of July, at sun-rise, a sail was descried from the mast head. The Centurion immediately stood towards her, and, to the commodore's surprize, the galleon did not change her course, but bore down upon him. At one in the afternoon they were within gun-shot of each other, when Anson, perceiving that the Spaniards had not yet finished clearing the ships for action, immediately ordered some of the chace guns to be fired, to interrupt them in their engagements. The galleon returned the fire, and on the Centurion's making some dispositions for boarding, the Spaniards, by way of bravado, did the same. They were now within pistol shot, when the engagement commenced in earnest; nor did the galleon shew the least symptom of fear. Soon after, the mats, with which she had stuffed her netting, taking fire, and blazing violently, filled the enemy with the utmost terror, and also alarmed the commodore, lest the should be consumed. The Spaniards, however, at last, tumbled both the flaming netting and mats into the sea, to escape the horrors of a general conflagration. This accident had a fatal effect on the galleon's crew, and in the mean time, the English plying them from their tops with small arms, which did amazing execution, killing or wounding most of the officers, they began to fall into confusion, and to desert their quarters; and the officers having in vain tried to rally the crew, at last submitted*.

At the very moment of exultation, the commodore was secretly informed by one of the lieutenants, that the Centurion was on fire near the powder-room; and without apparent emotion, he gave orders for preventing the dreadful catastrophe, and providentially the fire was got under without material damage.

He then proceeded to Canton in China, where he victualled his ship, and then sailed for Macao, where he sold the galleon for six thousand dollars. On the 15th of December, the Centurion got under sail, and after wooding and watering at Prince's Island, they stood for the Cape of Good Hope, where they anchored on the 11th

* This valuable prize was named the Nostra Senora de Cabadonga, commanded by Don Jeronimo de Montero, a Portuguese officer of skill and courage. She carried five hundred and fifty men, and thirty-six guns, mounted for action, besides patereroes. In the action she had sixty-seven men killed, and eighty-four wounded; while the Centurion only lost two, and had a lieutenant and sixteen men wounded, all of whom recovered, except one. The property on board this prize amounted to a million and a half of dollars.

of March. Leaving the Cape in the beginning of April, they came in sight of St. Helena on the 19th of that month, and did not land, but continued their voyage, and cast anchor at Spithead on the 15th of June, 1744. Thus, after a series of the most extraordinary adventures, and dreadful scenes of distress, they completed the circumnavigation of the globe in three years and nine months.

The treasures taken by the Centurion were conveyed in many waggons, adorned with Spanish flags, from the sea coast to the metropolis, and safely lodged in the Tower, attended by the loud acclamations of the multitude. The commodore was loaded with honours, and the humblest sailor was enriched.

Voyage of the Honourable Commodore John Byron round the World.

His present Majesty, George the Third, having, early after his accession to the throne, shown a love for science, and a zeal for discovery, an expedition was projected for the latter purpose to the South Seas; and Captain Byron was selected as a proper person to conduct it. This gentleman was appointed to the command of the Dolphin ship of war, in quality of commodore; and the Tamar frigate, Captain Mouat, was commissioned to attend him. Those vessels being equipped, set sail from the Downs on the 1st of June, 1764; but before they cleared the Channel the Dolphin ran aground, without, however, receiving any material damage; so that the commodore was able to prosecute his voyage by the 3d of July. He then shaped his course for Madeira, and anchored in Fonchiale Bay on the 30th; which place he left on the 19th of August, and anchored in Port Praya on the 30th of the same month. He afterwards sailed to Rio Janeiro, which he quitted on the 16th of October, and a few days after, explained to the crews the nature of their voyage, and the objects in view, of which they had hitherto been ignorant *. A violent storm overtook them on the 29th, during the fury of which they were obliged to throw four of their guns overboard. On the 11th of November they had to encounter another violent storm, which nearly overset the Dolphin, and damaged the Tamar.

After this they steered for Cape Blanco, which they came in sight of on the 17th, and in four days more entered the harbour of Port Desire. Proceeding higher up the harbour, they came to an island where they killed fifty seals, and found some of them nearly as heavy as English oxen †.

On the 20th of the same month they ran close in shore to Cape Virgin, and came to anchor. Next day they sailed again, and observing a smoke on the shore, they came to an anchorage nearly opposite to it, at the distance of two miles from the beach. Here they descried a number of men on horseback, riding to and fro, and waving a white ensign, which was construed into an invitation to land; and as he was anxious to have some intercourse with the natives, the commodore went in a boat, well armed, while the first lieutenant followed in another. When they approached the shore, they calculated that the horse and foot amounted to about five hundred; but though they did not appear to have any weapons, nor to be hostilely disposed, the commodore thought it prudent to make signs to them to withdraw a little, while the party was landing, which they readily understood and complied with. The English being mustered on the beach. Mr. Byron singly advanced, and made signs to the Indians, that one of them should do the same. Accordingly one of their chiefs came forward, who was nearly seven feet high. One of his eyes was encircled with a streak of black paint, and the other with white; the rest of his face was painted of various colours; and the skin of a beast, with the hair turned inwards, depended from his shoulders. The commodore and the Indian having made their respective compliments, which were mutually unintelligible, they walked together towards the main body of the natives, few of whom were shorter than the chief, nor were the women of inferior proportion. Mr. Byron made signs for them to be seated, which being done,

* As a reward and a stimulus to good behaviour, such as distinguished themselves were, by order of the lords of the admiralty, to receive double pay, and other emoluments.

† Among a variety of birds that they killed, was one that had an eagle's head, with a large comb on it, and a white ruff like a tippet round its neck. The plumage on the back was of a glossy blackness: the legs and talons were like those of an eagle, and the expansion of the wings was twelve feet from one extremity to the other.

done, they chaunted in a most plaintive and melancholy tone. The commodore distributed some white and yellow beads among them, which they gladly accepted. He then took a piece of ribbon, and putting the end of it into the hands of the first Indian, continued it along the line, as far as it would reach. This done, he cut it between every two with a pair of scissars, and tied the portion of each round his head, which no one attempted to remove. And though the presents were insufficient to allow each a share, no one attempted to press forward, or seemed to envy the superior good fortune of his neighbour. The inoffensive Patagonians wished the commodore to go with them to their huts, but he pointed to the ship, intimating that he must return; whereupon they appeared greatly concerned; and when he took his leave, not one rose or offered to follow him.

On the 23d of December they entered the Straights of Magelhaens; and on the 25th, saw a point of land near St. George's Island, which they named Porpoise Point. Having cast anchor here, the commodore went in quest of wood and water, which they found in abundance. A fine champaign country lies over the point, the soil of which appeared to be very luxuriant. In a walk, however, of twelve miles, they found no place proper to land a boat, on account of a strong surf. On the 26th, they steered for Port Famine, and next day anchored close to the shore. Here they discovered drift wood enough to have supplied a thousand vessels. The commodore proceeded four miles up the river, when he found his course impeded by trees that had fallen across the stream. The banks of this river were clothed with the noblest trees, which were sufficient to supply masts for the whole British navy. Some of them were so large, that four men, joining hand in hand, could not grasp them.

On the 4th of January, 1765, both ships having taken in their wood and water, sailed in quest of Falkland's Islands; but the wind dying away, they were obliged to stop till the 6th. No sooner had they again set sail, than the Dolphin struck on a bank; but it being a perfect calm, they fortunately got off with the return of the tide. On the 14th they discovered a flat island, covered with large tufts of grass: and the next day explored a most commodious harbour: soon after this they entered another harbour, to which Mr. Byron gave the name of Port Egmont*, in honour of the nobleman who then presided at the board of admiralty. The commodore took possession of the harbour and the surrounding islands, for the sovereign of Great Britain, under the appellation of Falkland's Islands. On the 27th of July they left Port Egmont, and the same day saw a remarkable head land, which they distinguished by the name of Cape Tamar; and soon after they passed a rock, which they called the Eddistone, near another point, denominated Cape Dolphin. The distance between the two capes is about eight leagues, and forms the northern entrance of the straight between the two principal islands. The commodore computed the whole circumference of Falkland's Islands to be little less than seven hundred miles.

On the 6th of February they arrived at Port Desire, at the mouth of which they anchored, where they had the pleasure to find the Florida, an expected store-ship from England. The master of the Florida going on board the Dolphin, acquainted the commodore with the bad condition of his ship, on which it was resolved to attempt unloading her in the harbour. The following night proved very tempestuous; the Tamar and Florida were both driven from their moorings, and made signals of distress. As the harbour was found inconvenient for unloading the store-ship, all hands were set about repairing her, that she might proceed to the Straights of Magelhaens. On the 13th, the Florida being prepared for sea, was ordered to make the best of her way to Port Famine, and next day the Dolphin and Tamar followed. The three succeeding days they observed a strange vessel pursuing the same track, at an equable distance; a circumstance that occasioned much speculation. Byron being obliged to lie by for the Florida, imagined the stranger would speak with him, and therefore made the necessary dispositions to give her a proper reception. But when he came to

* This harbour is represented as one of the finest in the world, and sufficiently capacious to contain the whole navy of England in perfect security: every part of it supplies fresh water; and many choice species of wild fowl occupy the coasts. Indeed it is not unusual for the sailors to knock down seventy or eighty geese at a time with stones; so that they were almost surfeited with delicacies of this kind.

anchor,

anchor, she did the same. Next morning she got under way, and approached the Dolphin, on which the commodore ordered some guns to be got ready. Neither party shewed any colours; but the Florida about this time running aground, the strange vessel hoisted French colours, and dispatched two boats to her assistance. The commodore now sent two of his boats to the relief of the store-ship, with orders to make proper acknowledgements for the stranger's civility, but on no account to suffer them to board her. The store-ship being gone off, they proceeded till night, when they again cast anchor, and the French ship did the same; but in a situation that shewed her ignorance of the channel. On the 19th they proceeded on their voyage, the French vessel following them. On the 20th they reached Port Famine, and having taken out of the Florida as much provision as they could stow, they immediately dispatched her for England, and determined to navigate the other ships through the Straights of Magelhaens. On the 28th they passed the French ship as she lay in a small cove; and it was not till the commodore's return to England that he found this suspicious vessel was the Eagle, commanded by M. Bougainville.

The commodore was seven weeks and two days in sailing through the Straights of Magelhaens, and then bore away for the island of Masasuero, but could not effect a landing by reason of the violence of the surf. They, however, found a bank where they might anchor, and as the island abounded in goats, they killed a great number, whose flesh they deemed equal to the finest venison.

On the 9th of June they discovered a low-lying island, covered with various kinds of trees, among which was the cocoa-nut. The shore was begirt with a rock of red coral. The natives having first kindled large fires, ran along the shore armed in vast multitudes. The vessels now brought to at a small inlet, opening into a salt water lake of some extent. The ships advancing to the mouth of the inlet, some hundreds of the natives, preceded by an officer, carrying a pole, with a piece of mat instead of a flag, ranged themselves up to the waist in water, making a hideous noise; while a number of canoes were brought down from the lake. Two boats having been sent out in quest of soundings, the natives approached, and attempted to draw them on shore, though the crews made every demonstration of friendship. Several of the Indians swam towards the ships; one of them sprang into the Tamar's boat, and snatching up a jacket, immediately jumped into the sea: another attempted to steal a hat, but lost his prize through ignorance, pulling it downwards instead of upwards.

They then sailed westward, and soon discovered another island, distant four leagues. The Indians pursued their course in two double canoes, each carrying thirty armed men, and as the ships' boats were greatly exposed to their insults, the commodore made a signal for them to begin the attack, when the natives instantly rowed away, being pursued by the English. They then armed themselves with stones and clubs, as if determined, like brave men, to defend their country against invasion; but the boats' crews firing, killed two or three of them, one of whom did not fall till he had received three balls through his body. The boats then brought off the two canoes as trophies of their victory *.

On the 12th of June they sailed from this inhospitable island to another; and as they coasted along it, the natives in arms observed their motions. The boats being near the beach, the crew made signs that they were in want of water, on which the natives pointed farther along the shore. When they arrived at the spot, they saw a number of houses, and many Indians. As the boats were close in with the shore, and the ships at a small distance, a venerable old man, with a white beard, advanced to the beach with a young attendant. Having made a signal for the other Indians to retire, he came forward, pressing his beard to his breast with one hand, and extending the branch of a tree in the other. In this attitude he began a kind of musical oration, during which the people in the boats threw some trifling presents, which he would not deign to touch till he had finished his harangue. This being done, he threw the branch towards the boat's crew, and then picked up their presents. Most of the na-

* These vessels consisted of planks sewed together, with a strip of tortoise-shell fixed over each seam; their bottoms were sharp and narrow; and being double, they were fastened with timbers so as to leave a space of six feet between the two canoes; while a sail, formed of a mat, reached between a mast fixed in each. The cordage appeared to be composed of the external covering of the cocoa-nut, and was exquisitely made.

tives having consented to lay down their arms, one of the midshipmen swam on shore, where he was soon surrounded by the Indians, who admired his dress, and seemed particularly pleased with his waistcoat. To gratify them, he made one of them a present of it; but another untying his cravat and running away with it, he thought it prudent to retreat. The natives soon followed him in an amicable manner, bringing each a cocoa-nut, or some water in a shell. Both this and the last-mentioned island, the commodore named, out of respect to his sovereign, King George's Islands.

The next day they discovered another island, which was well peopled, and appeared beautifully verdant and fertile; but a violent surf beat on every part of the coast. This they named the Prince of Wales's Island. On the 24th of June they discovered another island, which they named the Duke of York's. This island had a most alluring aspect, but appeared to be uninhabited.

On the 2d of July they discovered a low flat island, abounding with cocoa-nut and other trees, and affording a most agreeable prospect. To this place the officers gave the name of Byron's Island, in honour of the commodore *. On the 28th of July they came in sight of Saypan, Tinian, and Aguigan; and about noon on the last day of that month, anchored at Tinian, in the same station Anson had done before. Saypan is larger and more pleasant than Tinian. He left Tinian on the 30th of September, and anchored off Timoan on the 5th of November, which is inhabited by Malays. He next came to anchor in the harbour of Pulo Toupoa. On the 19th he fell in with an English snow, bound from Bencoolen for Malacca and Bengal. By this time their biscuit was rotten and filled with worms, and the beef and pork were putrid. The master of the snow being apprized of this misfortune, sent the commodore two gallons of arrack, a turtle, twelve fowls, and a sheep, which it is conjectured was half his stock, and he generously refused to accept the smallest return. The same day they dropped anchor in the road of Sumatra, and on the 27th reached Batavia; the inhabitants of which are a motley group of Dutch, Portugueze, Chinese, Persians, Moors, Malays, Javanese, and others. On the 10th of December he directed his course to Prince's Island, where he staid a few days, and then sailed for the Cape of Good Hope. On the 7th of March he left the Cape, and crossed the equinoctial line on the 25th. An accident happening to the rudder of the Tamar, the captain was ordered to sail for Antigua. The Dolphin now proceeded to England, and anchored in the Downs on the 9th of May, 1766; having circumnavigated the globe in about one year and ten months.

* Above sixty canoes advanced from this island, and formed a circle round the ship, which after they had leisurely surveyed, one of the Indians jumped out of his boat, swam to the vessel, ran up its side, and having gained the deck, began laughing most violently. He then set about pilfering whatever he could lay his hands on; but was hindered from carrying on his design. Being dressed in a jacket and trowsers, he played as many antic tricks as a monkey; and at last swam off with the habit with which he had been furnished. He devoured some biscuits with great eagerness, and upon joining his companions, others were induced, from the reception he had met with, to come on board, and shewed the same disposition to theft, by seizing on some petty prize, with which they made off by their dexterity in swimming.

The Voyage of the Honourable Captain Phipps towards the North Pole.

The Honourable Constantine Phipps, in the Race Horse, and Captain Skeffington Lutwych, in the Carcase, set sail from Sheerness on the 3d of June, 1773, for the purpose of sailing towards the North Pole, that they might discover whether there were a possibility of reaching the North Pole, or whether the regions adjoining it were land or water. On the 15th they reached Brassey, one of the Shetland Isles, and purchased some fish from the Shetland boats at a very cheap rate. On the next day they sailed from Shetland; but were soon enveloped in a fog of pitchy darkness, during the continuance of which guns were fired and drums beat, to enable the Carcase to keep company, while the consort ship was obliged to repeat the signals, lest, in the deep gloom, they should run foul of each other. When the mist vanished, they found themselves, by observation, in sixty deg. fifty-two min. north lat. and immediately steered a N. E. course.

Being arrived in latitude sixty-five deg. nine min. north, the cold began to be very sensibly felt, and additional clothing was delivered out to the officers and men. On the 20th they pursued

their

their course to the eastward; they were now within the Polar Circle; at midnight they had an observation of the sun, and found they were in latitude sixty-six deg. fifty-two min. north *. On the 22d, being in the seventieth degree of north lat. the weather began to be piercing cold; and the rain fell down in torrents, and froze as it fell, and the air was thick and unpleasant. On the 24th, the commodore changed his course to the E. N. E. and amidst fogs, gales, sleet, and piercing cold, they advanced till they were in lat. seventy-four deg. seventeen min. N. On the 27th they had light airs from the southward, and felt it much warmer than the preceding day †. On the 29th, being in lat. seventy-eight, deg. N. and lon. six deg. twenty-nine min. E. they came in sight of land; when a consultation was held concerning their future course. The appearance of the land lay from E. S. E. to N. E. Falling in with the Marquis of Rockingham, Greenlandman, she presented each of the ships with some venison, which was found very well flavoured, but not burthened with fat. By this ship, which had just come from the ice, they learned, that three whalers had the day before been crushed to pieces by some floats of ice suddenly closing on them. Pursuing their course next morning, they saw Black Point, so called from its dark appearance, bearing eastward, distant seven or eight leagues. Soon after, standing to the E. they sounded, and found ground at one hundred and fifteen fathoms depth.

On the 1st of July they had light breezes and clear weather at midnight, the sun shining as bright as at noon. Early this morning they made Charles's Island. Next day they lay to and took the altitude of a mountain, which they named Mount Parnassus. It was found three thousand nine hundred and sixty feet above the level of the sea, wholly covered with snow, and at a distance resembled an antique building, crowned with a turret. Here they shot some sea-fowl, which had a very oily taste. July 3d, they doubled Cape Cold, anchored about three miles from the land, and sent the boats ashore for water, which they found in abundance, pouring from the rocks. The 4th, by observation, the latitude was seventy-nine deg. thirty-four min. N. and the longitude eight deg. 10 min. E. The thermometer stood at forty-seven. On the 5th a dreadful crackling was heard at a distance, which proved to be the dashing and grinding of loose pieces of ice against each other; the report of which is conveyed from a great distance. Next day the island of ice began to appear; by altering their course they lost sight of it; but the next morning descried it again. On the 10th they sailed between numberless pieces of ice; and it was the opinion of every officer on board, that the discovery of a passage to the Pole, in that direction, was impracticable. Next day, the mass of ice extended as far as the eye could reach from the mast head. Early in the morning they saw land, which proved to be Cloven Cliff, in lat. seventy-nine deg. fifty-six min. N. At noon on the 13th, they found themselves in lat. eighty deg. two min. N.

On the 14th, they came to anchor in Smearingburgh harbour, where they remained several days, to take in fresh water. The country is described as awefully romantic, and full of mountains, precipices, and rocks ‡. The plants in Spitsbergen arrive at maturity in a very short space. Till the middle of May the whole country is locked up in ice; about the beginning of July, the plants are in blossom, and by the latter end of that month, or the commencement of the next, they have perfected their seed. The waterfowl are so numerous as sometimes to darken the air when they rise in flocks, and they scream so horribly, that the rocks ring with their noise. The other tenants of this country are white bears, deer, and foxes. It is seldom that the air continues clear many days together in this climate.

The ice began to set in apace, yet the weather was hot. The thermometer from fifty-six in the cabin, rose to ninety in the open air. It was still ten degrees higher on the top of a mountain to which it was carried. Having watered, and

* Here the Race Horse sounded with a lead of one hundred weight, and a line of seven hundred and eighty fathoms, to which was appended a thermometer of lord George Cavendish's construction. They found no bottom; but it was ascertained, that the water was eleven degrees colder at that depth than on the surface.

† The vicissitudes of heat and cold are much more frequent here than in the more southerly latitudes. It often changes from temperate to severe cold almost in an instant.

‡ Of the ice hills formed in this country, the Seven Icebergs attract particular notice. When the sun shines full upon them, the prospect is inconceivably brilliant, assuming all the various hues and tints that the reflection of the solar orb on their rude surfaces can convey. Their lustre is too dazzling for the eye, and the air is filled with astonishing brightness.

finished

finished some astronomical observations, which were made on Marble Island, the ships prepared to depart. On the 19th, the commodore made the signal to weigh; and at two in the afternoon the ships were under sail. At three they tacked and steered northward, and before four were again entangled in loose ice, through which they sailed, directing their course along the main body, which lay from N. W. to S. S. E. Next day they continued their course along the ice, but could discover no opening, though they searched every creek, and left no bay or turning unexamined *. On the 21st the severity of the weather increased. They now experienced the rigours of this northern climate in all its horrors, loose pieces of ice closed about them in all directions; and notwithstanding the most unremitted exertions of the crews of both the ships, they were utterly unable to extricate themselves from their icy prison †. At length, by the changing of the wind, the ice began to separate with a noise like the loudest thunder. On the 12th of August they cleared the ice, and bore away for the harbour of Smearingburgh, in which they had before cast anchor ‡.

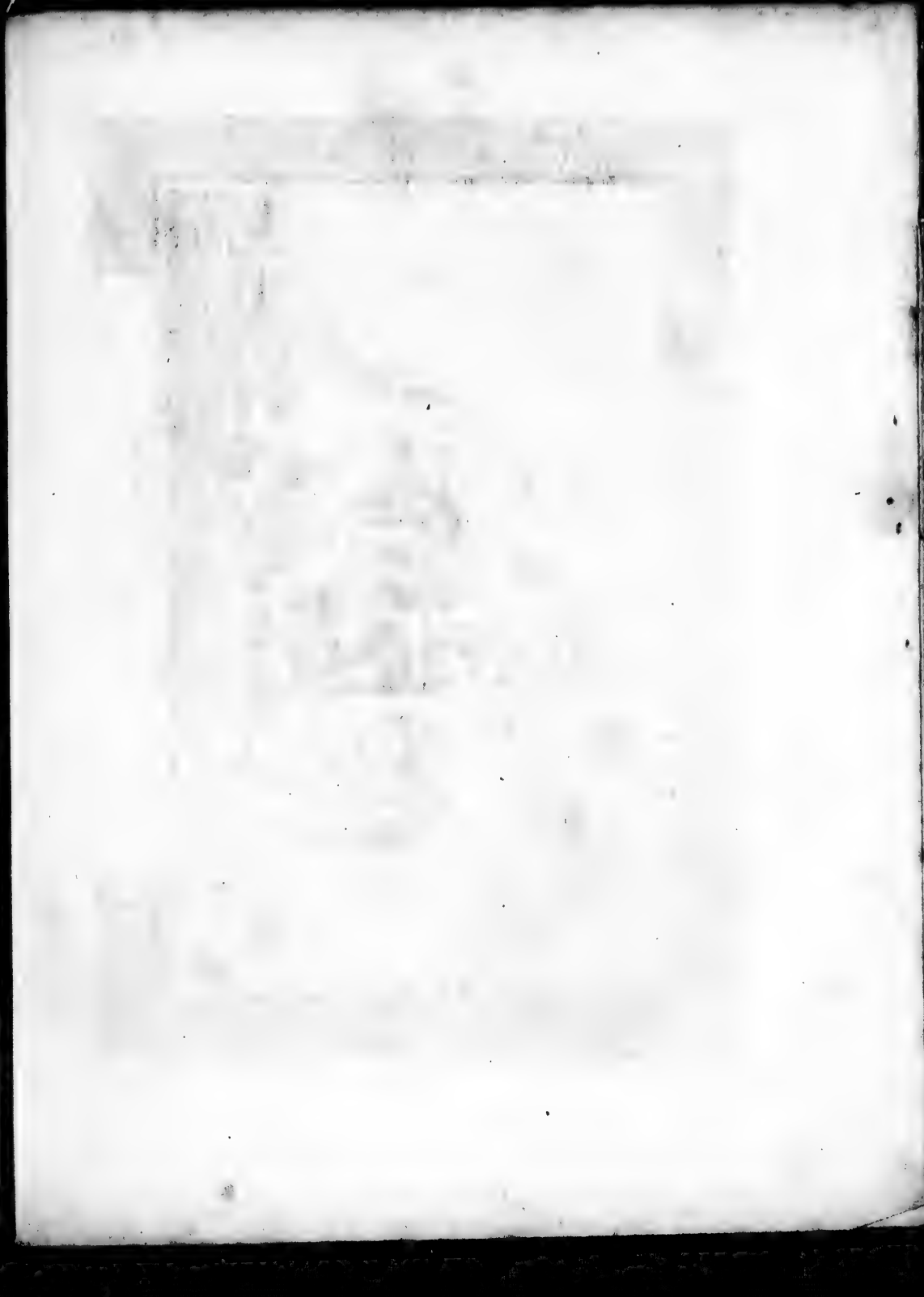
On the 19th of August the ships unmoored, and next day cleared the harbour, with a view to return home. On the 22d they were in lat. eighty deg. fourteen min. N. lon. five deg. forty-four min. E. Next day the Carcase lost sight of the commodore, but rejoined on the evening, and they pursued their voyage till the 11th of September, when a violent gale separated them, and they did not come in sight of each other till they arrived off Harwich. In this storm, the Carcase was in imminent danger, and the Race Horse lost her boats, and was obliged to throw all her guns overboard, save two. Both ships anchored safely at Deptford September the 30th.

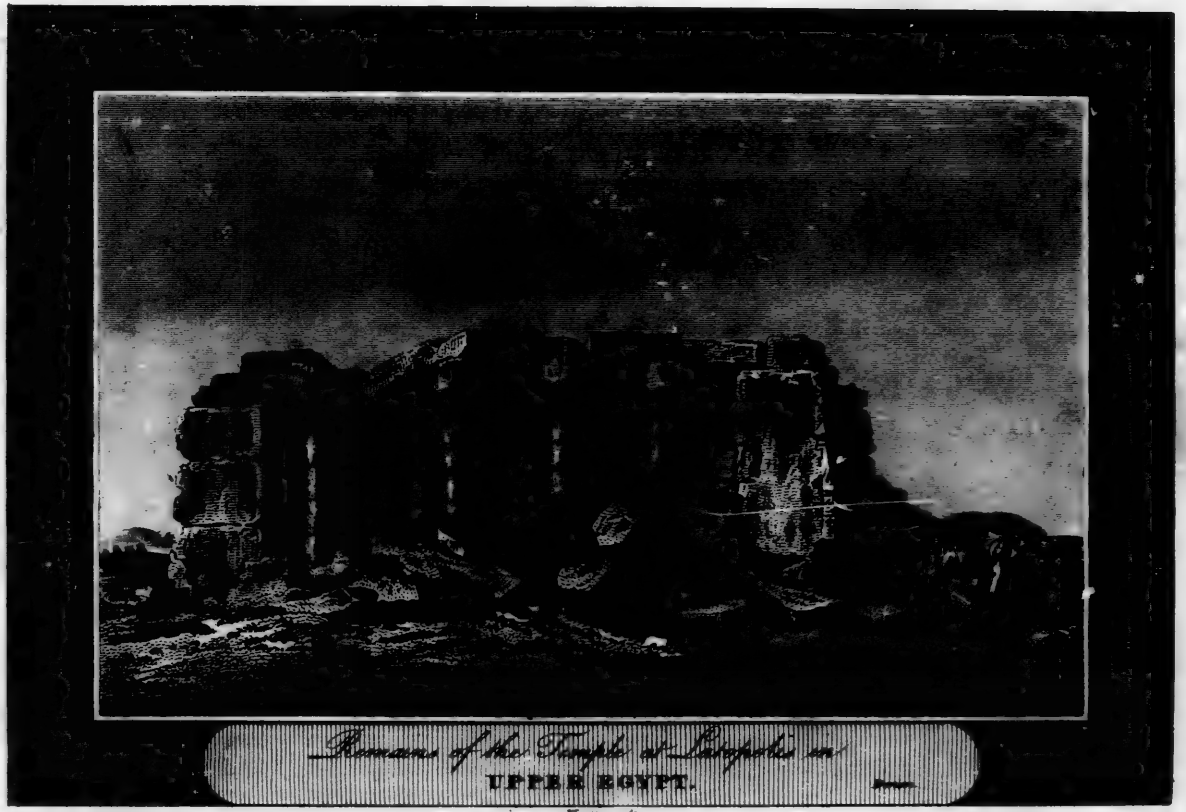
Thus ended a voyage, which seems to have determined the question concerning the navigation to the North Pole, and to have proved the impracticability of finding a passage into the South Sea in that direction.

* This day they observed what the sailors call a mock sun, a phænomenon well enough known in this climate.

† While the crew of the boat, ten in number, with their officer at their head, were examining Muffin's Island, on the 26th of July, after having sounded the shores, they observed two white bears making towards them, one upon the ice, the other in the water. The officer, who it seems was not distinguished for his courage, seeing the bears approach very fast, especially that which came in the water, ordered his men to fire, while yet the enemy was at a distance, as he did not think it prudent to hazard the lives of his little company in close fight. All of them pointed their muskets, and some of the party obeyed orders; but the greater part, judging it safer to depend upon a reserved fire, when they had seemingly discharged their pieces, pretended to retreat. The commander being very corpulent, endeavoured to waddle after his companions; but being soon out of breath, and seeing the bear that came in the water, had just reached the shore, thought of nothing now but falling the first sacrifice. His hair already stood on end, and looking behind him, he saw the bear at no great distance, with his nose in the air snuffing the scent. He had all the reason in the world to believe it was him that he scented, and he had scarcely breath enough left to call to his men to halt. In this critical situation he unfortunately dropped his gun, and in stooping to recover it he stumbled against a goose-nest, fell squash upon his belly into it, and had well nigh smothered the dam upon her eggs. Before he could rise, the enraged gander came flying to the assistance of his half smothered consort, and making a dart at the eye of the assailant, narrowly missed his mark, but discharged his fury upon the commander's nose. The danger being now pressing, and the battle serious, the bear near, and the gander ready for a second attack, the men, who had not fled far, thought it high time to return to the relief of their leader. Overjoyed to see them about him, but frightened at the bear just behind him, he had forgotten the gander that was over his head, against which one of the men having levelled his piece, fired, and he fell dead at the major's feet. Animated now by the death of one enemy, he recovered his gun, and faced about to assist in the attack of the second. By this time the bear was scarcely ten yards from him, and beginning to growl the officer dropped his accoutrements, and fell back. The crew in an instant had brought down the bear, and now it was time for their leader to do something great. Having recovered his arms, and seeing the poor beast grovelling on the ground, and growling out his last, he thrust his lance full four feet deep into the dying bear's belly. The cowardice of the chief was very entertaining to his party; he took to the boat, while a few of them remained to dispatch the other bear.

‡ Here they found four Dutch Greenlandmen lying in readiness to depart. These Dutchmen acquainted the commodore, that all the English fishing ships set sail on the 10th of July, the day to which they are obliged, by contract to stay, to entitle their owners to receive the bounty-money allowed by parliament for the encouragement of that fishery. The Dutch vessels, however, take it by turns to wait till the severity of the weather obliges them to return, in order to pick up such men as may by accident have lost their ships in the ice; and who, notwithstanding, may have had the good fortune to save their lives by means of their boats.





Remains of the Temple at Ombos in
UPPER EGYPT.

Varrow sculp

Egyptian Sphinx
Warren e.

HERMONT'S.

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HERMONTIS.

Tombs among the Ruins of
SILSILIS.

Travels in Lower and Upper Egypt, during the Campaigns of General Bonaparte.

By Vivant Denon.

M. Denon accompanied general Bonaparte in his expedition to Egypt, together with several other gentlemen, at the desire of the French government, for the purpose of making observations, and of gaining information relative to that country. They departed from Toulon on the 15th of May, 1798, and took Malta on the 13th of June. The French fleet escaped, in a fog, the English squadron under the command of admiral Nelson. They landed in Egypt, near Alexandria, on the 2d of July, which they took, and afterwards fought a battle, called the Battle of the Pyramids, on the 22d of the same month. M. Denon gives a description of the naval action at Aboukir, which happened on the 1st of August, and afterwards prosecuted his travels in the Delta, from the 11th till the 23d of September; on which day they arrived at Cairo, where an insurrection took place on the 22d of October. In November he prosecuted his researches in Upper Egypt, and on the 25th of January, 1799, made a visit to Tentyra (Dendera); on the 27th he had a view of Thebes; on the 29th he went to Latopolis, and on the 30th to Apollinopolis. On the 25th of February they visited the cataracts; and on the 3d of April, made a fresh journey to Thebes, which they again explored on the 29th of June, and made several discoveries. They quitted Upper Egypt on the 5th of July, and returned to Cairo on the 20th; on the 26th of which month they fought a battle against the Turks at Aboukir. On the 24th of August, they left Alexandria on their return to France, and arrived at Frejus on the 1st of October.

In the progress of his travels, M. Denon has favoured the world with a description of the Sphinx, which he took great pains in examining; and made a profile drawing of it, which was certainly the best point of view in which he cou'l exhibit it. The Sphinx, which, M. Denon says, merits a particular description, stands near the pyramids, but it is rapidly falling to decay, for only the head and shoulders appear, and these are about thirty feet high. Some have imagined that it was hewn out of the rock on which it stands, and that there never was any more of it than is at present remaining; but from the examination which M. Denon made of it, that does not appear to be the fact. He says, that the proportions are colossal, the outlines of which are rather docile than pure: the expression of the head is sweet, gracious, and tranquil, the character of an African; but the mouth, whereof the lips are at a distance, has a softness in the movement, and a fineness of execution truely admirable: from a distant view it has the appearance of being clothed with flesh, and endowed with life: and from the exquisite workmanship, it appears that the art of sculpture was in a high degree of perfection at the remote period when this monument was erected.

Speaking of Esné, the ancient Latopolis, M. Denon informs us, that it was a port or quay on the banks of the Nile, but that it is now in a most deplorable state. He says, that there is in the town the portico of a temple, which he believes to be the most perfect monument of ancient architecture. It is near the market place, in a fine situation, and would be an incomparable ornament, if the inhabitants were susceptible of its value: but, alas! it is falling fast into ruins. The portico is extremely well preserved, and is a monument of the finest sculpture: it is composed of eighteen columns, which are ornamented with hieroglyphics, that have a fine effect; among which are the principal productions of the country, such as the lotus, the palmyra, the vine, &c.

Gebel Silsilis, which is among the mountains that border the Nile on both sides of the river, is situated between Edfou and Ombos. Here are innumerable monuments, the receptacles of the dead, which are covered with hieroglyphics, representing all the oblations of bread, fruits, liquors, poultry, &c. On one of them is the figure of a woman in the attitude of sadness; she represented a widow who had survived her spouse, and who had come to the place of his interment to bewail her loss.

The temple of Hermontis, (which town is at the present day called Ermenté,) was built with extremely large and ponderous stones, as appears from the ruins which remain of this stupendous religious edifice. The representation which M. Denon has given of this temple is a side view, taken from an ancient bason, which received the waters of the Nile, at the time of an inundation, or overflowing of its banks. The sanctuary is

at present in a state of preservation, but the other parts of the building are now in ruins. The pannels of the whole edifice are filled with hieroglyphics.

Groenland, or Greenland.

This northern country is divided into East and West Greenland. West Greenland is supposed to be joined to the continent of America. The coast abounds with inlets, bays, and large rivers, and has innumerable islands of different dimensions about it. The principal river, called Baal, falls into the sea in the 64th degree of N. latitude, where the first Danish lodge was built in 1721, and has been navigated above 40 miles up the country. West Greenland was first peopled by Europeans in the eighth century. At that time a company of Icelanders, headed by one Ericke Rande, were by accident driven on the coast. On his return he represented the country in such a favourable light, that some families again followed him thither, where they soon became a thriving colony, and bestowed on their new habitation the name of Groenland, or Greenland, on account of its verdant appearance. A considerable commerce was carried on between Greenland and Norway, and a regular intercourse maintained between the two countries till 1406. From that time all correspondence has been cut off, and all knowledge of Greenland has been buried in oblivion. It is supposed the colony was destroyed by the natives called Schrellings.

Greenland is seldom visited by thunder and lightning, but the Aurora Borealis is very frequent and bright. At the time of new and full moon, the tide rises and falls upon the coast about three fathoms; and it is worthy of notice, that the springs and fountains on shore rise and fall with the flux and reflux of the ocean. The soil of Greenland, like all other mountainous countries, is extremely various. The hills are very barren, being frozen throughout the year; but the vallies and low grounds, especially near the sea, are rich and fertile.

The people who now inhabit the western coast of Greenland, and who, without doubt, are the descendants of the ancient Schrellings, who exterminated the first Iceland colony, bear a near resemblance to the Samoiedes and Laplanders in their persons, complexions, and way of life. They are short, brawney, and inclined to corpulency, with broad faces, flat noses, thick lips, black hair and eyes, and a yellowish tawny complexion. They are for the most part vigorous and healthy, but remarkably short lived. They are subject to a weakness in the eyes, occasioned by the piercing winds, and the glare of the snow in the winter time. The leprosy is known among them, but is not contagious. Those that dwell in the northern parts are miserably tormented with dysenteries, rheums, and pulmonary disorders, boils, and epilepsy. In their dispositions the Greenlanders are cold, phlegmatic, indolent and slow of apprehension; but very quiet, orderly, and good-natured. They live peaceably together; and are said to have every thing in common, without strife, envying, or animosity. They are civil and hospitable, but slovenly beyond even the Hottentots themselves. All the Greenlanders hitherto known, speak the same language, though different dialects prevail in different parts of the country. They are employed all the year in fishing or hunting. At sea they pursue whales, morses, seals, fish for eating, and sea fowl. On shore they hunt the rein deer in different parts of the country. Their canoes are rather strongly built, and they manage them with great dexterity. The country is but thinly inhabited. In winter the people dwell in huts built of stone or turf; but in summer they dwell in tents made of long poles fixed in a conical form, covered on the inside with deer skins, and on the outside with seal skins, dressed so that the rain cannot pierce them. The inhabitants clothe themselves in the skins of beasts, which serve in a great measure to counteract the rigorous effects of the climate.

The Grecian Archipelago

Consists of a great number of islands, some of which deserve a particular description. Their names are,

1. Negropont, the ancient Eubœa, a very fruitful island; where it is observed, that the tides between this island and the continent in the Euripus, are very uncommon; for from the three last days of the old moon, to the eighth day of

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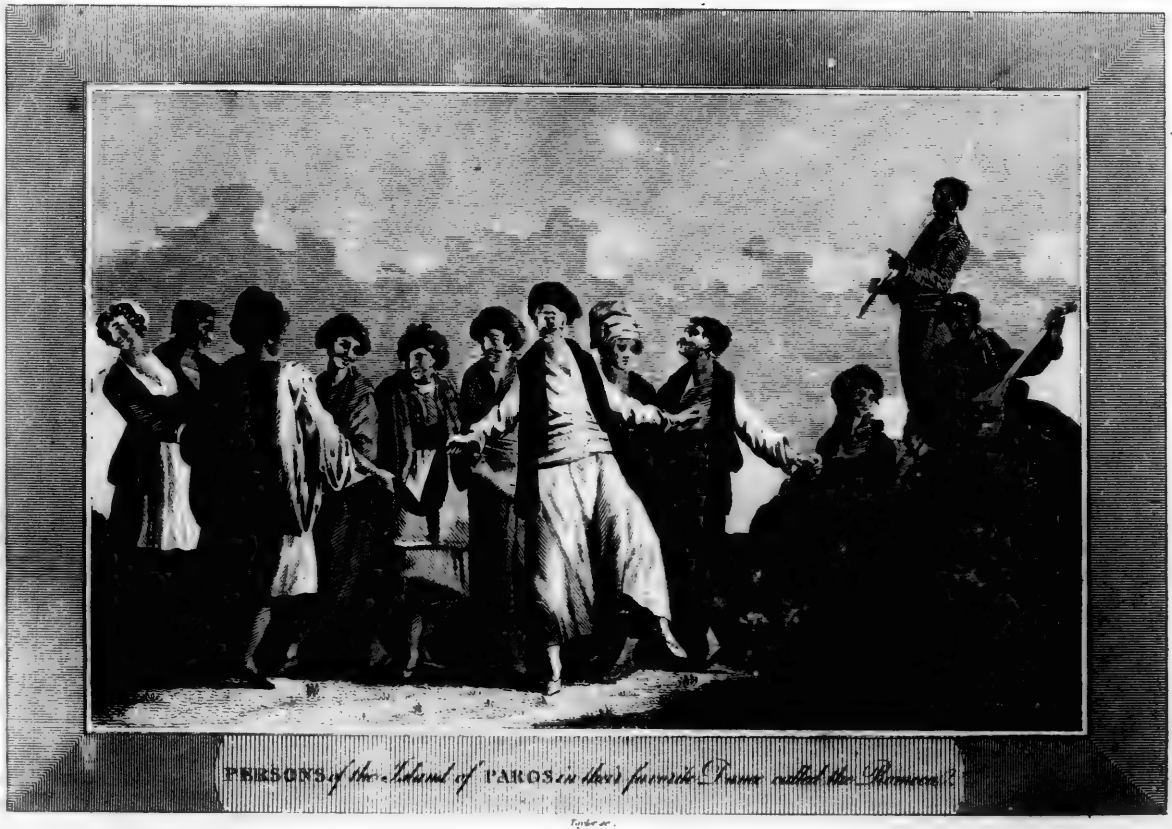
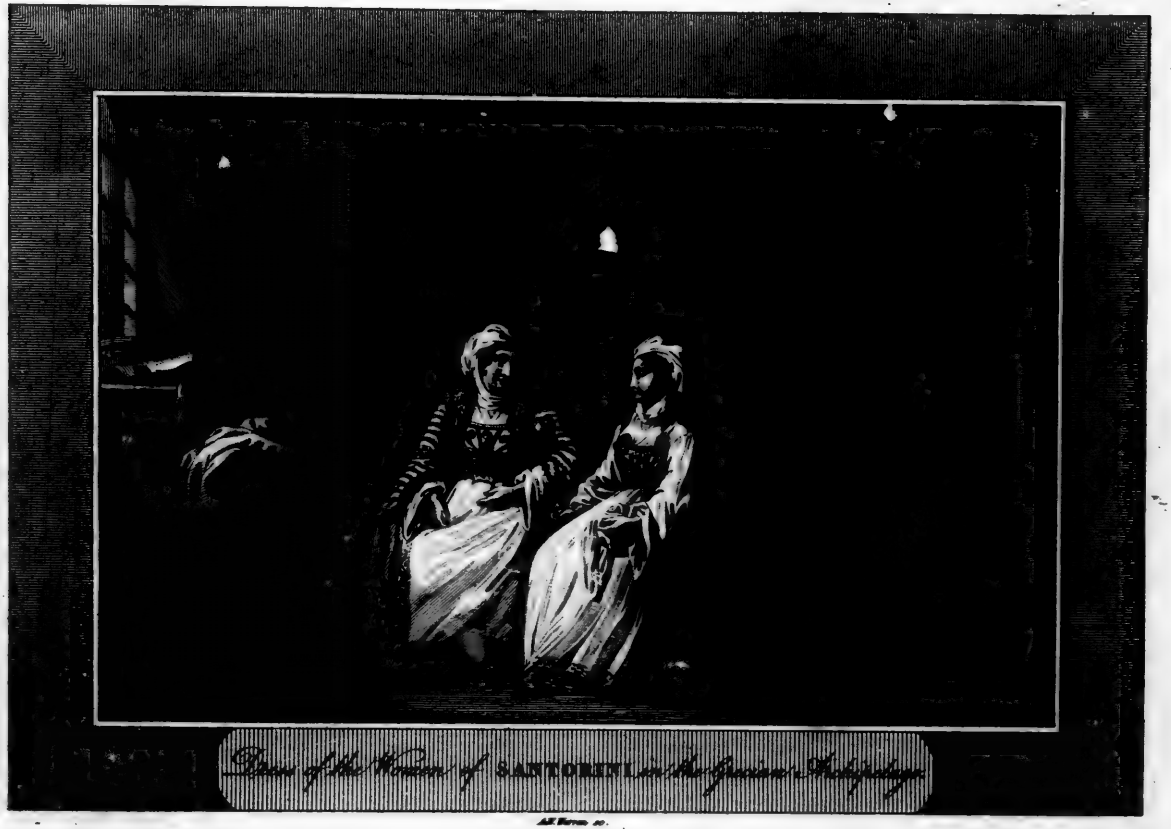


PERSONS of the Island of PAROS in their funerals Dress called the Romaica.

Tyler sc.



Plan of the Ruins of SANTORINI in the Grecian Archipelago

Dresses of the Women of Nio in the Grecian Archipelago.

DRESS of the Inhabitants of GREENLAND.

CLARKE'S ARRIVAL AT THE GREAT FALLS OF THE MISSOURI.

of the new moon, they are regular; but on the ninth day they begin to be irregular, and flow twelve, thirteen, or fourteen times in twenty-four hours, and ebb as often.

2. Lemnos, or Stalimene, famed for a mineral earth called Terra Lemnia. The poets feigned that Vulcan fell from heaven into this island.

3. Tenedos is a very small island.

4. Skyros, or Scirio, has a rugged and uneven surface. Here stood the famous temple of Pallas, some ruins of which still remain.

5. Lesbos, or Mytelene, a large island, famous for being the birth place of several of the ancient sages and poets; but its inhabitants led a life of debauchery.

6. Scio, or Chios, is another large island, which is well inhabited. The women are reckoned the greatest wits, as well as beauties, in this part of the world, and are subject to no control.

7. The island of Samos is celebrated for the numerous remains of antiquity, which abound in it. The temple of Juno, who was patroness of this island, was much celebrated.

8. The isle of Patmos lies south of Samos, and is celebrated for the convent of St. John, about three miles south of Scala. The hermitage of the Apocalypse, which depends on the convent, has a very mean appearance. The chapel is about eight paces long, and five broad. On the right of it is St. John's Grotto, which has a square pillar in the middle.

9. The islands of the Cyclades are very small, and are about fifty in number.

10. Delos, the center island of the Cyclades, is not above six miles in circumference; but it was the birth place of Apollo and Diana, to whom magnificent temples were erected. The island is now destitute of inhabitants, and is only remarkable for its noble ruins.

11. The island of Paros is one of the least of the Cyclades. It was anciently famous for its extraordinary white marble and celebrated statuaries. The valuable monument of antiquity, called the Chronicle of Paros, which was purchased by the earl of Arundel from M. de Peiresc, in 1627, was styled the Arundelian marbles, as having been presented by that nobleman to the university of Oxford in 1667. There are still many remains of antiquity in this island; the inhabitants of which are remarkably fond of dancing, and indulge themselves frequently in that exercise. The Romeca is their favourite dance.

12. Cerigo, or Cytherea, is a mountainous rocky island, and is remarkable only for being the birth place of Venus and of Helen, who was the occasion of the famous siege of Troy.

13. Santorini, the ancient Caliste, that is, Beautiful Isle, the inhabitants of which are principally Greeks, and though subject to the Grand Signior, chuse their own magistrate. Their chief trade is in wine; and while their husbands are abroad on commercial affairs, the women cultivate the vineyards at home. The dress of the women is extremely neat and decent, and gives them an elegant appearance.

14. Rhodes is a large island, being about fifty miles long, and twenty-five broad. It abounds in good wine, fruit, and provisions of every kind but corn, which is imported from the neighbouring islands. At the mouth of the harbour of Rhodes, said to be fifty fathoms wide, stood the Colossus of brass, esteemed one of the wonders of the world. One foot was placed on one side of the harbour, and the other foot on the other, so that ships passed between its legs: the face of this figure represented the sun, to whom the image was dedicated. The height of it was seventy cubits, that is, about one hundred and thirty-five feet. It held in one hand a light-house, for the direction of mariners.

15. Candia, the ancient Crete, is about two hundred miles long, and sixty broad: it is remarkably fertile. The Turks invested Candia in 1645; but the garrison did not surrender till September, 1669, when they obtained honourable terms. The Venetians lost eighty thousand men, and the Turks one hundred and eighty thousand, during the siege.

16. Cyprus is a large island, being one hundred and fifty miles long, and seventy broad. In time of peace, its trade is very considerable, as consuls from almost every European nation reside here. It had formerly eight hundred or one thousand villages, but at present it is so thinly inhabited, that half the lands lie uncultivated.

17. The island of Nio is in the neighbourhood of Santorini, and is about thirty-five miles in circumference. It is well cultivated, and is not so steep as the generality of the other islands of the Archipelago. The wheat of this island is excellent, but oil and wood are scarce. The inhabitants

bitants are very personable men; and the women, as well as those of Santorini, are remarkably handsome; their dress is extremely neat and showy. The ancients pretend that the Grecian poet Homer died in this island, and assert that his tomb was erected here.

18. Argentierra, or Kimoli. The French give it the name of Argentierre, from the silver mines discovered in it; but these have been long shut up, and the natives deny all knowledge of such metal being in the island, from an apprehension that the Turks might compel them to labour in the mines. It is a barren spot, destitute of all water but what can be saved in cisterns, and has but one village in it, the habitations of which are an assemblage of miserable cottages. The dress of lower class of women is inconceivably ridiculous, consisting of an enormous load of linen, which they wear till it is extremely dirty. The better sort, however, are a little more tasty, and set off their persons to the best advantage. Their under petticoat is only their short shift, embroidered with red, that leaves their legs exposed; the thickness of which is esteemed a principal article of female beauty: those ladies, however, whom nature has not bestowed this mark of handsomeness upon, endeavour to supply the deficiency by three or four pair of thick stockings. When the leg is so uniformly thick all the way as to be truly perfect according to their standard, some of the ladies add a pair of half-boots of cut velvet, frequently decorated with some small silver buttons.

19. The island of Cephalonia is about eighty miles long, forty broad, and one hundred and thirty in circumference. This island was subdued by the Thebans, under the conduct of Amphitryo, who is said to have killed Pterelas, who then reigned in the island. At this time, according to ancient story, one Cephalus, a man of great distinction at Athens, having accidentally killed his wife Procris, in shooting at a deer, fled hither to Amphitryo, who pitying him, not only received him kindly, but made him governor of the island, which henceforth was called Cephalonia. It fell in time under the power of the Macedonians, then of the Ætolians, and was at length reduced by M. Ful. Nobilior, who, mastering the metropolis after a four months siege, sold all the citizens for slaves, and added the island to the demesnes of the Roman republic. This island is agreed on all hands to be very fertile, especially in red wines, excellent muscadine raisins and currants, and fine oil; in all which the people here carry on a very advantageous commerce. It is chiefly inhabited by Greeks. Its bishopric is subject to the metropolitan of Corfu, and united to that of Zante. The island is divided into twenty districts, and is altogether mountainous, there being scarcely a plain of any extent. It is situated between the island of St. Maura on the N. and Zante on the S. about twelve miles from the former, and twenty from the latter, and not above twenty-four from the coast of the Morea. The chief town, Cephalonia, is a small city and fortress, and is situated on a hill about six miles from Argostoli, the principal port of the island, and residence of the governors; which said port is large and well sheltered on all sides; but the anchorage is not very good. At its entrance is a large village, where the raisin merchants mostly reside. There are two other ports, one at Pescarda, another at Lucksuri, the former for small, the latter for large vessels. Another fortress is called Asso, which, with Cephalonia, are the only places of strength. The other islands are small, and, not being remarkable for any thing, do not merit a particular description.

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